GEORGE R.

GEORGE the Second, by the Grace of God, King of *Great Britain*, *France*, and *Ireland*, Defender of the Faith, *&c.* To all to whom theſe Preſents ſhall come, Greeting: Whereas our Truſty and Well-beloved *Thomas Longman*, *John Shuckburgh*, *Thomas Osborne*, *Charles Hitch*, and *Stephen Auſten*, Citizens and Bookſellers of *London*, have by their Petition humbly repreſented unto Us, that they have been at very great Expence and Labour in procuring and purchaſing Books for the compiling and improving a Work, Entitled, *Modern Hiſtory: Or, The Preſent State of all Nations*; deſcribing their reſpective Situations, Perſons, Habits, Buildings, Manners, Laws and Cuſtoms, Religion, Policy, Arts and Sciences, Trades, Manufactures and Huſbandry, Plants, Animals, and Minerals, by *Thomas Salmon*: In which are comprehended not only ſuch Voyages and Travels, as have been publiſhed already, but the Accounts and Obſervations of ſeveral judicious Travellers, who have lately viſited the remoteſt Parts of the Globe, and had great Opportunities of informing themſelves of the preſent State of the reſpective Nations they deſcribe: The Third Edition, with conſiderable Additions and Improvements, and an Abſtract of the antient Hiſtory of moſt of the Countries deſcribed, brought down to the preſent Time. The whole adorned with Cuts of the various Inhabitants, and Maps of the ſeveral Countries, projected by *Herman Moll*, the moſt accurate and correct Geographer of this Age, in Three Volumes in Folio. Which Work, the Petitioners, with the utmoſt Submiſſion, apprehend may be of great Service not only to the Publick in general, but to all Perſons concerned in Trade and Navigation; and being deſirous of reaping the Fruits of their very great Expence and Labour, and of enjoying the full Profit and Benefit that may ariſe from printing and vending the ſame, without any other Perſon interfering in their juſt Property, which they cannot prevent without Our Licence and Protection; they have therefore moſt humbly prayed Us to grant them Our Royal Licence and Protection for the ſole Printing, Publiſhing, and Vending the ſaid Work, in as ample Manner and Form as has been done in Caſes of the like Nature. We taking the Premiſes into Our Princely Conſideration, and being graciouſly inclined to give Encouragement to all Works that may be of publick Uſe and Benefit, are pleaſed to condeſcend to their Requeſt; and do, by theſe Preſents (as far as may be agreeable to the Stature in that Caſe made and provided) grant to the ſaid *Thomas Longman*, *John Shuckburgh*, *Thomas Osborne*, *Charles Hitch*, and *Stephen Auſten*, their Heirs, Executors, Adminiſtrators, and Aſſigns, Our Royal Privilege and Licence for the ſole Printing, Publiſhing, and Vending the ſaid Work, during the Term of Fourteen Years, to be computed from the Date hereof; ſtrictly forbidding and prohibiting all Our Subjects, within Our Kingdoms and Dominions, to reprint or abridge the ſame, either in the like, or any other Volume or Volumes whatſoever, or to import, buy, vend, utter, or diſtribute, any Copies thereof reprinted beyond the Seas, during the aforeſaid Term of Fourteen Years, without the Conſent or Approbation of the ſaid *Thomas Longman*, *John Shuckburgh*, *Thomas Osborne*, *Charles Hitch*, and *Stephen Auſten*, their Heirs, Executors, Adminiſtrators, or Aſſigns, by Writing under their Hands and Seals firſt had and obtained, as they will anſwer the contrary at their Peril: Whereof the Commiſſioners, and other Officers of our Cuſtoms, the Maſter, Wardens, and Company of *Stationers* of *London*, and all other Officers and Miniſters, whom it may concern, are to take Notice, that ſtrict Obedience be given to Our Pleaſure herein ſignified.

Given at our Court at St James's *the Thirteenth Day of* December 1743, *in the Seventeenth Year of Our Reign.*

By His Majeſty's Command,

CARTERET.

MODERN HISTORY:
OR, THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
ALL NATIONS.

Deſcribing their reſpective

SITUATIONS, PERSONS, HABITS,

AND BUILDINGS;

MANNERS, LAWS AND CUSTOMS, RELIGION,

AND POLICY;

Arts and Sciences, Trades, Manufactures and Husbandry;

PLANTS, ANIMALS, AND MINERALS.

By Mr *SALMON.*

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By *HERMAN MOLL.*

THE THIRD EDITION.

With conſiderable Additions and Improvements, interſperſed in the Body of the Work: Alſo the Hiſtory and Revolutions of each Country, brought down to the preſent Time.

IN THREE VOLUMES.

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MDCCXLV.

BRITISH MUSEUM

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1. The Grotto of PAUSIRIPPUS.
2. The Tomb of VIRGIL.
3. The Tomb of SANAZARIUS.
4. The Hill called *Pauſilippus*.
5. The Ruins of a Cirque.
6. The Iſland Niſita.
7. The End of the Grotto.
8. The Grotto of the Dog.
9. The Lake Agnano.
10. The Wood of Aſtroni.
11. Solfatara.
12. The Capuchins.
13. The Temple of DIANA.
14. The Colliſeo, a Theatre.
15. The Temple of NEPTUNE. (Ruins)
16. The Palace of To
17. St. JAMES. (GIACOMO)
18. The City of Puzzoli.
19. The Ruins of a Mole.
20. The Ruins of a Cirque, and the Hoſpital Dell' Annonciata.
21. The Ruins of a Cuſtom houſe.
22. The Mount Gaurus.
23. The Villa of CICERO.
24. The New Mountain.
25. The Lake Lucrino.
26. The Bath of St. GEORGE.
27. Bath and ſubterraneous Grotto's.
28. The Ruins of a Temple, and Tomb of AGRIPPINA.
29. The Caſtle of Baya.
30. The Port of Baya.
31. The Villa of POMPEY.
32. The Villa of MARIUS.
33. The Piſcina Mirabilis, and Elyſian Fields.
34. The Cento Camerelle.
35. The Mare Morto.
36. The Villa of M. LUCULLUS.
37. The Grotto Dragonara.
38. The Ruins of the City of Miſena.
39. Procita Iſland.
40. Iſchia Iſland.
41. The Lake Averno.
42. The Grotto of the Cumean Sibyl.
43. The Ruins of a Temple.
44. The Arco Felice.
45. The City of Cuma.
46. Villa de Vaccia.
47. The Bath of St. GERMANS.
48. The Monte *X P O.*
49. The Ruins of a Cirque.

THE PRESENT STATE OF Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the ſituation, and extent, and of the air, mountains, and rivers, of Bohemia.

CHAP. I.

WITH Bohemia the provinces of Sileſia and Moravia being incorporated, they will be deſcribed together; but as to Luſatia, which was alſo formerly reckoned a part of Bohemia, this having been transferred by the Emperor FERDINAND II, to the Elector of Saxony, will be treated of hereafter, as part of that Elector's dominions.

The name.

Bohemia is ſaid to have taken it's name from the Bemi, or Boiemi, the antient inhabitants thereof; who, according to TACITUS, were deſcended from the Boii, a Gallick nation that retired into the Hyrcanian foreſt, which runs through this country, rather than ſubmit to the Roman yoke.

The ſituation and extent. The air. Mountains. Rivers. The Elbe. The Oder. Viſtula. Moraw. Teya. Igla.

The modern Bohemia, including Sileſia and Moravia, is bounded by Saxony and Luſatia, on the north; by Poland and Hungary towards the eaſt; by Bavaria and Auſtria towards the ſouth; and by the palatinate of Bavaria and electorate of Saxony towards the weſt. Extending from forty-eight degrees odd minutes, to fifty two degrees odd minutes, north latitude, and is near three hundred Engliſh miles from north to ſouth, and two hundred and fifty from eaſt to weſt. This being an inland country, remote from any ſea, the cold is more ſevere than in ſome other places of the ſame latitude; and yet the air is not healthful, which may proceed in part from the woods and mountains which abound here, and check the winds in their courſe; and partly from their waters, which are very bad, and occaſion many diſtempers. The country is mountainous towards the ſouth and eaſt, but lies more open on the north and weſt: and there are alſo great mountains between Moravia and Bohemia. The rivers Elbe and Muldaw have their ſource in Bohemia Proper, and running northward, meet below Prague; after which, the united ſtream is called the Elbe, and continues it's courſe north-weſt, thro' Saxony, and waſhing the walls of Hamburgh, falls into the German ocean, little below Gluckſtat. The Oder alſo has it's riſe in the mountains on the ſouth of the province of Sileſia, and running northward, waſhes the ſhores of Poland, Brandenburgh, and Pomerania, after which it falls into the Baltick. The Weiſel, or Viſtula, has it's ſource in the ſame mountains, and running firſt to the eaſtward, paſſes by Cracow in Poland; then turning northward, waſhes the walls of Warſaw, and continuing it's courſe ſtill north, falls into the Baltick near Dantzick. The river Moraw, riſes in the mountains which divide Sileſia from Moravia, and taking it's courſe to the ſouthward, runs quite through the province of Moravia, after which it falls into the Danube near Preſburgh. The river Teya, or Theyſa, runs from weſt to eaſt through the ſouth part of Moravia, and falls into the Moraw. The river Igla, alſo runs from weſt to eaſt, and falls into the Moraw. There are many other ſmall rivers in this country, which are deſcribed in the map of Bohemia.

CHAP. II.

Contains a deſcription of the provinces and chief towns of Bohemia.

Provinces.

THE three grand diviſions of the kingdom of Bohemia are, 1. Bohemia Proper. 2. The Dutchy of Sileſia. And, 3. The Marquiſate of Moravia.

Bohemia Proper. Prague city.

Bohemia Proper is bounded by Luſatia on the north; by Sileſia and Moravia towards the eaſt; by Auſtria on the ſouth; and by Miſnia and Bavaria towards the weſt. A mountainous woody country, antiently reckoned part of the Hyrcanian foreſt, but has not much of the appearance of a foreſt at preſent, the woods many of them having been converted into towns and villages; of which travellers relate, there are an incredible number here. The capital of this province, and of the whole kingdom, is the city of Prague; ſituate on the river Muldaw, in fifty degrees north latitude; and fourteen degrees odd minutes to the eaſtward of London; about an hundred and forty miles north-weſt of Vienna, and ſeventy ſouth of Dreſden. It is an archbiſhoprick; and was the largeſt univerſity in Europe, if our writers have not miſtaken a figure, when they relate that it contained forty thouſand ſtudents in the time of their apoſtle JOHN HUSS, who attempted a reformation of the errors of the church of Rome, almoſt an hundred years before Luther. The city is one of the largeſt in this part of the world; and compoſed of three towns, viz. Old

Prague, New Prague, and the Leſſer Prague. The old town ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the river Muldaw, in which is the univerſity, being the moſt populous of the three. Here are alſo ſeveral monaſteries, and a fine college of the Jeſuits. The new town encompaſſes the former, and is divided from it only by a moat. This is fortified, and has a citadel; but is of too large an extent to ſuſtain a ſiege, unleſs it was garriſoned by an army. The leſſer town is divided from the other by the river Muldaw, over which there lies a beautiful ſtone bridge; part of it is pleaſantly ſituated on a riſing ground, where ſtands a magnificent caſtle and palace of the Emperor's, formerly the reſidence of the Bohemian Kings: here alſo ſtands the cathedral church dedicated to St Veit; and here are the houſes of the nobility, among which that of Count WALLENSTEYN, afterwards Duke of Friedland, and General to the Emperor FERDINAND II, is moſt admired. It is a very ſtately ſtructure, built upon the ruins of above an hundred houſes, which were pulled down to make room for it, and furniſh materials. The gardens are exceeding beautiful; and the aviary, the model whereof was taken from that of Prince DORIA at Genoa. In the ſtables, which are very large, ſtands a marble pillar between each horſe, and to every ſtanding there is a rack of ſteel, and a marble manger, and over it the picture of the horſe which uſed it, as big as the life, with his name. Beſides theſe three quarters, there is a ſuburb called the Jews town, where great numbers of that people inhabit, who traffick chiefly in jewels and precious ſtones, particularly topazes, and ſuch other ſtones as are dug in the Bohemian mines.

Egra city.

Prague, according to Dr BROWN, is much larger, and more populous than Florence, the ſtreets longer; and the windows being of fine glaſs, make a far better appearance than the ragged paper windows of Florence. The Muldaw alſo is a nobler river than the Arno at Florence, and the bridge over it exceeds all the four bridges on the Arno; but then the cathedral of Florence, built of black and white marble, the chapel of St LAWRENCE, and the great Duke's gallery and rarities, exceed any thing that is to be found at Prague. Upon the white hill, near Prague, was fought that memorable battle on the 8th of November, 1620, between the Emperor's forces, commanded by the Duke of Bavaria; and the Elector Palatine's troops, the head of the Proteſtant league, wherein the Elector's army being defeated, the Proteſtant intereſt in Germany ſuffered pretty much, and the Elector loſt both the kingdom of Bohemia and the Palatinate. 2. Egra, a great town about fourſcore miles to the weſtward of Prague; ſituate on the river Eger, taken notice of for a brackiſh fountain near it, which cures diſtempers of the eyes and ears by purging. 3. Koningratz, ſituate on the Elbe, fifty miles to the eaſtward of Prague: a Biſhop's ſee in the Archbiſhoprick of Prague. 4. Glatz, ſituate at the foot of the hills which divide Bohemia from Sileſia, the capital of a very rich diſtrict, and about a hundred miles to the eaſtward of Prague.

Sileſia province.

Breſlaw city.

Croſſen.

Glogaw.

Lignitz.

Jagendorf.

The province of Sileſia is bounded by Brandenburgh on the north: by Poland on the eaſt: by the mountains called Riſſenbergen, which ſeparate it from Moravia, towards the ſouth: and by Bohemia on the weſt. The chief Towns whereof are, 1. Breſlaw, the capital of Sileſia, and of a dutchy, to which it gives it's name; being ſituate on the river Oder, about an hundred and twenty miles to the north-eaſt of Prague, in fifty-one degrees odd minutes north latitude. It is an handſome large and well fortified city, a Biſhop's ſee, and univerſity; and governed by its own magiſtrates. 2. Croſſen, the capital of a dutchy, ſituate upon the Oder, near the confines of Brandenburgh; which was mortgaged ſeveral times, and at length abſolutely transferred to the Elector of Brandenburgh, who now remains ſovereign of it. 3. Glogaw, the capital of a dutchy of the ſame name; ſituate on the Oder, forty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Croſſen. 4. Lignitz, the capital alſo of a dutchy, to which it gives it's name; ſituate about thirty-ſix miles to the weſtward of Breſlaw. 5. Jagendorf, ſituate on the river Oppa, near the confines of Moravia: the capital of a dutchy of the ſame name.

Moravia province.

Olmutz city.

Brin.

Iglaw.

The marquiſate of Moravia is bounded by Sileſia on the north and eaſt: by Auſtria on the ſouth: and by Bohemia on the weſt. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Olmutz, the capital of the province, ſituate on the river Moravia, in the latitude of forty-nine degrees forty minutes. A town of pretty good trade, and the only Biſhop's ſee in the province. 2. Brin, a well fortified town; ſituate at the confluence of two ſmall rivers, about fifty miles to the northward of Vienna. 3. Iglaw, ſituate on a river of the ſame name, about forty miles to the weſtward of Brin, near the mountains which ſeparate Moravia from Sileſia. A large ſtrong town, and lies on the road from Bohemia to Hungary.

CHAP. III.

Contains an account of the perſons and habits of the Bohemians; their genius and temper, buildings, way of travelling, nature of the ſoil, plants, animals, minerals, trade, and manufactures.

Their perſons and habits.

Genius and temper.

THE perſons of the Bohemians, like their neighbours the Germans, are rather of the largeſt: they are tall and corpulent, ſtrong, and of a hale complexion; and given to imitate every foreign faſhion, eſpecially thoſe of the French. This is the firſt country we come to from the eaſtward, where the people voluntarily quitted the Aſiatick habit of veſts and gowns, and cloathed themſelves in ſhort coats, breeches, and ſtockings, as with us: the women too have left off their drawers and breeches, which the eaſtern ladies never go without; and conform themſelves generally to the French dreſs, except ſome few who live on the confines of Poland, and continue to cloath themſelves like that people. When I obſerved that the Bohemians were the firſt people on this ſide Aſia, which conformed themſelves to our dreſs, I might indeed have excepted the Ruſſians; but as the Bohemians were the firſt that did it in point of time, and the Muſcovites only ſubmitted to the alteration, when they were compelled to it by the late Czar, and poſſibly may return to the Aſiatick dreſs again, it may very well be ſaid, that the Bohemians were the firſt who voluntarily changed the Aſiatick habit for ours. But to proceed to the genius and temper of the Bohemians: their gentlemen, and thoſe of quality, are ſaid to be naturally brave, inclined to arms more than arts, and of an open eaſy converſation. Their boors, on the contrary, who are all in a ſtate of vaſſalage to the great men, are a brutiſh kind of people; and pretty much giving to thieving and pilfering: and there are few writers but charge the whole nation with exceſs and intemperance in eating and drinking. Credulity alſo is another foible, which this people are remarkable for: you meet every where with ſtories of ſpectres and apparitions; there is not a mine in the country which is not haunted by one or more of theſe, if we may credit the inhabitants.

Buildings. The palaces of the grandees are many of them built after the Italian model; and the materials of them, as well as of their churches, and other publick buildings, are uſually of ſtone; but the reſt of their houſes, both in city and country, are built with wood, and make but a mean appearance. **Carriages.** Their way of travelling is not different from ours; coaches are in uſe here, tho' their roads are none of the beſt. The lower grounds are deep in winter, and the mountainous part of the country is inconvenient for wheel-carriages, which make the people chooſe the water where they have an opportunity of navigable rivers in ſummer. In winter their rivers are frequently frozen, and they make uſe of the ſledge or ſkates upon them, either for travelling or diverſion.

Soil. The hills, which take up a great part of this country, are generally rocky and barren; but the **Corn and wine.** valleys produce both corn and wine: not in ſo great quantities however, as to export either; on the contrary, they import wine and fruit from Hungary. The wines of Bohemia, tho' tolerably good, will not keep, but ſoon turn ſour, as they do in all other countries which lie ſo far to the northward; to make amends for which, as the ſoil produces plenty of barley and hops, they make and export a great **Beer.** deal of ſtrong beer. Their ſoil alſo is proper for flax; and they have a coarſe ſort of wool, and make both linen and woollen cloth; but tranſport part of their wool and flax unwrought to other countries. A good ſort of ſaffron grows in great plenty here: and their foreſts abound with ſerviceable timber, as their gardens do with fruit-trees, herbs and roots: but their greateſt riches is in their **Mines.** mines of ſilver, copper, lead, tin, and iron. In their mountains alſo are found precious ſtones, particularly topazes, carbuncles, amethyſts, jaſper, ſapphires, &c. which are bought up by the Jews, and ſent abroad. There are at Guttenburg, about twelve miles from Prague, thirty mines of ſilver, or copper, which have been wrought theſe ſeven or eight hundred years; but an hundred weight of ſilver ore does not produce above an ounce of ſilver; and an hundred weight of copper, eight or nine ounces. Their tin mines are of vaſt advantage to them, this mineral being met with in ſcarce any other country but England; and was firſt diſcovered in Bohemia by one of our country-men. Sulphur and ſaltpetre alſo are found here, but they have ſo little common ſalt, that they are forced to import it.

Cattle, fiſh, and fowl. As they have a great deal of good meadow and paſture ground, they abound in oxen, ſheep, and other cattle, eſpecially in horſes of a large ſize: they have alſo moſt other animals wild and tame which are found in Europe: particularly great numbers of deer and game in their foreſts; and the many rivers there are in this country ſupply them with fiſh and wild fowl.

Manufactures and trade. The manufactures of the country are linen and woollen: in which they are arrived at no great perfection; but make very good glaſs: and their manufactures of copper, iron, and tin, are not contemptible; ſome of theſe they export, as they do their precious ſtones, wool, and ſtrong beer; but their foreign trade does not ſeem to be very conſiderable.

CHAP. IV.

Contains an abſtract of the antient and modern hiſtory of Bohemia; the ſucceſſion of their princes, and conſtitution of the government.

Bohemia is not ſubject to the laws of the empire. BOHEMIA is frequently looked upon as part of Germany; but as it is one of the Emperor's hereditary countries, and excluded from all thoſe privileges which the other circles and electorates enjoy, (except that the imperial family, as Kings of Bohemia, have a voice in the election of a King of the Romans) I choſe to treat of it as a diſtinct principality: and in this chapter proceed to give an account of the ſovereigns of this country from the earlieſt times down to the preſent reign. There are alſo theſe further reaſons for treating of Bohemia as diſtinct from the empire, namely, that neither the acts of the German dyet, or the laws of the empire, are of any force here; nor are the Bohemians obliged to raiſe forces, or pay taxes for the ſupport and defence of the empire, as the other circles are, but are ſubject only to their own Princes of the houſe of Auſtria.

The antient hiſtory of Bohemia. The Scythians, 'tis generally held, were the firſt inhabitants of Bohemia; but the Boiemi or Boii, a Gallick nation, according to TACITUS, retiring before the conquering Romans, afterwards fixed themſelves here; communicating their name to the country. It was firſt divided into ſeveral principalities, governed by their reſpective Dukes, or Leaders, till **Zechus the founder of the Bohemian monarchy.** ZECHUS the brother of LECHUS, who founded the monarchy of Poland about the ſixth century, obtained a kind of ſovereignty of the whole, but was ſtill ſtyled Duke, or Great Duke, and the other Dukes continued to govern their reſpective ſubjects, only acknowledging ZECHUS for their Chief, or Captain-General; for which 'tis ſaid they had one great inducement, namely, that he and his brother LECHUS firſt taught them huſbandry and architecture, the natives being generally ſhepherds before that time, and living in tents, or other movable tenements.

Cracus. The next Duke we meet with in the catalogue of the Bohemian ſovereigns, is CRACUS, ſaid to be the ſame alſo who governed Poland, and built the city of Cracow; but this Prince did not begin his reign till the year 700, which is upwards of an hundred years after the reign of ZECHUS; ſo that there muſt have been ſeveral Princes of Bohemia during that ſpace, of whom their hiſtorians have not been able to give us ſo much as their names. After the death of CRACUS, they relate, that his **Libuſſa.** youngeſt daughter LIBUSSA ſucceeded in the government; but that the people not being ſatisfied with a female ruler, were about to depoſe her; whereupon ſhe pretended that heaven had directed her to let a horſe looſe, and the man at whoſe door he ſtopped, ſhould be her huſband and partner in the government; and a horſe being turned out accordingly, ſtopped at the houſe of **Primiſlaus.** PRIMISLAUS, a peaſant, who being married to LIBUSSA, and ſucceeding her after her death, is reckoned the fourth of the Bohemian ſovereigns: but there appearing to be ſo much of fable mixt with the hiſtory of their antient Princes, I ſhall content my ſelf with giving their reſpective names, and the dates of their ſeveral reigns, till we arrive at times of greater certainty.

Nimislaus, the ſon of Primislaus, ſucceeded his father, *anno* 676.

Mnatha, the ſon of Nimislaus, began his reign *anno* 715.

Vogenius, or Voritius, ſucceeded him, *anno* 735.

Wenceslaus ſucceeded Vogenius, *anno* 763.

Czerzonislaus ſucceeded his brother Wenceslaus, *anno* 785.

Belam his ſon ſucceeded him, *anno* 803.

Borzivoius the firſt Chriſtian Prince.

Borzivoius, the ſon of Belam, ſucceeded his father, *anno* 856, being the firſt of the Bohemian Princes who embraced Chriſtianity; converted, as 'tis ſaid, by Cyrillus and Methodius in the year 894, which occaſioned an inſurrection in his dominions that was near proving fatal to him; but he at length reduced his rebellious ſubjects, and before his death he ſaw the Chriſtian religion prevail in moſt of the Bohemian provinces.

Spitigneus, the ſon of Borzivoius, ſucceeded him, *anno* 904.

Uladislaus I, ſucceeded his father Spitigneus, *anno* 906.

Boleslaus having murdered his brother Uladislaus, *anno* 938, ſucceeded him; perſecuted his Chriſtian ſubjects, and introduced Paganiſm: whereupon the Emperor Otho the Great, invaded his dominions; and after a war of fourteen years, compelled him to become tributary to the Emperor, to do publick penances for his apoſtacy, and reſtore Chriſtianity in Bohemia.

Boleslaus II, ſucceeded his father Boleslaus, *anno* 967.

Boleslaus III, ſucceeded his father Boleslauas II, *anno* 999.

Jaromir, the ſon of Boleslaus III, ſucceeded his father, 1012.

Ulric, the brother of Boleslaus III, and uncle of Jaromir, raiſed a rebellion againſt his nephew, put out his eyes, and uſurped the throne, *anno* 1035.

Bretislaus, the ſon of Ulric, ſucceeded his father, *anno* 1037.

Spitigneus, the ſon of Bretislaus, ſucceeded him, 1055, he was the laſt of the Bohemian Dukes; for his brother Uladislaus, his ſucceſſor, was by the Emperor Henry IV, created King of Bohemia at Mentz.

Kings of BOHEMIA.

Uladislaus created King by the Emperor.

Uladislaus II, ſucceeded his brother Duke Spitigneus II, *anno* 1061, and was created King of Bohemia, *anno* 1086.

Conrade, the brother of Uladislaus, being appointed his ſucceſſor, came to the crown, *anno* 1092.

Brezetislaus, ſon of Uladislaus II, ſucceeded him, *anno* 1099.

The Emperor appoints their King.

Borzivoius, the brother of Brezetislaus, ſucceeded him *anno* 1100, by the appointment of the Emperor Henry IV, but againſt the conſent of the Bohemian Dukes, who twice dethroned him, and compelled him to retire into Germany.

Suatolplook, or Sutapulcus, nephew to Borzivoius, uſurped the throne, *anno* 1107; being aſſiſted by the Bohemian Dukes, and with a ſum of money purchaſed the confirmation, or inveſtiture, of the Emperor.

Otho ſucceeded Suatolplook, *anno* 1109; but was depoſed for his incapacity to govern.

Uladislaus II, brother to Borzivoius, was elected in the room of Otho, *anno* 1111.

Sobieslaus, the brother of Uladislaus, ſucceeded him, *anno* 1125.

Uladislaus III, ſucceeded Sobieslaus, about the year 1153, by the appointment of the Emperor Frederick Barbaroſſa, who made him vicegerent of the empire during his abſence in Italy: he commanded alſo the Emperor's armies; and, as a reward of his merit, the Emperor gave him for his arms, azure, a lion argent, the preſent arms of Bohemia.

Sobieslaus II, ſon to Sobieslaus I, ſucceeded to the throne, *anno* 1174.

Frederick, the ſon of Uladislaus, ſucceeded Sobieslaus II, *anno* 1178, by the appointment of the Emperor.

Conrade II, ſucceeded Frederick his couſin, *anno* 1190, by the appointment of the Emperor.

Wenceslaus, brother to Conrade, and ſon of Sobieslaus, came to the throne, *anno* 1192, by the Emperor's influence.

Bretislaus or Henry, biſhop of Prague, ſucceeded to the throne, *anno* 1193.

Uladislaus IV, ſon to Uladislaus III, ſucceeded to the crown, *anno* 1196; but reſigned to his brother Primislaus, who aſcended the throne the ſame year, 1196.

Ottocarus, to the prejudice of his elder brother Wenceslaus, uſurped the throne, *anno* 1231; but was killed in a battle with the Emperor Rodolphus.

Wenceslaus II, ſucceeded his brother Ottocarus the uſuper the ſame year 1231.

Ottocarus II, the ſon of Wenceslaus, ſometimes called Primislaus III, ſucceeded his father, *anno* 1253. He was continually engaged in wars with the Emperor Rodolphus, and ſometimes with great ſucceſs; inſomuch that 'tis ſaid, he was maſter of all the countries from the Adriatick to the Baltick; but was at length killed in a battle with the Emperor near Murkfelt.

Wenceslaus III, ſucceeded his father Ottocarus *anno* 1278, and was afterwards elected King of Poland.

Henry Duke of Carinthia, brother-in-law to Wenceslaus III, was elected King by the Bohemian barons; but the Emperor depoſed him, and ſet up his ſon Rodolph, who began his reign *anno* 1306, after whoſe death the Emperor advanced his ſon John of Luxemburgh to the throne of Bohemia, *anno* 1307.

Charles Emperor of Germany, and ſon of John, ſucceeded to the Bohemian crown, *anno* 1346.

Wenceslaus V, his ſon, ſucceeded him, *anno* 1378; and was afterwards elected Emperor.

Sigismond King of Hungary, afterwards Emperor of Germany, ſucceeded Wenceslaus in the kingdom of Bohemia, *anno* 1418. It was in this reign that John Huss and Jerom of Prague, endeavoured a reformation in the church, and were burnt at the ſtake for it; of which I ſhall give a further account under the head of religion.

Albert Duke of Auſtria, (afterwards elected Emperor and King of Hungary) was appointed King of Bohemia by the Emperor Sigismond, *anno* 1436; in which he was oppoſed by the Huſſites and the nobility of Bohemia, whom he reduced, and deprived of the privilege of electing their Kings, which they had in a great meaſure loſt before.

Uladislaus V, the ſon of Albert, ſucceeded his father in the kingdom of Bohemia, in 1439, being then an infant of five years of age; after whoſe death

George Podebrache was elected King by the Bohemian Barons, *anno* 1471; but being a favourer of the Huſſites, a party was formed againſt him, which occaſioned him a very tumultuous reign: after whoſe death,

Uladislaus VI, was advanced to the throne, *anno* 1471; being ſucceeded by his ſon

Lewis, who came to the crown, *anno* 1516, by the influence of the Emperor Maximilian, and was afterwards elected King of Hungary. He was killed in a battle with the Turks, after whoſe death,

Ferdinand I, Archduke of Auſtria, brother to the Emperor Charles V, was elected King of Bohemia, *anno* 1526; and afterwards Emperor of Germany, in the year 1556, on the reſignation of Charles V, after whoſe death,

Maximilian King of the Romans, was elected King of Bohemia and Hungary, *anno* 1562; and Emperor of Germany, *anno* 1564, His tolerating the Proteſtants made him ſometimes ſtyled the Lutheran Emperor. He was ſucceeded by his ſon,

Rodolph II, King of the Romans and of Hungary, elected King of Bohemia, *anno* 1575, and afterwards Emperor of Germany. In the year 1609, during the reign of Rodolph, the Proteſtants of Germany formed a confederacy, called the Union, or Evangelical League, of which they choſe Frederick IV, Elector Palatine for their head: with theſe the Proteſtants of Bohemia joined, under pretence of being oppreſſed by the Emperor, and called in his brother Matthias to their aſſiſtance, obliging the Emperor Rodolph to reſign the crown of Bohemia to Matthias; who was proclaimed and crowned King of Bohemia, *anno* 1611, and elected Emperor upon the death of Rodolph, *anno* 1612.

The Emperor Matthias, in the year 1616, declared his couſin Ferdinand King of Bohemia, and cauſed him to be crowned and recognized by the ſtates of that kingdom, with this reſtriction, that he ſhould not execute any regal act in the Emperor's life-time without his conſent.

An inſurrection of the Proteſtant Bohemian nobility.

The Emperor Matthias at this time kept his court at Vienna, and King Ferdinand at Gratz in Stiria, the adminiſtration of the government of Bohemia being left to the privy-council of that kingdom, who were generally Roman Catholicks; and at the inſtigation of the Archbiſhop of Prague, 'tis ſaid, very much diſcountenanced and oppreſſed the Bohemian Proteſtants: whereupon the nobility of that perſuaſion aſſembled at Prague, in order to procure a redreſs of their grievances, at the ſame time levying forces to ſupport their pretenſions. The government being apprehenſive of an inſurrection, deputed ſome of the imperial miniſters to the Proteſtant nobility to endeavour to pacify them; but hot words ariſing in the aſſembly, the Proteſtants threw the Emperor's Chief Juſtice out of the caſtle-window two ſtory high, and after him one of the Council of State, and a ſecretary of the Emperor's; but when they were cool, and began to reflect on the raſhneſs of the action, they endeavoured to excuſe the fact to the Emperor; continuing however to make levies of horſe and foot, to defend themſelves in caſe of the worſt; they proceeded alſo to expel the Jeſuits out of the city of Prague by their own authority; at which the Emperor being further exaſperated, both ſides ſoon after took the field, towns were taken, and ſeveral ſkirmiſhes happened between the Imperial and Proteſtant troops, when the old Emperor Matthias died; and

Ferdinand ſucceeded to the crown of Bohemia; being afterwards elected Emperor of Germany.

They elect Frederick V, Elector Palatine for their King.

The Bohemian Barons, notwithſtanding they had acknowledged Ferdinand for their King in the reign of the late Emperor, ſent privately to offer the crown of that kingdom to Frederick V, Elector Palatine, the head of the Proteſtant league abovementioned, who had married the Princeſs Elizabeth, daughter of James I, King of England. This Prince, after ſeveral others had refuſed it, accepted the offer of the Bohemian Lords, and was crowned King on the fourth of November, 1619; whereupon he ſent to his father-in-law, King James, to excuſe his accepting the crown of Bohemia without having conſulted him, deſiring his aſſiſtance, and acquainting him that the caſe would admit of no deliberation. King James, it ſeems, was far from approving the action; and indeed very much diſliked the precedent of a people's taking upon them to depoſe one King, and advance another to the throne by their own authority. The Emperor at the ſame time, to terrify the Palatine and his adherents, cauſed a proſcription to be publiſhed againſt them; wherein he declares, That Frederick Count Palatine of the Rhine, having made himſelf the head of a perfidious and rebellious crew in the kingdom of Bohemia, was guilty of high-treaſon, and therefore requires all people to forſake him, diſcharges his ſubjects and vaſſals in the palatinate from their allegiance to him, and commanding them that they give him neither aid or aſſiſtance, under the ſevereſt penalties.

The Emperor's Generals alſo fell into the Palatinate, ravaging the country in a dreadful manner; whom the Princes of the Union, or Evangelical League, endeavoured to oppoſe; and King James was prevailed upon to ſuffer a regiment of Engliſh voluntiers, conſiſting all of gentlemen almoſt, to join them. But this was too ſlender a reinforcement to ſupport the intereſt of his ſon-in-law, and the Emperor's Generals coming to an engagement with the Bohemian Proteſtants on the eighth day of November, 1620, entirely defeated them, and compelled the Prince Palatine, the new-elected King, with his Queen the Princeſs Elizabeth, to fly into Sileſia, and from thence afterwards into Holland, whereby he loſt not only the kingdom of Bohemia, but the whole Palatinate. The Emperor, to reward the ſervices of Maximilian Duke of Bavaria, who was his General in this war, called a dyet at Ratiſbon, where he cauſed him to be advanced to the dignity of Elector Palatine of the Rhine, in the room of Frederick V. The upper Palatinate was alſo conferred upon him; and the Emperor having executed great numbers of the malecontents in Bohemia, reſumed the government of that kingdom, of which he had been crowned King in the life-time of the late Emperor; and the imperial family have ever ſince claimed Bohemia as their hereditary dominion, without ſuffering the nobility to have any ſhare in the choice of their Princes.

The Emperor FERDINAND III, ſucceeded FERDINAND II, his father, in the kingdom of Bohemia, *anno* 1637.

The Emperor LEOPOLD, ſon of FERDINAND III, ſucceeded to the crown of Bohemia, *anno* 1656.

The Emperor JOSEPH, the eldeſt ſon of LEOPOLD, ſucceeded to the crown of Bohemia, *anno* 1705.

The late Emperor CHARLES ſucceeded his brother JOSEPH in the kingdom of Bohemia, *anno* 1711.

Theſe laſt Princes being Emperors of Germany as well as Sovereigns of Bohemia, I ſhall give a further account of their hiſtory when I come to treat of the ſtate of Germany, and proceed at preſent to enquire into the antient and preſent conſtitution of the kingdom of Bohemia.

Antient and preſent conſtitution of the government.

The firſt inhabitants of Bohemia of whom hiſtory makes any mention, were ſhepherds, and either of Scythian extraction, or led a wandering life like them, moving from place to place under their reſpective leaders, as they could meet with water and paſture for their cattle. ZECHUS firſt inſtructed the Bohemians in building, agriculture, and planting, about the ſixth century, and thereupon was choſen Chief of their tribes, a Judge of their differences in time of peace, and their Captain-General in war; but every Leader continued to govern his own people, after they had divided the country amongſt themſelves, and remained fixed in ſettled habitations. Some affirm that CRACUS, who lived above an hundred years after ZECHUS, was their firſt judge; that till then every head of a family governed his own tribe, having no general arbiter of their differences till they elected CRACUS for that end; and that with him they joined ſeveral Aldermen, or Seniors of families, without whoſe aſſiſtance CRACUS, or his ſucceſſors, could determine nothing of conſequence.

Thus were they governed by CRACUS and his ſon, and afterwards by his daughter LIBUSSA, till ſhe married PRIMISLAUS, who aſſumed a more abſolute command, and obtained the title of Duke, or Great Duke of Bohemia, keeping the other petty Sovereigns pretty much under his ſubjection. And thus were the Bohemians governed by the poſterity and ſucceſſors of PRIMISLAUS and LIBUSSA for four or five hundred years, till the Emperor of Germany, in the eleventh century, created Duke WRATISLAUS, or ULADISLAUS, King of Bohemia. And from that time the Emperors of Germany have inſiſted upon a right of inveſting the Kings of Bohemia in the government of that kingdom, and of rejecting thoſe who have wanted that ſolemnity. Some of their Princes 'tis true have ſince been elected by the Bohemian Barons, or States as they are uſually called, and have governed that people without the Emperor's inveſtiture or confirmation: but then the Emperor has created ſuch Princes a great deal of trouble, and frequently depoſed them; and at other times has appointed that nation kings, without the concurrence of the Nobility or States; and for upwards of an hundred years paſt, the Auſtrian family have claimed the kingdom of Bohemia, with the incorporated provinces of Sileſia and Moravia, as their hereditary dominions, governing them by no other laws, but pure will and pleaſure.

As to Sileſia, this has been ſubject alternately to the Empire and to Poland, as the one or the other were able to maintain their title to it by the ſword; but has at length by treaty moſt of it been confirmed to the houſe of Auſtria, and now conſtitutes part of the kingdom of Bohemia.

Moravia, though now divided into a marquiſate, was antiently one of the moſt potent kingdoms of Europe; Poland, Bohemia, and Sileſia, being all ſubject to it: but their King ZUANTAPOC, about the year 700, refuſing to pay tribute to the Roman empire, after a war of ſome years continuance, was ſubdued, and Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia, made provinces of the Empire; and Moravia is at this day immediately ſubject to the crown of Bohemia, except ſome ſmall principalities which belong to Poland.

From this abſtract of the hiſtory of Bohemia, and the ſucceſſion of their Princes, it appears that every tribe was at firſt governed by it's reſpective Leader or Sovereign; but that in order to prevent eternal ſtrife, concerning their civil rights at home, and to unite their forces in order to defend themſelves againſt invaſions from abroad, they found it neceſſary to elect a Chief to be Supreme Judge of their controverſies, and Commander of their armies. Theſe Chiefs in time made their dominion hereditary, and aſſumed an arbitrary command over the reſt of the Bohemian nobility for ſome hundreds of years; after which the Bohemian Barons found means of re-aſſerting their former right of electing their Princes, and being governed by their own laws, till the Auſtrian family again enſlaved them, and rendered their crown hereditary, as it is at this day. But from this account of the crown of Bohemia being for ſeveral hundreds of years elective, we are not to underſtand that the common people had ever any ſhare in the election of their Princes; no, this was a privilege that the nobility ever reſerved to themſelves, as they do ſtill in Poland. Their huſbandmen, tradeſmen, and mechanicks, ever were, and ſtill are, in a ſtate of vaſſalage to their reſpective Lords, who have the entire diſpoſal of them, and adminiſter juſtice as they ſee fit in their ſeveral courts: nor does the government ever intermeddle in their deciſions, but in ſome extraordinary caſes, where the ſtate may be affected, or the life of the ſubject wantonly taken away. So that every Lord is in effect a monarch in his own territories. The crown of Bohemia's being therefore elective, will be no precedent for our republicans, who aſſert that there can be no legal government, where the Prince or Supreme Magiſtrate is not elected by a majority of the people; for it is certain, that not one in ten of the people had any ſhare in the election of a Sovereign, (any more here than in Poland) even while Bohemia was an elective kingdom.

Prague.

Prague, the capital, Baron POLLNITZ obſerves, is one of the biggeſt towns in Europe, encompaſſed with ramparts, and as well fortified as a place of that extent can be; but commanded by ſeveral hills: That the ſituation is pleaſant in the midſt of fine fields and gardens, and adorned with noble buildings: that the convents of both ſexes are a great ornament to it. The palace or caſtle, which joins to the cathedral, is a great building, compoſed of ſeveral main bodies, without ſymmetry or architecture. The apartments are but low and plain; but here is one of the moſt beautiful proſpects in the world. The great hall, in which the royal feaſt is kept on the day of the coronation of the kings, is the largeſt of the kind, next to the ſpacious hall of Weſtminſter. The palace-gardens are large, but have nothing to recommend them beſides their ſituation. The tribunals of the regency meet in the palace.

The bridge over the Muldaw, which joins Little Prague to the old town, is one of the longeſt and moſt ſubſtantial bridges in Europe.

If we except Rome, Paris, and London, there is no city where there are more gentry, or a gentry that is more wealthy: every body here lives grand; and in no part of the world do the nobility keep greater ſtate, or take more pride in their ſubſtance. They are polite and civil to ſtrangers, whom they know to be perſons of quality. For my own part, ſays the baron, I like them prodigiouſly; and I can ſafely ſay it, I have hardly met with a foreigner, who has not the ſame notion of Prague that I have.

There are no people of quality in the world more addicted to an expenſive way of living than thoſe of Prague; which is the reaſon that for all their immenſe revenues, they are ſometimes over head and ears in debt; but by good luck, they have a ſettlement, which prevents them from total ruin: for moſt part of their lands are entailed for ever on the eldeſt ſon of the family; ſo that he can neither alienate nor encumber them, without the conſent of the whole family, and of the King himſelf; which is a thing very hard to be obtained.

Though the Bohemians are brave and good ſoldiers, yet they do not love the ſervice; I mean the gentry. Moſt of them prefer the civil to military employments; and private life to poſts in the army, or at court. They are ſo uſed to be abſolute maſters at their eſtates, where the peaſants are their ſlaves, and to be homaged like petty ſovereigns by the burghers at Prague, that they do not care to reſide at Vienna; and to be obliged, like other ſubjects, to pay their court to the ſovereign, and the miniſters.

The Bohemian peaſants are miſerable to the laſt degree; their perſons, and all that they have, are at the command of the Lord. The poor wretches have often not a bit of bread to eat, in a country which is one of the moſt plentiful in Europe for all ſorts of proviſions. They dare not go from one village to another to work, nor learn a handicraft trade, without their Lord's conſent. So much ſubjection keeps the poor creatures always trembling and humble; ſo that if you do but ſpeak to them, they are ready to lick the duſt off your feet. The ſeverity with which theſe people are uſed, is really terrible; but 'tis as true on the other hand, that gentle uſage has no effect upon them; for they are exceſſively lazy and ſtubborn, and being moreover uſed to harſh treatment, from generation to generation, blows ſcarce terrify them, though 'tis the only way to make them good for any thing.

The Bohemians have a great genius for muſick; ſo that there's no village, be it ever ſo ſmall, but the maſs is ſung in concert; and they are very happy at winding the hunter's horn.

'Tis certain, that this kingdom is one of the beſt countries in the Emperor's poſſeſſion, and next to Hungary brings him in the moſt money.

Bohemia is a country of ſtates, whom the Emperor, as King of it, ſummons every year to the city of Prague. They conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and towns. The aſſembly is opened by a commiſſioner of the Emperor's nomination, who lays before them his imperial Majeſty's demands. The ſtates, ſuch is their ſubmiſſion and zeal, grant the full demand, which is commonly a very great ſum; yet for all this, the Bohemians would not complain of taxes, if the Emperor reſided among them; but they are very ſorry to ſee their country exhauſted to enrich the Auſtrians, to whom they have a natural averſion, and the Auſtrians as heartily hate the Bohemians.

The ladies here are very amiable. Gaming, which may be called the univerſal pleaſure, is carried as high here as they pleaſe in the houſes of the quality, where aſſemblies of both ſexes are held every night, with good cheer, particularly pheaſants and ortolans in plenty; and upon fiſh days there are trouts, ſalmon, and cray-fiſh; and, that there may be nothing wanting, Bohemia likewiſe furniſhes good wine. At the eſtate of the young Count TSCHERNIN at Melneg, there is a red ſort, not inferior to Burgundy. Of all theſe good things many partake together; and for my part, I own I am taken more with this pleaſure than any other, becauſe we make it laſt as long as we will, and then 'tis ſuited to all ages.

There is a tolerable Italian opera here. In winter they have races in ſtately ſledges: there is great maſquerading; and they dance till they are ready to drop to the ground; for this end there are publick balls, which are extraordinary ſplendid, and might be compared, if any can be compared, with the balls at the Hay-Market in London.

In the ſummer-time, when there is not ſo much company in town, theſe aſſemblies are thinner. The gentry meet at night in a garden belonging to the Prince DE SCHWARTZENBERG, where they game, chat, and walk up and down; after which they always go to ſome houſe or other to ſup. When one has a mind to go to the country, we are ſure of a good reception; and the longer one ſtays, the greater pleaſure one gives to the maſter of the houſe. Here they paſs their time in hunting of all ſorts. Many of the nobility keep packs of hounds, and others hawks. The generality keep muſicians in their ſervice; ſo that let the weather be what it will, one may always be amuſed in this country. Beſides, one enjoys all the freedom here that can be.

CHAP. V.

Treats of the language and religion of the Bohemians.

Language.

THEIR language, like that of the Poles, is a dialect of the antient Sclavonian: a tongue ſo copious and ſweet, that their antient laws required the true pronunciation and orthography of it to be ſtrictly obſerved, which was exceeding difficult, having the uſe of no other letters but the Runick character, which had a very imperfect alphabet, and was not at all fit for the poliſhing a language: but afterwards when Germany came to have a more intimate correſpondence with Bohemia, the Roman letters were introduced, and their language refined with more ſucceſs. The modern Bohemians however, are very remiſs in this particular; and their nobility look upon it as beneath them to ſpeak their native tongue, chooſing rather the High-Dutch, or a kind of gibberiſh, being a mixture of both theſe, and other foreign words.

Religion of the Bohemians.

The Pagans, who antiently inhabited this country, adored chiefly their god PRON, the ſame with THOR among the Saxons, and JUPITER the Thunderer, among the Greeks; but their devotion was afterwards transferred to another idol, named SWANTO WIT, whoſe chief temple ſtood at Wollin in Pomerania, then one of the largeſt cities in Europe.

Chriſtianity was firſt introduced here about the year 890, by METHODIUS, a Greek prelate, which was the reaſon that the Pope's ſupremacy was not acknowledged here till a conſiderable time after.

About the year 1403, ſome ſcholars that had attended King RICHARD's Queen, who was a Bohemian, to England, and converſed with Dr WICKLIFFE's diſciples, having made themſelves maſters of his doctrine, and returning to their own country, communicated WICKLIFFE's works to the famous JOHN HUSS, a doctor of the univerſity of Prague, who from theſe hints, began to reflect on the errors and ſuperſtitions of the church of Rome; and with JEROM, a maſter of arts of that univerſity, afterwards ſtiled JEROM of Prague, began to endeavour a reformation, preaching publickly againſt the ſupremacy, and other tenets of that church, whereby they brought over great part of the Bohemian nation to their opinions. Dr HUSS and JEROM were hereupon ſummoned by the Pope to the council of Conſtance, in the year 1414, whither they refuſed to go however, till they had obtained the Emperor's paſſport for their protection. Here they endeavoured to defend their new doctrines before the council, but not to their ſatisfaction it ſeems; for the two reformers were convicted of teaching thirty articles, either heretical, ſeditious, or ſcandalous. They were condemned alſo as hereticks, and defenders of WICKLIFFE's doctrines; and, after being degraded, were delivered over to the ſecular powers to be burnt, notwithſtanding the Emperor's promiſed protection. HUSS, after pronouncing the ſentence, appealed firſt to God, and afterwards addreſſing himſelf to the Emperor SIGISMUND, reproached him for his breach of faith; to which 'tis ſaid, the Emperor gave no anſwer, being himſelf diſſatisfied with the ſentence, though obliged to humour the clergy in this particular. JEROM it ſeems retracted his pretended hereſies, in order to ſave his life; but relapſing into the ſame opinions again, was alſo condemned, and afterwards burnt at the ſtake.

The deaths of theſe two reformers, ſo treacherouſly deprived of their lives, ſoon occaſioned an inſurrection among their Bohemian diſciples, and upon their King WENCESLAUS's publiſhing a proclamation, prohibiting the Huſſites to aſſemble for divine ſervice, the people roſe, and having forced the town-houſe at Prague, threw the burgomaſters out of the windows, with all thoſe who aſſiſted at the proclamation, while the mob without received them on their pikes and halberts in the ſtreets, whereby many of the citizens were killed or wounded. They proceeded afterwards to demoliſh many churches and monaſteries, with which Bohemia abounded beyond any other nation, the King WENCESLAUS not being able to prevent it; whereupon he ſent to his brother, the Emperor SIGISMUND, for a reinforcement of troops, and retired from Prague to a caſtle in the neighbourhood for his ſecurity: but the Emperor being at this time engaged in a war with the Turks, neglected to ſend any ſuccours into Bohemia.

The following year, *anno* 1419, King WENCESLAUS died, and his brother, the Emperor SIGISMUND, ſucceeded to the crown of Bohemia: but the war with the Turks ſtill continuing, he contented himſelf with deputing ſome of his miniſters to take poſſeſſion of that kingdom, which increaſed the diſaffection of the Bohemians, and made the party of the Huſſites more formidable than ever. Their leader ZISCA, was a Bohemian nobleman, under whoſe conduct they performed many ſurprizing actions. He aſſembled an army of forty thouſand men, and poſſeſſed himſelf of the city and caſtle of Prague, and many other fortreſſes, while the Emperor's miniſters were glad to accept of a ceſſation of arms, being unable to make any conſiderable oppoſition. The Huſſites exerciſed their greateſt ſeverities againſt the clergy, whom they abuſed and plundered moſt unmercifully, ſparing neither their churches or altars.

Theſe outrages obliged the Emperor to ſummon moſt of the princes of the empire to his aſſiſtance, and to march into Bohemia at the head of a prodigious army; where, after various ſucceſs for ſome time, ZISCA compelled the Emperor to retire out of the country again, and leave it entirely at his devotion. But what makes this tranſaction the more remarkable is, that ZISCA, who was ſo named from having but one eye, had loſt the other in an engagement with the Emperor's forces, and blind as he was, afterwards defeated his enemies in many conſiderable battles. But as ſomething may be here aſcribed to the name and preſence of ZISCA in the army, a great deal of his ſucceſs muſt however certainly be owing to the other generals, who had their eyes in their heads, for the ſight is in no caſe ſo neceſſary as in a battle: but however that was, the continual victories of the Huſſites inclined the Emperor at length to treat with them, and to offer ZISCA honourable terms; but as he was upon the way to the imperial court, in order to put a concluſion to the treaty, he died of the plague upon the road in the year 1427. Upon the death of ZISCA, the Emperor renewed the war with the Bohemians again, but with no better ſucceſs than before. The Huſſites defeated his forces from time to time, being always victorious, till about the year 1435, when they crumbled into ſo many ſects and parties, that their diviſions ſoon affected what it was not in the power of the whole Empire to compel them to. But the grand diſpute was between the nobility and commonalty, the one refuſing to be governed or directed by the other, their feuds aroſe to that height, that they came to a pitched battle, wherein the nobility obtained the victory; after which they ſent to the Emperor, to invite him to come and take poſſeſſion of the kingdom; and the Emperor ſo managed the matter upon the treaty, that he perſuaded the Barons to be reconciled to the church of Rome; which point being gained, the common people were obliged either to renounce their principles, or fly their country; ſo that Popery, in a ſhort time, became as firmly eſtabliſhed as ever. Indeed the Bohemian nobility did obtain for the preſent, that they ſhould receive the communion in both kinds; but the clergy were no ſooner reſtored to the exerciſe of their functions, but either by perſuaſion or force, they compelled the Bohemians to give up this alſo. So that after a thirty years war in defence of their religion, they relinquiſhed all they had been contending for. Some of them, 'tis true, rather than comply with the church of Rome, retired to the woods and mountains in Moravia and Sileſia, where they were afterwards joined by the Waldenſes, and formed a conſiderable body. At the Reformation, the Bohemians in general embraced CALVIN's doctrine, which made the Lutherans, as well as the Papiſts, their enemies; and the Bohemians having elected Prince FREDERICK V, Prince Palatine of the Rhine, for their King, in prejudice of the Emperor FERDINAND II, whom they had formerly recognized, as has been related already, they were fallen upon by the Emperor, and the Lutheran Princes of Germany at once. The Palatine's forces were defeated near Prague, *anno* 1620, Popery was again eſtabliſhed in this kingdom, and no other denomination of Chriſtians has been tolerated there ever ſince, except in the province of Sileſia, where the victorious Swedes obtained for them the free exerciſe of their religion, and many other privileges, which have however been frequently infringed.

Dr NICHOLSON, ſpeaking of the religion of Moravia, a province of Bohemia, ſeems to aſcribe the misfortunes of the reformed churches on that ſide, chiefly to that unbounded toleration and liberty of conſcience they were indulged in. As ſoon, ſays he, as the ſynod of St BRINN, which was aſſembled in the year 1608, to ſettle the affairs of religion, had made an edict, That every man ſhould have liberty to regulate his faith according to the meaſure of faith which God had given him; each cobler ſet up for a preacher of the word, and expounder of the ſcriptures. Whereupon, the church was immediately confounded and broken into an irreconcilable medley and hotchpotch of ſects and ſchiſmaticks, viz. Huſſites, Picards, Anabaptiſts, Arians, Flaccians, Trinitarians, Photinians, Lutherans, Calviniſts, Dulcians, Lugentians, &c. So that fourteen ſeveral conventicles of different perſuaſions were aſſembled ſometimes in one city, each of them aſſerting peculiar doctrines and tenets of their own, and denying all manner of communion in church-ordinances with the other thirteen. And what could be expected from this anarchy in the Reformation, but the re-eſtabliſhment of Popery, which accordingly happened?

As to the riſe of the Picards, one of the ſects abovementioned, we have the following account of them; viz. That one PICARDUS, a Flemming, travelling into Bohemia, and pretending to the like ſtate of Perfection as ADAM enjoyed, drew multitudes of people after him, who from the founder of their ſect were called Picards. They pretended to have no regard to marriage, and lived in an iſland to which they gave the name of Paradiſe, perfectly naked, without a rag of clothing. But the famous ZISCA abovementioned, hearing of them, diſturbed their tranquillity, and invading their iſland, put moſt of them to the ſword; but their ſect however met with encouragement in Germany, Bohemia, and other kingdoms many years after.

THE PRESENT STATE OF HUNGARY.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the name, ſituation, and extent of this kingdom; and of the air, lakes, rivers, and mountains.

CHAP. I.

The name.

HUNGARY, part of the antient Pannonia, received it's modern name from the Huns, a Scythian nation, who planted themſelves here about the IIId Century; but Pannonia was of a larger extent than Hungary, comprehending beſides part of the modern Hungary, the provinces of Servia, Boſnia, Sclavonia, part of Auſtria, Stiria, Carinthia, Croatia, and Carniola.

Situation and extent.

The modern Hungary is bounded by the Crapack, or Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland on the north: by Tranſilvania and Wallachia towards the eaſt: by the river Drave, which ſeparates it from Sclavonia on the ſouth: and by Stiria, Auſtria, and Moravia, towards the weſt: extending from forty-five degrees thirty minutes, to the forty-ninth degree of north latitude, and from the ſixteenth to the twenty-ſecond degree of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London.

The air.

The air of Hungary is very unhealthful, eſpecially to foreigners; which is thought to proceed in part from the ſudden alteration of the weather; the days being exceſſive hot, and the nights intolerably cold in ſummer. It has been called *Cæmiterium Germaniæ*, from the great mortality which uſually happens among the German forces when they take the field. The nauſeous vapours which ariſe out of this boggy and ſulphureous ſoil, are looked upon to be another great cauſe of this unhealthfulneſs: but theſe noxious exhalations are not ſo common towards the north of Hungary, and along the banks of the Teyſſe, as they are in the ſouth, and near the Danube.

Lakes.

This country, tho' it lies at ſome diſtance from the ſea, is well watered by lakes and rivers. The moſt conſiderable lakes are, 1. The lake Balaton, or Platſee, about forty miles in length, lying on the weſt ſide of Hungary, between the Drave and the Danube. 2. The New Fidelſee, about twenty-eight miles long, lying a little to the ſouth-weſt of the iſland of Schutz.

Rivers.

The principal Hungarian rivers are firſt, the Danube, which entring Hungary on the weſt ſide, takes it's courſe to the ſouth-eaſt as far as Belgrade, running near three hundred miles through this country, and forming ſeveral conſiderable iſlands, the largeſt of which is Schutz, a little below Preſburg. 2. The Tibiſcus, or Teyſſe, which riſing at the foot of the Carpathian mountains, takes it's courſe firſt to the weſtward, and having paſſed by Tockay, turns to the ſouthward, and falls into the Danube, over-againſt Salankemen. 3. The Drave, which entering Hungary on the weſt, runs almoſt directly eaſt, till it falls into the Danube, a little below the town of Eſſeck. 4. The Raab, which riſing in Stiria, enters the weſt ſide of Hungary; and taking it's courſe to the north-eaſt, falls into the Danube near Komorra. 5. The river Gran, which riſes in the Carpathian mountains; and running to the ſouthward, falls into the Danube, near the city of Gran. 6. The Waag, which riſes alſo in the north of Hungary, and diſcharges itſelf into the Danube, a littie above Komorra.

Theſe rivers are all of them well ſtocked with fiſh, eſpecially the Teyſſe, a thouſand carps here having been bought for the value of a crown; and in ſome places fiſh are ſo plentiful, that they feed their hogs with them. This prolific quality in the Hungarian rivers is aſcribed to the hot exhalations which ariſe every where out of that ſulphureous ſoil. And now we are ſpeaking of the Hungarian waters, the many ſalutary hot baths this country abounds with, muſt not be omitted; tho' I ſhall treat more particularly of them when I come to deſcribe Buda, and other cities famous for their baths. But beſides theſe, there are ſeveral fountains of wonderful qualities: among which, a ſpring of vitriol water near Schmolnitz, which in a ſhort time turns plates of iron into copper. Other waters there are, which if an animal drink of them it is immediate death.

Mountains.

The Crapack, or Carpathian hills, are the moſt conſiderable mountains in this country, under which general name are comprehended all thoſe hills which ſeparate this kingdom from Poland,

Moravia,

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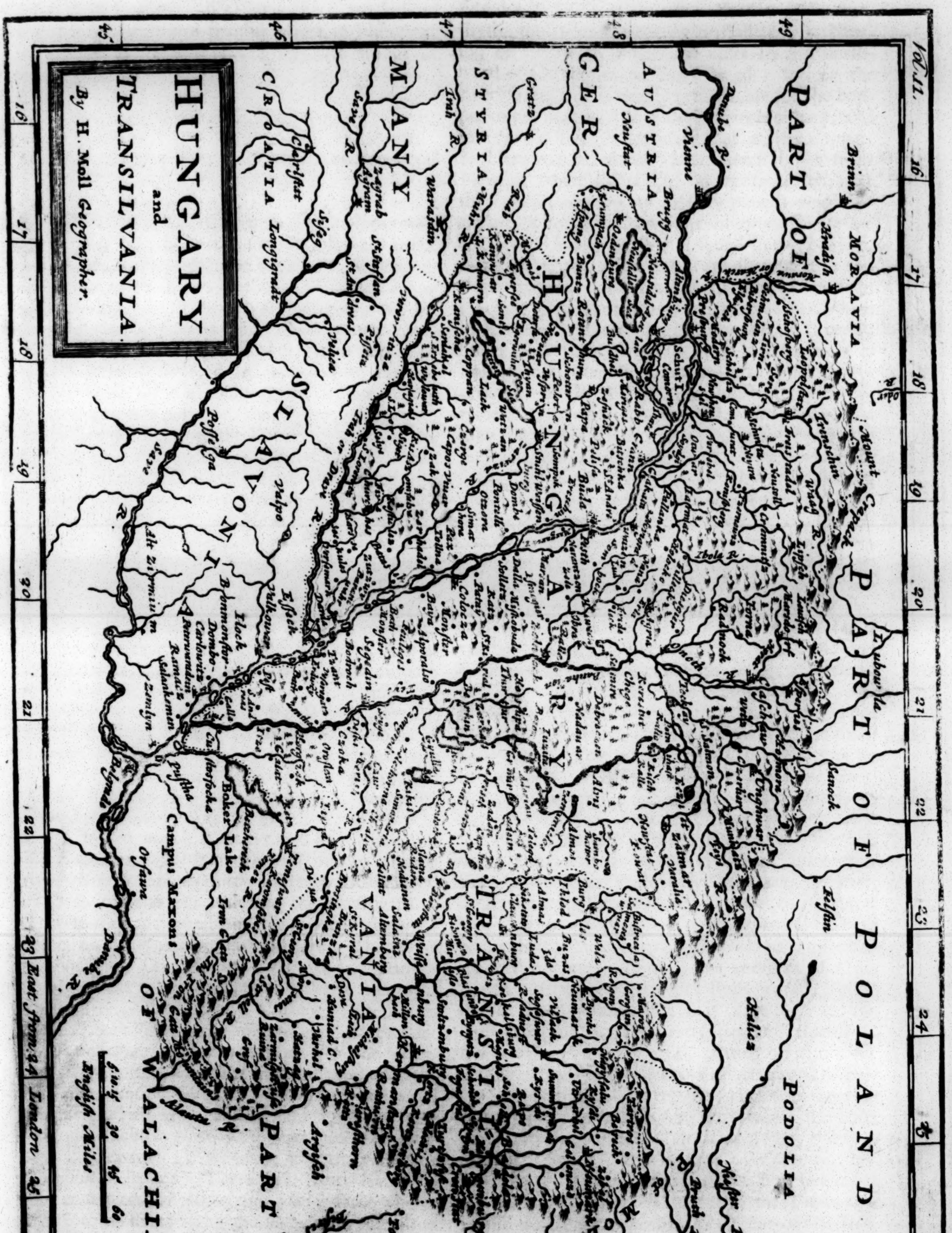
HUNGARY
and
TRANSILVANIA.
By H. Moll Geographer.
PART OF MORAVIA
PART OF POLAND
PODOLIA
MOLDAVIA
PART OF WALACHIA
TRANSILVANIA
HUNGARY
SCLAVONIA
CROATIA
STYRIA
AUSTRIA
PART OF GERMANY
Campus Maxxons
English Miles
East from London
Danube R.
Vienne
Presburg
Buda
Pest
Belgrade
Temeswar
Hermanstat
Weissenburg
Cronstat
Clausenburg
Essek
Segedin
Zagrab
Warasdin

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Moravia, Sileſia, and ſome part of Auſtria. The people who live near it give it different names, according to the countries, or towns it paſſes by, as Kalemberg, Dulſberg, Delmberg, *&c.* The country along the Danube from Preſburg to Belgrade is almoſt one continued plain; being a tract of near three hundred miles; and there are beſides many other large and fruitful plains in Hungary, very little of it being taken up with woods or mountains.

CHAP. II.

Treats of the provinces, chief towns, and mines of Hungary.

HUNGARY was antiently divided into counties, but the exact number of them is not eaſily learnt, much leſs the boundaries of them at this day; nor is this to be thought ſtrange, Hungary having been a perpetual ſcene of war for ſome hundreds of years; and the provinces changing maſters, as the Chriſtians or Turks happened to be ſucceſsful, little regard was had to the antient diviſion of the country. It is now uſually divided into two parts, 1. the Upper, or Larger, which lies north-eaſt of the Danube. And 2. the Lower, or Leſſer, on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the Danube. Upper Hungary is again ſubdivided into four governments, viz. 1. Preſburg. 2. Bergſtet, or the Berg Towns. 3. New-Hauſel. And 4. Caſchaw. Lower Hungary alſo is divided into three governments, viz. 1. that of Buda. 2. Raab. And 3. Caniſia.

Upper Hungary. Preſburg.

New-Hauſel.

Leopold-ſtat.

Chremnitz, and it's mines.

Newſol.

Hern Grunt.

Eſperies.

Caſchaw.

Agria.

Peſt.

Segedin.

Temeſwaer.

Zolnock.

Montgatz.

The chief towns in Upper Hungary are, 1. Preſburg, the capital of the whole kingdom, where the ſtates aſſemble; ſituate on the north ſide of the Danube, in forty-eight degrees odd minutes north latitude, between forty and fifty miles to the eaſtward of Vienna. It ſtands in a pleaſant fruitful country, and is well built, but of no great ſtrength. The caſtle ſtands upon a neighbouring hill, and is fortified after the old way, with round towers; in one of which is kept the crown of Hungary, which, according to tradition, was preſented by an angel to St STEPHEN, their firſt chriſtian king. 2. New-Hauſel, ſituate on the river Nitrach, about thirty miles to the eaſtward of Preſburg, and ten miles to the northward of the Danube. It is eſteemed a place of ſtrength, but of no great extent, tho' it be the capital of a province. 3. Leopoldſtat, a regular fortification, ſituate on the river Vagus, forty miles to the northward of New-Hauſel. 4. Chremnitz, reckoned the chief of the Berg, or mine towns, on account of it's antiquity, is ſituate fifty miles to the north-eaſt of New-Hauſel: the caſtle ſtanding upon the higheſt ground in Hungary; but the town is moſt famous for it's gold mine, ſaid to have been wrought in above a thouſand years. It is an hundred and ſeventy fathoms deep, and the vein runs ten miles in length. There have been found in this mine pieces of pure virgin gold; ſome whereof are to be ſeen among the Emperor's curioſities at Vienna. Near the town of Chremnitz alſo, is a mine of vitriol fourſcore fathoms deep. 6. Schemnitz, the moſt conſiderable of all the ſeven mine towns, is ſituate twenty miles to the ſouthward of Chremnitz, and ſtands upon a rock, the buildings generally good, but the ſtreets uneven. The air is very unhealthful, and the country barren, but the ſilver mines notwithſtanding make it pretty much reſorted to. The richeſt of theſe mines are two called the Trinity, and a third called the Windſchat. The ore is rich, and moſt of it contains ſome gold, which they ſeparate by melting the ſilver, and afterwards grinding it, and diſſolving it in aqua fortis, made of the vitriol which comes from Chremnitz, wherein the gold ſubſides. Theſe mines alſo, afford cryſtals, amethyſts, and vitriol naturally cryſtallized. 7. Newſol, or Beſtricia, ſituate ten miles to the northward of Chremnitz, at the foot of a hill on the river Gran. It is chiefly remarkable for the copper mines near it, being the beſt in Hungary, and ſometimes ſilver is extracted out of the copper. 8. Hern Grunt, ſituate about ſeven miles from Newſol, where the copper mines are ſo rich, that they yield from twenty to ſixty pounds weight of copper in an hundred weight of ore. There are alſo ſeveral kinds of vitriol found in theſe mines, as white, green, blue, and a tranſparent red; and a green earth called berg grun, uſed in painting. Here are alſo two ſprings of vitriolate water, which in fourteen days turn iron into copper. 9. Eſperies, ſituate on the river Tarkall, near the frontiers of Poland, about an hundred and fifty miles to the eaſtward of Preſburg, remarkable for it's ſalt mines, in one of which, the veins are ſo large, that they dig out pieces of a thouſand pound weight of pure ſalt. Near this place alſo, are two poiſonous fountains, the waters whereof, kill any animal that taſtes them, and are therefore walled up. 10. Caſchaw, ſituate on the river Tarkall, or Taraza, twenty miles ſouth of Eſperies, a royal free town governed by the Emperor's deputy, which occaſions a great reſort of people of quality to it, and is become one of the beſt built towns in the country, notwithſtanding the air is as unhealthful as any in Hungary. Their wine is alſo bad, and occaſions many diſtempers; but being tranſported to Poland and other countries, in which great part of the trade of this place conſiſts, loſes it's noxious qualities. 11. Agria, or Erlaw, ſituate on the ſmall river Agria, in the middle of Hungary, ſixty miles to the north-eaſt of Buda, is a well-fortified town, and a Biſhop's ſee. The caſtle, which ſtands on the oppoſite ſide of the river, has been eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Hungary, but was taken and retaken ſeveral times in the former wars between the Turks and Chriſtians. 12. Peſt, a large town, ſituate on the Danube, over-againſt Buda, with which it has a communication by a bridge half a mile long. It is built of a quadrangular form, and affords a fine proſpect at a diſtance. After the taking of Buda by the Imperialiſts, in the year 1686, this place followed the ſame fate, and was ſurrendered to the Emperor by the Turks. 13. Segedin, ſituate on the river Teyſſe, about ſixty miles to the northward of Belgrade. It was taken by the Turks in the year 1552, and retaken by the Imperialiſts the ſame year Buda was retaken. 14. Temeſwaer, a ſtrong frontier town, ſituate on the river Temes, between forty and fifty miles north-eaſt of Belgrade, taken and retaken ſeveral times by the Turks and Chriſtians; but has been in poſſeſſion of the Imperialiſts, with the whole country about it, ever ſince the year 1718, and ſince confirmed to them by treaty. 15. Zolnock, a ſtrong town, ſituate on the Teyſſe, about ſixty miles to the northward of Segedin, taken by the Turks in the year 1552, and recovered by the Imperialiſts in the year 1685. 16. Montgatz, ſituate near the borders of Poland, about fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Eſperies. It was formerly accounted impregnable, being built upon a ſteep a ſteep rock, and conſiſting of three caſtles, one above another, the uppermoſt commanding thoſe beneath, each of them encompaſſed with a large ditch, and the whole ſurrounded by a moraſs. It was a great while obſtinately defended by the Princeſs RAGOTSKY, wife of Count TECKLY, againſt all the power of the Imperialiſts; but the enemy continuing the blockade for ſome years, ſhe was at length forced to ſurrender in the year 1688, for want of proviſions. 17. Unghuar, ſituate on the river Ungh, at the foot of the Carpathian mountains, near the frontiers of Poland, about forty miles to the eaſtward of Eſperies, by ſome ſuppoſed to have communicated it's name to the whole kingdom. 18. Tockay, ſituate in a plain, at the confluence of the Teyſſe and Bodrack, thirty miles to the eaſtward of Agria, famous for it's excellent wine, of which they tranſport great quantities to Poland.

Unghuar.

Lower Hungary.
Buda.
Baths.

In the Lower Hungary, the chief towns are, 1. Buda, formerly the capital of the kingdom, ſituate in 47 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, ninety miles ſouth-eaſt of Preſburg. The city lies on the declivity of a hill, on the top whereof the caſtle ſtands, and is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Hungary, large and populous, and a place of good trade. The Imperialiſts took it by ſtorm in the year 1686, after a ſiege of ten weeks. The Duke of Lorrain commanded the ſiege; and beſides the German forces, was attended by many noble voluntiers from moſt kingdoms in Europe, and particularly from England, ſome of whom have ſince proved the greateſt generals in Europe. The natural baths of Buda, ſays Dr BROWN, who was there when the Turks were in poſſeſſion of it, are the nobleſt in Europe; not only in reſpect of the large and hot ſprings, but in the magnificence of the buildings. Eight of theſe baths the doctor informs us he had an opportunity of viewing; the principal whereof are, 1. That called the bath of the green pillars, the water whereof is hot, but tolerable without the addition of cold water. It is impregnated with a petrifying juice, which diſcovers itſelf on the ſides of the bath, upon the ſpout, and other places, and makes a grey ſtone. The exhalations of the bath reverberated by the cupola, form long ſtones like icecicles, which hang down from the capitals of the pillars and irons which extend from one column to another, as is obſerved in ſome other ſubterraneous grotto's. The bath is of a round form, ſet about with large pillars ſupporting a cupola, which hath openings to let out the ſteams of the bath, and yet the whole room continues to be a hot ſtove. 2. The bath of Velibey, the nobleſt in Buda, which hath a ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell, and a petrifying juice, and is ſo hot that it requires a mixture of cold water to make it tolerable. The antichamber is very large, the bathing-room capacious and high arched, and adorned with five cupola's; one a very fair one over the great round bath in the middle, and one leſs at each of the four corners, where are bathing rooms for private uſes. Twelve pillars ſupport the great cupola, between eight of which are fountains of hot water, and between the others are places to ſit down, where the barbers and ſervants of the bath attend; and in each of theſe places are two ciſterns of free ſtone, into which they let hot water and cold, to be mixed as every one likes. It is generally obſerved, that the Turks are in nothing more neat and curious than in their baths; but when theſe places fall into the hands of the Chriſtians they are pretty much neglected; ſo that it muſt not be expected that the bagnio's of Buda are kept in that exact order they were when Dr BROWN was there, and the place was in the poſſeſſion of the Mahometans. On the other hand, the Chriſtians much improve their houſes and private buildings, which the Turks altogether neglect, ſuffering the cities and towns under their government to run to ruin. When we have ſeen their temples, their bagnio's, and caravanſera's, there is very little elſe worth our notice in their greateſt cities. 2. Gran, the antient Strigonium, is ſituate on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, over-againſt Barchan, ſixty miles ſouth-eaſt of Preſburg, and thirty north-weſt of Buda; the ſee of an archbiſhop, who is primate of the kingdom. The city is divided into two parts, viz. the upper and lower city; the upper being built on the ſide of a hill, and the other along the banks of the Danube. The moſt conſiderable publick buildings are the cathedral dedicated to St STEPHEN, the archbiſhop's palace, and the caſtle. The town in general is well built and tolerably large, and is now in the poſſeſſion of the Imperialiſts, as all the reſt of the towns in Hungary are. 3. Komorra, ſituate at the eaſt end of the iſland of Schutz, forty miles to the eaſtward of Preſburg. It ſtands in a pleaſant champaign country, almoſt ſurrounded by the rivers Danube and Waag, and has ſuſtained many fruitleſs attacks by the Turks, when they were maſters of the eaſtern part of Hungary. 4. Raab, a well fortified little city, and a biſhop's ſee, ſituate on the ſouthern branch of the Danube, that forms the iſland of Schutz. It ſtands about twenty miles ſouth of Komorra, and has been in poſſeſſion of the Imperialiſts ever ſince the year 1606. 5. Alba Regalis, or Stul Wieſſemberg, ſituate on the river Zavitza, in an inacceſſible moraſs, about forty miles to the ſouthward of Gran. Here the Hungarian Kings were crowned and buried, till it was taken by the Turks in 1543. It has been in the poſſeſſion of the Imperialiſts ever ſince the year 1688. Theſe are the principal cities of Hungary, the reſt will be ſeen in the map of the country.

CHAP. III.

Treats of the genius and temper, perſons and habits of the Hungarians; of their manner of travelling, and noble bridges.

The genius and temper of the Hungarians.

THE antient Hungarians met with much the ſame character from thoſe who were then eſteemed the polite part of the world, as people generally do now on our firſt acquaintance with them. There is ſcarce an inſtance of one nation giving another a better title than that of barbarous, with whom they have had but little converſation. Thus the nations who had the good fortune to receive Chriſtianity before the Huns, tell us, that they were a ſavage people, wholly ſtrangers to commerce and converſation, and uſed to cut and diſfigure the faces of their children to make them appear terrible; ſo that they had no more the features of men, than images carved on the publick buildings, which had ſuffered by the injuries of the weather. That they were bred up ſo hardily as not to ſtand in need of fire, and eat their meat without dreſſing. That they lived wild in the woods, having neither houſe, cottage, or hut to ſkreen them from the weather; and their cloathing was of the ſkins of wild beaſts. That they neither manured or planted their fields, or continued long in any one place, but rambled from one ſide of the country to the other. That they had no ſenſe of morality, or of the nature of good and evil; nor were ever obſerved to exerciſe one act of religion. This is the character ſome zealous Chriſtians have given us of the Pagan Huns. They ſeem loth to allow that any people out of the pale of the church, can be endowed with any good qualities; intimating that the reſt of the world are bears and wolves, and can only be reduced from their fierceneſs and barbarity by embracing Chriſtianity; which may in ſome meaſure be true: but that ever there was ſuch an abandoned race on the face of the earth, as they have made the antient Huns to be, I very much queſtion.

The characters travellers give us of the modern Hungarians alſo is oddly compounded. They tell us, they are a brave warlike people, having ſtood as a barrier between Chriſtendom and Turkey for upwards of two hundred years. That they are wiſe and politick, and zealous aſſerters of the Chriſtian faith. On the other hand, they are charged with unfaithfulneſs, and breach of leagues, when they find it to their advantage, which other chriſtian Kings and States are often guilty of. That they are an idle, ſlothful generation, which the abundant fruitfulneſs of the country inclines them to; as it does to exceſs in eating and drinking, even in the opinion of the Germans, who are not the moſt abſtemious: but their moſt flagrant vice is ſaid to be rebellion, while others look upon theſe frequent inſurrections, as only noble ſtruggles for their liberties.

Perſons and habits.

The Hungarians are of a good ſtature and proportion, and have tolerable complexions, wearing fur caps on their heads, cloſe-bodied coats girt about them with a ſaſh, and over all they have their favourite cloak or mantle, which comes no lower than the hips, and is ſo contrived to be buckled under one arm, that the right-hand is always at liberty. The colours they moſt affect in their clothes are red, blue, or green. Young gentlemen have uſually feathers in their caps, a piece of pride ſaid to be taught them by the Turks. The women of faſhion, as well as men, pretty much imitate the French mode; but neither the one or the other will leave off the ſhort cloak or mantle. The women alſo throw a veil over their faces when they go abroad. The men ſhave their beards, but leave whiſkers on the upper lip. Beſides a broad ſword, the uſual arms of an Hungarian, are an iron mace, with a round head furrowed, and the balta made in the form of a hatchet.

Their way of travelling.

Hungary being plentifully watered with fine rivers, the uſual way of travelling in ſummer is by water, and where they have not this conveniency, an open chariot drawn by two, three, or four horſes abreaſt, carries the traveller over this flat country with great expedition. They have alſo a very fleet breed of horſes for riding, and never dock their tails, which are looked on as a great ornament. The Huſſars, or Hungarian troopers, whoſe pay is ſmall, are very troubleſome to travellers, robbing all they meet, where they can do it with any ſecurity. Nor are thoſe numbers of ſturdy gypſies that ſwarm in this country leſs dangerous, though they live in towns, and generally profeſs ſome handicraft trade. The wolves are another great diſturbance on the road in the night time, eſpecially where it happens to lie through a wood. And the dogs, when you approach a town upon the frontiers in the evening, come ready to devour a paſſenger, being turned out, it is ſaid, on purpoſe to alarm the garriſon, and prevent a ſurprize in the night time.

Bridges.

And now I am upon the head of travelling, I cannot omit mentioning the noble bridges that are to be met with in this country, particularly the bridge of Eſſeck, built over the river Drave, and the marſhy grounds beyond it, being five miles long, and railed in with towers at every quarter of a mile's diſtance. This has been a paſs much contended for in the Turkiſh wars, and occaſioned many ſmart engagements to gain the poſſeſſion of it. There lies alſo a bridge of boats of half a mile long, between Buda and Peſt; and a third over the Danube, between Gran and Barcan: but the bridge built over the Danube twenty Hungarian miles from Belgrade, far ſurpaſſed all the reſt, ſome of the ruins being viſible at this day. It conſiſted of twenty piles of ſquare ſtone, an hundred feet in height, the baſis whereof contained ſixty feet on every ſide of the ſquare. The diſtance between every one of theſe piles or pillars, was an hundred and ſeventy feet, and joined together by arches, with this inſcription, PROVIDENTIA AUG. VERE PONTIFICIS VIRTUS ROMANA QUID NON DOMAT? SUB JUGUM ECCE! RAPITURET DANUBIUS. And to perpetuate the memory of this bridge, many ſilver coins were ſtamped with this inſcription, DANUBIUS.

There is no river in Europe, Dr BROWN obſerves, that has ſo many large well-peopled iſlands as the Danube. One he mentions a little below Buda, forty miles long, and containing many villages. Another at the confluence of the Danube and the Drave; but the iſland of Schutz, which extends from Preſburg to Komorra, and is ſurrounded by the Danube, is much the moſt conſiderable for the ſtrength of the towns upon it, the fruitfulneſs of the ſoil, and the number of the inhabitants; which, as I remember, was given to the great Prince EUGENE by the Emperor, as a reward of his ſervices upon his ſucceſs againſt the Turks in the laſt war.

CHAP. IV.

Treats of the nature and produce of the ſoil: of their huſbandry, cattle, and other animals; and of their manfactures.

Soil and huſbandry.

NO ſoil can be more fruitful than that of Hungary, where it is free from woods and mountains, and there are not many of theſe. Their bread-corn is good, and yet ſo plentiful that it is ſix times cheaper than with us. Their grapes are large and luſcious, and their wines, particularly thoſe of Tockay, admired beyond any in Europe. The Hungarians improve their arable grounds by burning them, and inſtead of barns, in the war-time they made uſe of caves to lay their grain in, to conceal it as much as poſſible from the ſoldiers, and continue to lay it up in the ſame manner ſtill in ſome places. But nothing better ſhews the fruitfulneſs of this country, than that it was able to ſubſiſt ſuch vaſt armies as it did for many years together during the Turkiſh wars.

Cattle.

Game, &c. Fowl and fiſh.

Nor have they leſs plenty of cattle than of corn and wine, ſelling incredible numbers of oxen every year into Germany, and other neighbouring countries; and ſuch abundance of deer, game, and wild fowl, are to be met with in their fields and foreſts, that none are reſtrained from taking them, even the peaſants eat them as their ordinary food. The ſhoals of the beſt freſh-water fiſh in the world that are to be found in their lakes and rivers, I have already mentioned, ſuch as pikes, perch, carp, &c. which are ſo numerous, that ſome have imagined if their waters were divided into three parts, one third would be fiſh. Beſides the cattle already mentioned, they have a good breed of buffaloes, which ſerve them in ploughing and huſbandry. Their breed of horſes are fleet but not large, and therefore more uſed for riding than drawing heavy carriages.

Manufactures and trade.

As to manufactures, I can't find they have any other than thoſe of copper, and other hard wares; conſequently their foreign trade is not very conſiderable: the exportation of their wines and cattle ſeem to be the beſt branches of it. That their trade is no greater, may be aſcribed to ſeveral cauſes; as firſt, their being an inland country at a diſtance from the ſea. By the Danube indeed, a very profitable navigation might be carried on to the coaſts of the Black Sea, and even to the Mediterranean; but as the Turks are maſters of the mouth of that river, nothing of that kind can be attempted at preſent: ſhould the Emperor extend his conqueſts a little further, and make himſelf maſter of Wallachia and Bulgaria, the ſituation of Hungary would not lie much amiſs for carrying on a trade between Aſia and the German Empire: but what is the greateſt diſcouragement to trade, is, that Hungary is looked upon only as a province, and the imperial miniſtry, far from conſulting the good of the country, only rack and impoveriſh the people, to increaſe their maſter's revenue, and fill their own pockets; while they ſtop the mouths of the moſt popular Hungarian Lords with penſions or places.

CHAP. V.

Contains an abſtract of the ſucceſſion of their princes; and of their antient and modern hiſtory; and treats of the conſtitution of their government; and of the forces and revenues of the kingdom.

Hungary, like other countries, I find, was at firſt divided into ſeveral little independent principalities, which united at length under one head, for their mutual defence. And the perſon they choſe to be their leader was uſually ſtiled their Duke: moſt of the Hungarian writers relate, that the country was governed by fourteen of theſe Dukes ſucceſſively, before the nation embraced Chriſtianity; and that they exerciſed a ſovereign juriſdiction over the people, though they did not aſſume the title of Kings. The laſt of theſe Dukes was GEYSA, who being converted about the year of Chriſt 1000, was baptized by St ADELBERT at Prague; and being old and infirm, with the conſent of his people, reſigned his government to his ſon STEPHEN: and their hiſtorians beginning with this Prince, give us the following table of their Kings.

1. STEPHEN, the ſon of Duke GEYSA, came to the crown about the year 1000.

2. PETER, STEPHEN's ſiſter's ſon, ſucceeded to the crown, *anno* 1038; but being depoſed by his ſubjects, reigned only four years, and was ſucceeded by,

3. ABAN, or OVAN, elected in the year 1042; but the people being no better pleaſed with this than their former monarch, aſſaſſinate him; after whom,

4. ANDREW, the brother of King STEPHEN, aſcended the throne, *anno* 1066; who, in his lifetime, procured his ſon SOLOMON to be proclaimed his ſucceſſor; but was ſucceeded by his brother,

5. BELA, who procured his brother ANDREW to be murdered, *anno* 1071.

6. SOLOMON ſucceeded to the crown upon his uncle BELA's death, *anno* 1073; but GEYSA and LADISLAUS, the two ſons of BELA, were admitted to be independent Princes in their reſpective provinces; and not contented with that, commenced a war againſt SOLOMON, in which he loſt his life: whereupon,

7. GEYSA, the eldeſt ſon of BELA, aſcended the throne, *anno* 1074, and was ſucceeded by his brother,

8. LADISLAUS, *anno* 1077; who for his ſervices to the church, is chronicled for a ſaint in the Hungarian calendar. Having two nephews, the ſons of his brother GEYSA, viz. BELA and COLOMAN, he gave his crown by will to BELA the youngeſt, obſerving COLOMAN to be no favourer of the Chriſtians; but BELA voluntarily reſigned to his eldeſt brother,

9. COLOMAN ſucceeded to the crown, *anno* 1095; but to ſecure his poſſeſſion, put out his brother BELA's eyes, and threw him into priſon; he was ſucceeded by his ſon,

10. STEPHEN II, who aſcended the throne *anno* 1114; but being ſoon weary of it, and retiring into a monaſtery, was ſucceeded by,

11. BELA the blind, who came to the crown, *anno* 1132, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon,

12. GEYSA, *anno* 1141; after whoſe death, his third ſon,

13. STEPHEN III, aſcended the throne, *anno* 1161; to whom ſucceeded,

14. LADISLAUS, the ſecond ſon of BELA the blind, *anno* 1172; and after him,

15. STEPHEN IV, fourth ſon of BELA, came to the crown, *anno* 1172; but was depoſed within five months, and,

16. BELA III, the ſecond ſon of GEYSA, was advanced to the throne, *anno* 1173.

17. EMERICK, King BELA's ſon, ſucceeded him, *anno* 1195; and was ſucceeded by,

18. LADISLAUS II, his only ſon, *anno* 1204; to whom ſucceeded,

19. ANDREW, the brother of EMERIC, *anno* 1205; to whom ſucceeded,

20. BELA IV, ANDREW's ſecond ſon, *anno* 1235; to whom ſucceeded,

21. STEPHEN his fourth ſon, *anno* 1260; who was ſucceeded by his ſon,

22. LADISLAUS, *anno* 1272; who being murdered,

23. ANDREW, King STEPHEN's ſon, came to the crown, *anno* 1290; after whom,

24. WENCESLAUS, ſon to the King of Bohemia, was elected King, *anno* 1292; but his father finding the Hungarians a rebellious people, and continually inciting inſurrections againſt him, after a reign of about ſix years re-called him. Whereupon,

25. OTHO Duke of Bavaria, was crowned King, *anno* 1305, by one of the factions, who with a great deal of difficulty maintaining himſelf on the throne about four years, was expelled the kingdom, and ſucceeded by,

26. CHARLES ROBERT, grandſon of King STEPHEN V, *anno* 1310; who was a proſperous Prince; and ſubjected Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia,

Dalmatia, and many other principalities under his dominion; and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

27. Lodowick, or Lewis, *anno* 1342; who was alſo crowned King of Hungary and Poland.

28. Mary, the daughter of Lodowick, ſucceeded him, *anno* 1382; but being very young, the adminiſtration was left in the hands of her mother, whoſe conduct being diſagreeable to the Hungarians, they elected,

29. Charles, King of Naples, brother to King Lodowick, *anno* 1383; who was murdered by an aſſaſſin hired by the mother of the late Queen for that end; after whoſe death,

30. Sigismond, afterwards Emperor of Germany, who had married Queen Mary, was advanced to the throne of Hungary, *anno* 1387.

31. Albert, Archduke of Auſtria, marrying the only daughter of the Emperor Sigismond, ſucceeded his father-in-law, not only in the empire, but in the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, *anno* 1438; who leaving no iſſue, but the Empreſs big with child.

32. Uladislaus, brother to the King of Poland, uſurped the throne of Hungary, *anno* 1440; after whoſe death,

33. Ladislaus, poſthumous ſon of the Emperor Sigismond, ſucceeded to the throne, being an infant of five years of age, *anno* 1444; the adminiſtration during his minority being committed to the famous John Hunniades, who performed ſuch memorable actions againſt the Turks. Upon the death of Ladislaus,

34. Matthias Corvinus, the ſon of Hunniades, was elected King, *anno* 1458, in gratitude for his father's great ſervices. This Prince built the famous library at Buda; and died, 'tis ſaid, in a fit of anger; after whoſe death,

35. Uladislaus, King of Bohemia, was advanced to the crown of Hungary by the favour of the late Queen, *anno* 1460; after whoſe death,

36. Lodowick, his ſon, ſucceeded him both in the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, *anno* 1516. He was a brave warlike Prince; but venturing to engage Soliman, Emperor of the Turks, with unequal numbers, was defeated, and falling into a moraſs, with his horſe loaded with armour, periſhed there, not being found till ſome weeks after the battle. To him ſucceeded,

57. John, Waywode of Tranſilvania, crowned King of Hungary, *anno* 1526; but driven from the throne by Ferdinand, brother to the Emperor Charles V, who had married Anne, the ſiſter of King Lodowick: however, Soliman, the Turkiſh Emperor, reſtored him to the throne again; but his rival being ſupported by the Emperor Charles V,

38. Ferdinand, Archduke of Auſtria, was crowned King of Hungary, *anno* 1527; being afterwards elected Emperor of Germany.

39. Maximilian, eldeſt ſon to the Emperor Ferdinand, was crowned King of the Romans, Hungary, and Bohemia, *anno* 1564; during his father's life-time, and after his death advanced to the imperial throne.

40. Rodolph, ſucceeded his father, the Emperor Maximilian in the kingdom of Hungary, *anno* 1576; but was wheedled, or frightened, out of the kingdom of Hungary by his brother,

41. Matthias, who aſcended the throne, *anno* 1612; and was afterwards elected Emperor. He was a ſevere perſecutor of the Proteſtants, which occaſioned that inſurrection in Bohemia, already mentioned in treating of that kingdom.

42. Ferdinand, Archduke of Auſtria, and grandſon to Ferdinand I, ſucceeded Matthias in the kingdom of Hungary, as well as in his other dominions, *anno* 1618.

43. Ferdinand III, ſucceeded his father in the kingdom of Hungary, as well as in the empire, *anno* 1625; after whoſe death,

44. Ferdinand IV, his ſon, came to the crown, *anno* 1647; to whom,

45. Leopold, the ſon of Ferdinand, ſucceeded, *anno* 1658.

46. Joseph, ſon to the Emperor Leopold, was crowned King of Hungary, *anno* 1688, in his father's life-time; and the crown entailed by the ſtates upon the heirs of his body.

47. Charles, the late Emperor, brother of the Emperor Joseph, ſucceeded to the kingdom of Hungary, and all his other hereditary dominions, on the 17th of April, 1711.

Conſtitution.

Upon peruſing this table, and the hiſtory of the Hungarian Kings, it appears that this crown has been at ſome times hereditary, and at others elective. That ſometimes their Princes have acted arbitrarily, and at others been limited and reſtrained by the ſtates. That there have been innumerable ſtruggles between the crown and the ſtates; the crown contending to increaſe it's power and prerogatives, and the ſtates to enlarge their privileges, and put limitations on the prerogative. 'Tis ſurprizing to find how many of their Kings have been depoſed or murdered either by factious ſubjects, or ambitious rivals. And as no body will ſay that their Kings could by their conſtitution legally oppreſs their ſubjects and invade their properties; ſo neither will any one ſure affirm, that king-killing is part of the conſtitution of this, or any other kingdom. If the people indeed are veſted with the ſupreme power, and kings are but their officers, and accountable to them, they will have ſome pretence for reſiſting and dethroning them; when they apprehend they act contrary to the good of the community; and may, without the imputation of parricide, do juſtice upon them, in the language of our regicides, that the reſt of the Kings of the earth may hear, and fear, and do no more ſo wickedly. But as our republicans go upon that miſtake, that Kings can have no legal authority but what is conferred on them by the majority of the people, and therefore their Princes are always accountable to the majority of the people; and ſince there is ſcarce any inſtance in the world that the majority of the people (the multitude) were ever conſulted in the election of a monarch or ſupreme magiſtrate, their fancied power over their monarchs muſt be a mere chimæra; at leaſt in all thoſe countries where the ſupreme magiſtrate is not elected by a majority of the people; for if he received his authority from another hand, how is he accountable to them? unleſs it be ſaid, that all people in the world have, and ever had, *jure divino*, an unalienable, undefeazible right to call their ſovereign to account, depoſe, condemn, and execute him whenever they in their wiſdoms conceive he does not promote the publick good. For ſhould it be admitted they have ſuch an authority, does not every one know how incapable the inferior part of mankind are of judging of the conduct of their Princes: and notwitſtanding the ſpecious pretences of maintaining the people's rights and privileges by inſurrections, and attempts upon the throne, does it not uſually appear, that ſome ambitious prince or nobleman is at the bottom of theſe conſpiracies, and only flatters the rabble with the notion of their undoubted right to make and unmake Kings, till by their aſſiſtance the conſpirators have got into the ſaddle, and obtained their ends, and then theſe noble patriots commonly laugh at the many-headed-beaſt that has advanced them, leaving the people to labour under greater burthens than they did before; or perhaps loading them with inſupportable taxes to maintain their own poſſeſſion, pretending that their eſtabliſhment, and the people's happineſs, are inſeparable? But ſurely no nation has ever ſuffered more in theſe ſtruggles, for power between the crown and the ſtates, than the Hungarians; for while one ſide called in the Emperor, the other called in the Turk, to their aſſiſtance, and made their country a ſcene of war and bloodſhed for upwards of two hundred years together, till in the end, the German Emperor has driven the Turks entirely out of Hungary, and reduced it to the form of a province. They have contended with their Princes about their rights and privileges, till the imperial eagle has decided the controverſy, by devouring both, and left them only the ſhadow of their antient conſtitution. Their ſtates, or dyet, aſſemble like the parliaments of France, for form ſake, or rather to record the arbitrary decrees of the Emperor, and by ſignifying their conſent to them, take off the odium of every deſtructive ſcheme from the court, and derive it on themſelves. By which means probably, their chains are now ſo firmly riveted, that their ſlavery will be everlaſting; unleſs another family ſhould be elected to the imperial crown, and then they may poſſibly have another ſtruggle for their dying liberties.

The election and coronation of the Hungarian Kings.

At the coronation of the Hungarian Kings, the people antiently uſed to aſſemble in the plain called Rackes, near Peſt, (from whence a general aſſembly of the ſtates is at this day called Rackos.) Here the biſhops, the nobility, and the repreſentatives of the ſeveral counties and cities having unanimouſly approved of the perſon propoſed for their King, who was uſually the next in ſucceſſion, he was conducted to Stuhl-Wieſſemburg, or Alba-Regalis, where he was preſented to the people by the Palatine, who demanded three times whether they approved of the new-elected King; and having expreſſed their conſent, he delivered a naked ſword in the King's hand, which he brandiſhed eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth: then he was attended to the great church, where the Archbiſhop of Gran holding the regal robes in his hand, again demanded of the people whether they were ſatisfied with the King elect, and were willing to become his ſubjects; and receiving an anſwer in the affirmative, he proceeded to perform the uſual rites obſerved at the coronation of their Kings; after which the prelates and nobility carried the arms, and other reliques of King Stephen I, before the new King, in a ſplendid proceſſion to the palace. The crown of Stephen, their firſt King, is ſtill preſerved at Preſburgh, with great veneration, or rather ſuperſtition; and no Prince is allowed to be duly crowned with any other crown. The Hungarians in general, believe that the fate of their nation depends on the careful preſervation of it, and in all their calamities, took care to convey that to a place of ſecurity: nor have the Turks been leſs ſolicitous to make themſelves maſters of it, than the natives to preſerve it, believing that the Hungarians would make no ſcruple of paying their allegiance to the Grand Seignior, if he could once procure King Stephen's crown to be ſet upon his head. The reaſon of this profound veneration for King Stephen's crown has been already intimated, but I have ſince met with a more particular account of it, viz. that King Stephen having began to propagate the Chriſtian religion in his dominions, ſent Astricus, Biſhop of Colocza, to Pope Benedict VII, deſiring his holineſs to confirm him in his kingdom, and ſend him a crown and other regal ornaments. Myscha, Duke of Poland, having ſent an embaſſy to Rome at this time on the ſame account, and a crown being provided for him, the day before it was to be ſent away, an angel appeared to the Pope, and directed him to ſend the crown deſigned for the Poles, to Stephen, King of Hungary; which was done accordingly: and the Hungarians, who believe this tradition equally with any article of their faith, give this antique relick almoſt divine adoration.

The Palatine's power.

The perſon of the greateſt authority next to the King, was the Palatine, or guardian of the kingdom, who arrived at that dignity by the election of the ſtates. This officer had the firſt voice in the election of the King, was guardian to the infant Princes of the blood, had authority to aſſemble the ſtates during an *interregnum*, to hear all petitions brought to the King, to confer with ambaſſadors and foreign miniſters, and report their buſineſs to his majeſty; and during a vacancy of the throne, to take the adminiſtration of the government into his hands.

Archbiſhop of Gran.

The Archbiſhop of Gran is the next great officer, being Primate, Pope's legate, and Chancellor of the kingdom; and preſides in the aſſembly of the ſtates, which is compoſed of the Biſhops, nobility, repreſentatives of royal cities, &c.

Condition of the common people.

The common people are vaſſals to their reſpective Lords, whoſe lands they live upon, whether they belong to the crown, to the clergy, the nobility, or gentry, every Lord of a manor is proprietor of the lands in his manor, as it was formerly with us, and the people who uſe them are his ſubjects, and receive juſtice in his courts, paying ſuch rents and ſervices as their Lord is pleaſed to impoſe upon them. But theſe, though much the majority of the kingdom, never had any ſhare in the government, or the election of their Princes. It was indifferent to them, whether the King or the nobility prevailed, they always were ſlaves, and ſtill are like to be ſo, having no liberties or properties but what are at the diſpoſal of their reſpective Lords.

Forces and revenues.

The forces that this kingdom could and did raiſe, when they were governed by their native Princes, were very conſiderable, as appears by the oppoſition they conſtantly gave the Turks, particularly when the famous Hunniades had the command of their armies. The Emperor at preſent raiſes what forces he pleaſes; but the revenue of the kingdom being computed at no more than an hundred and twenty thouſand pounds, which ariſes chiefly from the mines and duties laid on cattle, and which perhaps is half of it taken up in paying the governors and great officers of the reſpective towns and provinces, and repairing the fortifications of the many garriſon towns upon the frontiers, the forces maintained out of the proper revenue of Hungary, are far from being ſufficient to defend them againſt the Turks, but they will always ſtand in need of the aſſiſtance of the Emperor's other hereditary countries; ſo that

Hungary probably does not bear it's own charges at preſent, notwithſtanding the various methods made uſe of by the imperial miniſters, to improve the revenue. And here we may obſerve once for all, that many kingdoms which made a conſiderable figure, while they were governed by their own Princes, after they have become provinces to a foreign power, have ſcarce been able to maintain the charges of the civil government, but been a burthen to the Prince who has gained the dominion of them. The reaſon whereof I take to be, that the eye of the Prince being far removed, and the province oppreſſed and exhauſted by rapacious officers and tax-gatherers, who regard the making their own fortunes more than the improvement of the country; it fares as it does with a gentleman's eſtate which lies at a diſtance from him, whoſe ſtewards and agents uſually roll in money, while the eſtate yields the owner little or nothing. Another great diſadvantage is, that where the intereſt of any province comes in competition with that which is the ſeat of the government, and the reſidence of the ſovereign, the diſtant province muſt be ſure to ſuffer.

But to return to the Hungarian forces. Their horſe are denominated Huſſars, and their foot Heydukes. Several regiments of the former ſerved in Flanders in the late wars. Their horſes are fleet and well managed, but of the ſmalleſt for troopers. The Huſſars ride ſhort, and riſe in their ſtirrops when they make a ſtroke with their ſcimetars, to give the blow the greater force. But theſe troops are by no means equal to the Engliſh or Daniſh horſe, whoſe weight alone will bear them down.

The Heydukes are very far from being good foot, compared with regular troops; but take them as an undiſciplined militia, and few nations perhaps can produce a better. They ſtill retain the Pyrrhical dance, with naked ſwords in their hands, brandiſhing them, and putting themſelves into an hundred terrible poſtures, advancing, retreating, turning and winding about with great activity, and ſinging all the while to their own meaſures.

CHAP. VI.

Treats of the language, learning, and religion of the Hungarians.

Languages.

THERE is ſcarce any reſemblance between the Hungarian language, and that of any other people, except the Hebrew, which is governed by points and accents, as this is; the leaſt variation of an accent or vowel alters the ſenſe of a word. This independency on other languages, makes it learnt with difficulty; and few foreigners attempt it: the natives therefore for the ſake of commerce, and converſing with their neighbours, eſpecially thoſe of Poland, are bred up to have a tolerable underſtanding of the Latin tongue. There is ſcarce a peaſant or mechanick in ſome parts of Hungary, but will be able to maintain a converſation in this language; I ſuppoſe in the ſame barbarous manner that Latin is ſpoken by the Dutch, who ſeldom trouble themſelves about mood, tenſe, or concord.

Learning.

Notwithſtanding the Hungarians do not want parts, it is obſerved that this country has produced but few men of learning, and that there are no conſiderable ſchools or univerſities in the country; the reaſon whereof is ſaid to be, that Hungary has been almoſt a perpetual ſcene of war. St JEROME and St MARTIN indeed, were natives of this country, but had their education elſewhere, as all thoſe have of late years, who have applied themſelves to letters; they reſort either to the univerſities of Vienna, Prague, or Breſlaw, for their education.

Religion.

The antient inhabitants of this country, it is ſaid, had ſcarce any devotion but what they paid to their ſword, which they looked upon as the great preſerver of their country, and the terror of their enemies.

The Chriſtian religion was introduced here about the year 1000, by King STEPHEN, as has been taken notice of already. The Huſſites of Bohemia propagated their opinions here in the XVth century; and in the XVIth, LUTHER's doctrine prevailed: but they were like their neighbours of Bohemia, divided into a multitude of ſects, ſome of them not eaſily defenſible; however, all of them under the name of Proteſtants, generally joined the other malecontents and the Turks againſt the Emperor of Germany, their ſovereign, and maintained a war againſt him for many years. In the late wars between the confederates and the French, they pretty much embarraſſed the affairs of the confederacy under the conduct of Prince RAGOTSKI and BEREZINI, the Emperor being obliged to withdraw part of his troops from the confederate army, to make head againſt them. RAGOTSKI, though he had been ſo long the defender of the Proteſtant intereſt in Hungary, as he pretended, was perverted to Popery by the Jeſuits in his declining years, while he reſided in Turkey. By the laſt treaty of peace between the Emperor and the Grand Seignior, in the year 1718, nothing was ſtipulated in favour of the Proteſtants and other malecontents; but on the contrary, the Turks engaged that neither RAGOTSKI, BEREZINI, Count FORGATZ, or any of their leaders, ſhould be permitted to approach the frontiers of Hungary: ſo that the poor Proteſtants of that kingdom are now left entirely to the mercy of the Emperor, and have nothing to depend on but the interceſſion of the Princes of their communion to his Imperial Majeſty.

The reaſon the Emperor's arms make no greater progreſs in Turkey.

Hungary is now entirely reſcued out of the hands of the Turks, and Chriſtianity the only religion profeſſed in any of it's provinces; and might have been ſo much ſooner, if the Proteſtants of Hungary, who were very numerous, had not had reaſon to apprehend greater ſeverities from the Imperialiſts than from the Grand Seignior. For ſuch is the uſage of the Roman Catholicks, wherever they prevail, that they will admit of no other denomination of Chriſtians to live amongſt them: whereas the Turk, like the Dutch, allows liberty of conſcience to all, only requiring of his ſubjects that are not of the eſtabliſhed religion, a trifling tax, which is ſcarce felt by them. Walachia and Moldavia alſo had long ſince thrown off the Mahometan yoke, if they could have expected better quarter from the Chriſtian Princes of the weſt, than they meet with from the Grand Seignior: for being all of the Greek communion, they know from a multitude of precedents, that the firſt ſtep that will be taken, after there putting themſelves under the protection of any Chriſtian power, will be to make them renounce the Greek church, and conform to the Latin, as the Venetians were attempting to do in the Morea; which gave a general diſguſt to that people, and occaſioned the ſudden loſs of that province in the late war.

CHAP. VI.

Another thing which puts a great ſtop to the progreſs of the Emperor's arms in Turkey, is, that the Princes of Europe are jealous of the growing greatneſs of the Auſtrian family; and think themſelves ſafer, while Romania, Greece, and other Turkiſh provinces in Europe, are under the dominion of the Grand Seignior, than if they were in the poſſeſſion of the Emperor, who would then be in a capacity of giving law to the reſt of the Princes of Europe: and being maſter of Conſtantinople, the Black-Sea, and the Archipelago, would be able to put what limitations he pleaſed on the Turkey trade; and indeed, to ingroſs the whole to himſelf. What could have hindered the Imperialiſts, after the taking of Belgrade, and Temeſwaer, in the late war, from marching to the very gates of Conſtantinople, if the Engliſh and Dutch had not interpoſed their mediation; and the Engliſh, by the virtue of the ſervices they had done, and were doing for his imperial Majeſty in Italy, and Sicily, prevailed with him to be content with the countries he had gained the poſſeſſion of? The Turks thought themſelves infinitely obliged to the Engliſh and Dutch, for the ſervices they did them in this particular; for they looked upon their European dominions to be in a very deſperate condition. But the truth is, we had no deſire to ſee the Imperialiſts approach nearer to the ſhores of the Black-Sea, and the Mediterranean.

As to the advancement of the Chriſtian religion, and deſtroying the Mahometan empire; this, the Princes of Europe do not much concern themſelves about at preſent. They might if they pleaſed, in one campaign, drive the Turks over the Helleſpont: or the Emperor would do it alone, if they would ſit ſtill, and not attack his dominions on this ſide. But what, ſay they, ſhall we get by this, but hazard the raiſing another univerſal monarch, who will at beſt treat us as his tributaries? whereas, the Turks is already ſo low, that we have little to apprehend from him: on the contrary, he may be of great uſe to us if any aſpiring monarch in Chriſtendom ſhould attempt to enſlave the reſt. And it has been frequently ſaid of late, that in caſe of a religious war in Europe, the Turk may probably prove a good Proteſtant, or at leaſt an allie to the Proteſtants: nay, the Emperor has already complained, that ſome Proteſtant powers have endeavoured to incite the Grand Seignior, the great enemy of the Chriſtian name, to invade his dominions: in which, ſay ſome, there may be no great hurt neither; for did not the French do the ſame when they were engaged in a war with the confederates? But to proceed to the Hungarian antiquities.

Antiquities.

The Romans having been a great while maſters of Hungary, there are every day found here Roman coins, medals, and other monuments of antiquity. It ſeems the Emperors AURELIAN, PROBUS, and GRATIAN, were born in Pannonia: and a great number of Latin inſcriptions are ſtill to be ſeen in the country. CUSPINIAN obſerves, that a better account may be collected of eight Emperors and Kings, from the medals and inſcriptions which are found in Hungary, than was ever given us by the beſt hiſtorians. And ZAMOSIUS affirms, there are coins to be met with here, that give us the true portraitures of LYSIMACHUS, ALEXANDER the Great, PHILIP of Macedon, DARIUS, and other antient heroes. Near the town of Deva, NATALIS COMES relates, that the peaſants found a great quantity of theſe antient medals of gold, which were diſcovered by a ſudden torrent; each of theſe, to the number of many thouſands, weighed two or three crowns a-piece, and had on one ſide, the image of LYSIMACHUS, and on the reverſe, VICTORIA. And with theſe medals, were found a golden ſerpent, it being a cuſtom among the antients to bury a ſerpent with their hidden treaſures, ſignifying thereby a faithful keeper.

Arms.

The arms of ATTILA, the Hun, once ſovereign of this country, are ſaid to have been Gules, a Falcon diſplayed, Or, membred and crowned Argent. But the arms of the kingdom at this time, are barreniſe of eight Gules and Argent.

THE PRESENT STATE OF TRANSILVANIA.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the name, ſituation, and extent of Tranſilvania; and of the air, ſprings, rivers, and mountains.

CHAP. I.

The name.

TRANSILVANIA, part of the antient Dacia, was ſo called by the Romans, from it's being ſituated beyond thoſe foreſts which ſeparate it from Hungary and Walachia. It is called alſo by the natives Erdely, or Ardeli, which in their language, ſignifies a wood, or foreſt; and by the Germans, Sieben Burgen, alluding to the ſeven fortreſſes, or ſtrong places, which were erected in different parts of the country, by the antient Pannonians, to keep the inhabitants in ſubjection.

Bounds and extent.

It is bounded by the Crapack, or Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland towards the north; by Moldavia towards the eaſt, from which it is alſo ſeparated by a long ridge of hills; by Walachia and part of Hungary on the ſouth, and by Hungary towards the weſt: extending from forty-five degrees odd minutes, to forty-eight degrees north latitude, and from the twenty-ſecond to the twenty-fifth degree of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London: being about forty leagues in length from north to ſouth, and about as many from eaſt to weſt.

The air.

Springs, rivers, and mountains.

The air is exceſſive hot in ſummer, the country being ſurrounded by woods and mountains; but not quite ſo unhealthful as in Hungary. Their ſprings are unwholſome, which is ſaid to proceed from their paſſing through a ſulphureous ſoil. The principal rivers are, 1. The Alt, or Atlanta, which riſes in the Carpathian mountains, and falls into the Danube; being by the laſt peace made the boundary between the German and Ottoman empires on the north ſide of the Danube. 2. The Maroſch, or Meriſh, which ariſes alſo in the Crapack mountains, and falls into the Teyſſe. 3. The river Samos, which riſing near Clauſenberg, takes it's courſe to the north-weſt, and having paſſed near Tockay in Hungary, falls into the Teyſſe not many leagues below it. Beſides the mountains already mentioned on the confines of this country, there are ſeveral other hills of leſs note, covered with woods in the middle of the country.

CHAP. II.

Treats of the provinces and chief towns in Tranſilvania.

CHAP. II.

Provinces and chief towns, inhabited by four different nations.

IN this country inhabit four ſeveral people, very different in their original, as well as in their language, laws, and cuſtoms: but all united under one Prince. The firſt ſtile themſelves Saxons; ſuppoſed to be a colony of the antient Tranſilvanians, or Dacians, who are poſſeſſed of the province called Sieben Burgen, or Seven Towns, containing near two thirds of the country. 2. The Siculi, the poſterity of the Huns, who inhabit the north-eaſt, near the Crapack mountains. 3. The Hungarians, who reſide towards the confines of Hungary and Walachia. And, 4. The Cingars, or Gypſies, who pitch their tents all over the country; a ſort of licenſed thieves and pick-pockets, who having done ſome ſervice to a Tranſilvanian Prince, obtained extraordinary privileges; and pretend ſome of them to be deſcended from the Tranſilvanian Waiwodes: But they have this to recommend them beyond our vagrants of the ſame kind, that they will often work hard, eſpecially as ſmiths and tinkers, and procure a living that way when fortune-telling grows dull.

Saxon part.

That part of the country inhabited by the Saxons, is ſubdivided into five counties, viz. 1. Altland. 2. Landvordenwald. 3. Bruckland. 4. Veinland. And, 5. Noſnerland. But the particular bounds of theſe counties I don't find any where deſcribed, and therefore muſt content myſelf with enquiring into the ſituation of their chief towns.

Hermanſtat.

And, 1. Hermanſtat, the capital of Tranſilvania, is ſituate in the middle of a large plain on the banks of the little river Cibin, in the latitude of forty-ſix degrees odd minutes, about fourſcore miles north-eaſt of Temeſwaer. It was antiently the ſeat of their Princes, as it is now of the governor of the province; and is the ſee of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Colocza in Hungary. The place is eſteemed ſtrong, and the houſes well built; the ſtreets broad enough to admit of canals in the middle of them, which are filled by the neighbouring river. The courts of judicature for the Saxons are held here; and they have a pretty good trade in cloth and mead. The air is unhealthful; but the reigning diſtemper is the gout, from wnich few are free; ſaid to proceed from a parricular ſort of wine made hereabouts. 2. Cronſtat, or Corona, ſituate about fifty miles to the north-eaſt of Hermanſtat, is pleaſantly ſituated in the midſt of vineyards; and tolerably well fortified. The citizens are all Saxons, without the leaſt mixture of Hungarians, or any other nation; ſo that here their language is ſpoken in the greateſt purity. 3. Fogaras, a ſmall city on the river Atlanta, twenty-five miles to the weſtward of Cronſtat. 4. Segeſwaer, or Scheſberg, ſituate on the banks of the river Cockle, thirty miles to the northward of Hermanſtat, uſually compared to Buda; one part of it lying on the ſide of a hill, and the other on the banks of the river. 5. Megies, ſituate on the river Cockle, ſeventeen miles ſouth-weſt of Segeſwaer, in a plain full of vineyards, from whence the country is called Wine Land. 6. Noſenſtat, or Biſtricia, ſituate near the Crapack mountains, fourſcore miles to the northward of Hermanſtat; four miles from whence lie the gold mines of Rodna. 7. Clauſenburg, *olim* Claudiopolis, ſituate on the river Samos, fifty miles north-weſt of Hermanſtat; a large populous place where the ſtates of Tranſilvania uſed to meet.

Hungarian quarter.

The diviſion inhabited by the Hungarians, contains five counties, viz. 1. Alba Julia. 2. Huniad. 3. Thorda. 4. Dohoka. And, 5. Zatmar. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Alba Julia, called by the Germans Weiſſenburg, ſituate on the river Lompay, twenty-five miles weſt of Hermanſtat. It received it's name from JULIA AUGUSTA, mother of MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS PIUS: and was the capital city of the Kings of Dacia, and at that time, twenty miles in circumference. 2. Deva, ſituate twenty-eight miles ſouth of Weiſſenburg; remarkable for it's excellent wines, and for the paſs near it through the iron gate mountains, formerly of great conſequence, till the imperial frontier was extended beyond it by the laſt peace.

Weiſſenburg.

The Siculi.

The conntry of the Siculi is ſituated on the north-eaſt part of Tranſilvania; and contains ſeven connties, viz. 1. Markozeck. 2. Girgio. 3. Utvarthel. 4. Chick. 5. Kiſdi. 6. Orbay. 7. Schepſi. Their capital towns being of the ſame names; but do not ſeem worth a particular deſcription.

CHAP. III.

Treats of the nature of the ſoil, corn, fruits, minerals, cattle, trade, and manufactures of the Tranſilvanians; and of their habits and cuſtoms.

The ſoil.

THE ſoil of Tranſilvania is exceeding fruitful: the wheat eſteemed the beſt in Europe; and ſo plentiful, that the peaſants eat no other bread: barley does not ſuit their ſoil ſo well, and therefore they brew little beer; but that defect is ſupplied with plenty of good wine, inferior only to that of Hungary. In their meadows and paſtures they feed vaſt herds of large oxen, which increaſe ſo upon them, that a fat ox may be purchaſed for the value of twenty ſhillings in the country, but driven to market into Auſtria, will yield twelve or fifteen pounds. They have alſo a good breed of horſes, very much eſteemed by foreigners. Their woods afford plenty of bees and honey, with which they make a ſort of mead, which is highly valued, mixing the honey with ſeveral other pleaſant ingredients. Their foreſts abound with all kinds of veniſon, deer, wild boars, hares, &c. Their hares much larger than with us, and a more valuable fur. They have alſo wild horſes of incredible ſwiftneſs, whoſe mains hang almoſt down to the ground. Some parts of the country are infeſted by wolves and bears, which run together in herds, and in hard weather, do great miſchief among their cattle. But to conclude this head, ſays my author, the country is ſo well provided with all manner of neceſſaries and conveniences, that either the fields, woods, rivers, hills, or plains can afford, that there ſeems great reaſon for the antient draughts on TRAJAN's medals; whereon the goddeſs CERES was repreſented with a cornucopia in her right-hand, and in her left, a table with this inſcription, *Abundantia Daciæ*.

Cattle.

Bees.

Veniſon.

Wild beaſts.

Minerals.

The Tranſilvanians have ſome mines of gold, and other metals in their mountains, but not ſo many as in Hungary. Their chief mines are either at Sculatti, or at Rimli Dominurdtz, in the laſt of which there have been found large lumps of virgin gold, which has been coined without purifying; and gave occaſion for ſtriking the old Roman medal ſtill to be met with, on which Dacia was repreſented by a goddeſs with a book open in her right-hand, wherein was written *Aur. pur.* or pure gold. Their beſt ſilver mines are near Offera and Radna, where are alſo ſeveral copper mines in which they ſometimes meet with a vein of gold. There is plenty of ſteel at Cyck, and of iron at Thoroſch and Huniad; and they frequently meet with brimſtone and iſinglaſs in their copper mines. They have alſo ſuch quantities of rock ſalt in the county of Maromarus, that they export it to other countries.

Salt.

Manufactures.

Trade.

The only manufacture beſides thoſe of copper, iron, and ſteel, is that of cloth, of which they do not export any great quantities. What they ſend abroad is chiefly fat cattle, wine, mead, rock ſalt, copper and iron wares; and a country ſo well ſtocked with all manner of proviſions and neceſſaries, was it under the government of it's own Prince, muſt make a tolerable figure in the world; but being a diſtant province belonging to the German Emperor, notwithſtanding all theſe extraordinary advantages, Tranſilvania is ſcarce ever mentioned as part of Europe; and our people know leſs of it than of the remoteſt countries in the Eaſt or Weſt-Indies.

Habits and cuſtoms.

The habits of the Saxons of Tranſilvania, are a waiſtcoat, over which they wear a ſhort looſe coat lined with fur: their breeches and ſtockings ſit cloſe to the leg and thigh, and are all of a piece; the heels of their ſhoes are made of a plate of iron; and on their heads they wear a kind of dragoon's cap lined with fur. By their drinking, ſays my author, one would think them related to the Saxons of Germany; for they never look upon themſelves to be acquainted with a man till they have been drunk with him; and at a drinking match, while the muſick plays, they keep time with their cups by ſtriking them one againſt another.

They celebrate their funerals in much the ſame manner as the Iriſh do. Their women in a diſmal howl, recite all the memorable paſſages in the life of the deceaſed; expreſſing by their tears, ſighs, and groans the utmoſt deſpair and ſorrow for their loſs.

As to the Hungarians who inhabit this country, I find nothing different in their manners, or habits, from thoſe of Hungary: and the Siculi are chiefly taken notice of for their ridiculous pride, like the Welſh, they all pretend to be deſcended from ſome antient noble family: not a huſbandman, or ſhepherd, but aſſumes a title of honour very unſuitable to the meanneſs of his fortune and employment. As to the Cingars, or Gypſies, who inhabit this country, theſe are a vagabond race, already deſcribed at large in treating of Egypt and other parts of Turkey.

CHAP. IV.

Contains an abſtract of the antient and modern hiſtory of the Tranſilvanians, and the preſent ſtate of religion there.

Hiſtory of Tranſilvania.

Tranſilvania conquered by the King of Hungary.

Waiwode.

JOHN, the firſt Prince of Tranſilvania.

JOHN II.

STEPHEN BATHORI.

CHRISTOPHER BATHORI.

SIGISMOND.

SIGISMOND RAGOTSKI.

GABRIEL BATHORI.

BETHLEM GABOR.

GEORGE RAGOTSKI.

GEORGE RAGOTSKI II.

ACHATIUS.

JOHN KIMEN.

MICHAEL ABAFFI.

Tranſilvania incorporated with Hungary.

TRANSILVANIA, as has been obſerved, is only the weſtern part of the antient Dacia, which comprehended Moldavia, and Walachia, (now tributary to the Turk, and deſcribed in Turkey) as well as Tranſilvania. LYSIMACHUS, one of ALEXANDER's generals, was the firſt who ſubdued this people, but has left us no account of their manners and cuſtoms, or form of government. The next time we hear of them, is from JULIUS CÆSAR, when they made frequent incurſions into the Roman territories. CÆSAR repulſed their forces, and compelled them to become tributary to the Roman ſtate during his adminiſtration; but in the reign of AUGUSTUS, they broke in upon the empire again; and LENTULUS being ſent againſt them, fortified the ſouthern banks of the Danube, as the beſt means to prevent their incurſions for the future. The Emperor TRAJAN defeated their laſt King DECEBALUS, who threw himſelf upon his ſword on the loſs of the battle; and his country was reduced to the form of a province: but the Dacians afterwards making frequent inſurrections, the Emperor AURELIAN tranſplanted the Roman colonies, and the civilized natives to the ſouthern ſide of the Danube, about Bulgaria and Servia; from whence that country obtained the name of New Dacia. Old Dacia, of which Tranſilvania was part, being thus deſerted by the Romans, the beſt part of the natives was ſubdued by the Goths, who kept poſſeſſion of it till they were driven over the Danube by the Huns, who became lords of Tranſilvania, and Hungary, much about the ſame time. STEPHEN, the firſt King of Hungary, ſubdued Tranſilvania, and introduced Chriſtianity there; after which, it was reputed a province of the kingdom of Hungary, and governed by an Hungarian viceroy, ſtiled in their language a Waiwode; and thus Tranſilvania was governed from about the year of our Lord 1000, to the year 1526; when LEWIS King of Hungary dying without iſſue male, JOHN, Waiwode of Tranſilvania, was by a faction elected King of Hungary, in oppoſition to FERDINAND, brother to the Emperor CHARLES V. JOHN, not finding himſelf a match for the Emperor, firſt fled into Poland, where having remained ſome time, SOLYMAN Emperor of the Turks, invited him to return to Tranſilvania, promiſing to ſupport his intereſt: whereupon, JOHN aſſumed the title of Prince of Tranſilvania, independent of Hungary, agreeing at the ſame time to pay a ſmall tribute to the Turk, by way of acknowledgment for his protection. After the death of this Prince, his ſon JOHN ſucceeded him in the principality of Tranſilvania, and was alſo elected and crowned King of Hungary, which occaſioned a bloody war between the Emperor, and the Turk, who ſupported JOHN; but a truce being concluded for eight years, Hungary was yielded to the Emperor, and Tranſilvania confirmed to Prince JOHN; who dying without iſſue, STEPHEN BATHORI ſucceeded him, and was afterwards elected King of Poland. When his brother CHRISTOPHER BATHORI ſucceeded him in the principality of Tranſilvania. After whoſe death, SIGISMOND his ſon ſucceeded to the principality; and throwing off his ſubjection to the Turk, entered into an alliance with the Emperor RODOLPH; by whom he was admitted to a vote in the dyet at Ratiſbon, and declared a Prince of the Empire, on condition that on failure of iſſue the principality of Tranſilvania ſhould be re-annexed to the crown of Hungary; but SIGISMOND afterwards quarrelling with the Emperor, was driven out of his principality. After him SIGISMOND RAGOTSKI took upon him the title of Prince; but finding himſelf unable to contend with the Emperor, ſoon after reſigned it. Whereupon, GABRIEL BATHORI aſſumed the government; and to ſecure his poſſeſſion, put himſelf under the protection of the Turk. To him ſucceeded BETHLEM GABOR, who being ſupported by ACHMET the Turkiſh Emperor, he entered into a war with the Emperor FERDINAND II, in behalf of FREDERICK Count Palatine of the Rhine, elected King of Bohemia, and made himſelf maſter of a good part of the kingdom of Hungary and Moravia; and dying in the year 1629, the ſtates complimented his widow with the principality; but ſhe finding herſelf unqualified for the high office, reſigned the principality to Prince GEORGE RAGOTSKI, who, under the protection of the Turk, engaged in a war with the Emperor. To whom ſucceeded GEORGE RAGOTSKI II, his ſon, but the Turks proclaimed ACHATIUS BARTCHAY Prince of Tranſilvania in his life-time; and afterwards beheading ACHATIUS, JOHN KIMEN was elected Prince by the ſtates; but the Turks refuſing to confirm him, he was cut in pieces by their faction: and MICHAEL ABAFFI ſucceeded him, *anno* 1661; who, with the conſent of the ſtates of Tranſilvania, reſigned this principality to the Emperor of Germany, as King of Hungary, for ever; as appears by an act of that Prince and the ſtates, dated at Hermanſtat, *anno* 1688: and the Imperialiſts immediately put garriſons into all the fortified towns. Upon the death of ABAFFI, *anno* 1690, the Emperor appointed the Prince his ſon Waiwode of the country, in oppoſition to Count TECKELI, and the Ottoman Port. And the principality of Tranſilvania remains now incorporated with the crown of Hungary under the imperial protection; and by the treaty of Carlowitz and Paſſerowitz, this principality was confirmed to the Emperor by the Turks.

Religion.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Tranſilvania is the Roman Catholick, as in all the reſt of the Emperor's hereditary dominions; but here are great numbers of Lutherans, Calviniſts, and other Proteſtants of all denominations, who are great ſufferers on account of their religion: the ſeverity exerciſed towards them, has been one occaſion of the many inſurrections here, as well as in Hungary. But the miſchief is, that when any of the

Proteſtant powers of Europe interpoſe in their behalf, and deſire that they may enjoy the ſame privileges with his imperial Majeſty's other ſubjects; they are anſwered by another requeſt, namely, that the Papiſts in Proteſtant countries may enjoy equal privileges with the Proteſtants; which when the Proteſtant Princes think fit to comply with, poſſibly their brethren in the Emperor's hereditary dominions will be indulged in like manner.

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE Frontier Provinces of the Empire.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the province of Sclavonia.

Sclavonia and Ratzia.

UNDER the head of Sclavonia I include Ratzia, which is only the ſouth-eaſt part of this province, ſo denominated from one of the counties, or ſubdiviſions, called Ratzen, and the people Ratzians, or rather Raſcians, in the accounts we receive from thoſe parts. The antient Sclavonia contained many large countries; ſome extended it from the Adriatick, almoſt to the Euxine ſea, but I don't find any two writers agreed as to it's dimenſions; however, certain it is, the Sclavonian language obtained, and is ſtill ſpoken in many kingdoms of Europe.

Boundaries and extent.

The modern Sclavonia is bounded by the rivers Drave and Danube, which ſeparate it from Hungary, towards the north and eaſt; by the river Save, which divides it from Servia and Boſnia on the ſouth, and by Stiria on the weſt; and is computed to be upwards of two hundred miles in length, and between fifty and ſixty miles in breadth.

Face of the country and ſoil.

The air is good, the country for the moſt part level, and not too much incumbered with woods and mountains, but exceedingly well watered by thoſe noble rivers abovementioned, namely, the Danube, the Drave, and the Save; beſides many leſſer ſtreams, from whence we might conclude it to be a very fruitful country; but as it was for many years a frontier between Turkey and Chriſtendom, it has not been cultivated and improved as it ought to have been.

Chief towns.

The bounds of the reſpective counties, or ſubdiviſions of this province, having been ſo often altered in the wars between the Turks and Imperialiſts, I ſhall content myſelf with deſcribing the ſituation of their chief towns, which are all now under the dominion of the Emperor: and,

Poſega.

1. Poſega, the capital of the province, and of a county to which it gives name, is ſituate in the latitude of 45 degrees odd minutes, on the river Oriana, fifteen miles north of the river Save, and a hundred and twenty to the weſtward of Belgrade. It contains about a thouſand houſes, and is a place of good trade, having about four hundred villages under it's juriſdiction.

Walpo.

2. Walpo, ſituate on a river of the ſame name, thirty-five miles north-eaſt of Poſega.

Eſſeck.

3. Eſſeck, famous for it's bridge near the confluence of the Drave and the Danube, which has been already deſcribed in treating of Hungary.

Walcowar.

4. Walcowar, about twenty miles to the ſouthward of Eſſeck.

Ilock.

5. Ilock, ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Walcowar.

Peterwaradin.

6. Peterwaradin, ſituate on the Danube, between forty and fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Eſſeck; a well fortified town, and the frontier of the Turks after the taking of Buda; but is now with the whole province under the dominion of the Emperor.

Salankamen.

7. Salankamen, fifteen miles to the eaſtward of Peterwaradin, remarkable only for the victory obtained there over the Turks, by Prince LEWIS of Baden, in the year 1691.

Carlowitz.

8. Carlowitz, a little to the northward of Peterwaradin; not taken notice of till the peace concluded there between the Imperialiſts and the Turks, in the year 1699.

Semlin.

9. Semlin, in the mid-way between Salankamen and Belgrade.

Alt Sirmium.

10. Alt Sirmium, or Zirmium, the capital of a county to which it communicates it's name; formerly the metropolis of Pannonia inferior, and ſince the ſee of a Biſhop; but is now reduced to a village, and is ſituate about ſixty miles to the weſtward of Belgrade.

Zagrab.

11. Zagrab, or Agram, ſituate near the river Save, about an hundred miles to the weſtward of Poſega; the capital of a county, and a Biſhop's ſee.

Gradiſka.

12. Gradiſka, a well fortified town, ſituate near the Save, about fifteen miles to the weſtward of Poſega.

Perſons. Huſbandry.

The natives of Sclavonia are of a good ſtature and hale conſtitutions, and fit for laborious employments. Their country very proper for tillage, and would produce plenty of corn and wine if they could enjoy a ſettled peace, and their fields were well cultivated. The navigable rivers which paſs through Sclavonia, render it alſo exceeding proper to carry on a trade between the Empire and Turkey; but 'tis a misfortune that notwithſtanding theſe frontier countries are bleſſed with all the advantages that nature can beſtow upon them, great part of them are often a perfect deſart, and only conſiderable for the ſtrength of their towns, and the number of their garriſons, which are always pernicious to trade and huſbandry; for none will attempt to eſtabliſh manufactures, or improve their lands, where the ſoldiers probably will reap the fruits of their labours.

Trade.

Religion.

As the whole province is now under the dominion of the Emperor, the Roman Catholick is the eſtabliſhed religion; but there were not long ſince, almoſt as many Grecian as Popiſh Chriſtians. The Roman clergy will no doubt bring over the Greeks to their communion in time, by one means or other, as they do in all countries where they have the aſcendant. Thoſe who diſſent from them, have much better quarter from the Turks, than from their Popiſh brethren of the Weſt. As for the Mahometans, with which this province was not long ſince repleniſhed, they are all retired out of it to a man, except ſome few who, upon ſecular accounts, embraced Chriſtianity. There is no inſtance of a Mahometan (while he remains ſuch) taking up his conſtant reſidence in a Chriſtian country: on the contrary, much the greateſt part of the Grand Signior's ſubjects in Europe, are Greek Chriſtians, and tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion there.

CHAP. II.

Treats of the province of Servia.

Servia.

I Have already juſt touched upon Servia in treating of Turkey in Europe; but as Belgrade, the capital city, and great part of the province has been lately ſubdued by the Imperialiſts, I deferred ſpeaking particularly of it, till I ſhould have occaſion to deſcribe the Emperor's dominions.

The boundaries and extent.

Servia, the antient Mæſia Superior, is bounded by the Danube, and the Save, which ſeparate it from Hungary, and Sclavonia, towards the north; by Bulgaria, or Mæſia Inferior, on the eaſt; by Albania and part of Macedon on the ſouth; and by the province of Boſnia towards the weſt; extending two hundred and fifty miles in length, from eaſt to weſt; and about an hundred and twenty in breadth, from north to ſouth. It enjoys a healthful temperate air, and fruitful ſoil, being ſtiled by the Romans their granary for corn. It is pleaſantly diverſified with woods and champaign hills and plains, and well watered with rivers; and were it cultivated, would produce wine as well as corn in abundance: but the ſame misfortune attends this as the reſt of the frontier provinces, that the huſbandman does not care to ſow or plant more of his grounds than is abſolutely neceſſary for the ſupport of his family, under an apprehenſion of having the fruits of his labours devoured by the Turkiſh, or Imperial forces, from whoſe depredations they are not entirely free, even in time of peace.

Air and ſoil.

Chief towns.

The chief towns in Servia are, 1. Belgrade, called by the Germans, Greek Wieſſenburg, ſituate on a hill at the confluence of the rivers Danube, and Save, forty-five degrees north latitude, and twenty degrees of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London. The town is large, very advantageouſly ſituated for trade, and one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Europe. It was taken from the Chriſtians by SOLYMAN the Magnificent, in the year 1521, and retaken by the Imperialiſts in 1686, under the conduct of the Duke of Bavaria. The Turks laid ſiege to it again in the year 1688, and a magazine of the town being blown up by one of the enemies bombs, with part of the walls, the Turks entered it ſword in hand, and put all the garriſon to the ſword, conſiſting of ſix thouſand men, except the governor, and three hundred ſoldiers, who eſcaped out of one of the gates, while the enemy was buſy in plundering the town. About the middle of June 1717, the Imperialiſts, under the command of Prince EUGENE, of Savoy, inveſted Belgrade again, and the place being of the laſt importance to the Turks, the Grand Vizier was commanded to relieve it at all hazards, which he attempted on the 16th of Auguſt 1717, and this brought on a general battle, wherein the Imperialiſts obtained a compleat victory. It is certain, ſays a gentleman, who was in the action, that ſince the ſiege of Vienna, there never was ſeen ſo great a number of Turks in the field, eſpecially of Janizaries; and it muſt be owned they defended themſelves well for ſome time. Very few officers ever ſaw a hotter or better-ordered fire of the Turks; and from the number of the Chriſtians killed and wounded, particularly among the cavalry, it is evident they were not bad markſmen; but the reſolution and good harmony between our horſe and foot, who ſeconded each other admirably well in this battle, at laſt forced the enemy to give way.

Belgrade, often taken and retaken.

The laſt ſiege.

The battle of Belgrade.

We took from them above an hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, thirty or forty mortars, a proportionable quantity of ammunition, and their whole camp: and it is worth admiration, ſays this gentleman, that not one ſoldier entered the enemies camp to plunder, till the General gave permiſſion, nor till the whole army was rallied and put in order.

Belgrade ſurrendred 22 Aug. 1717.

The loſs of this battle, was attended with the ſurrender of Belgrade, which capitulated two days afterwards; and the garriſon began to evacuate the place on the 22d of Auguſt, but being followed by moſt of the inhabitants, it was the 24th before they were all marched out; it being computed that no leſs than ſixty thouſand Turks left the place, whereof, twenty thouſand were ſoldiers. By an exact liſt of the artillery taken in the town, and in the battle, it appears that it conſiſted of four hundred and fifty-ſix braſs cannon, two hundred and nine, of iron, and an hundred and three braſs mortars: From all which, we may eaſily judge of the largeneſs, and importance of this city.

Semendria.

2. Semendria, ſituate at the confluence of the Danube, and Morava, about twenty miles to the eaſtward of Belgrade. It was antiently the capital of Servia, but is now an inconſiderable town. After the battle of Belgrade, Prince EUGENE took a view of it, in order to put the town into a poſture of defence, and make it a frontier garriſon againſt the Turks; but whether he did not think it would be capable to maintain a ſiege, or the charge was apprehended too great, that deſign

was not proceeded in, as I can learn.

Widdin.

3. Widdin, ſituate on the Danube, about an hundred and fifty miles to the eaſtward of Belgrade, and near the river Timock: by the late treaty, made the boundary of the two empires in Servia: it is by ſome writers, called a ſtrong town, but I cannot learn there is one place between Belgrade, and Conſtantinople, capable of ſuſtaining a long ſiege.

Niſſa.

4. Niſſa, ſituate about an hundred and twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Belgrade; another town, to which ſome have given the name of a ſtrong fortreſs; but I find it has been frequently taken and retaken, and ſometimes without a formal ſiege.

Scopia.

5. Scopia, or Uſcopia, a large trading city, ſituate on the borders of Macedon, about ſixty miles to the ſouthward of Niſſa. It ſtands in a pleaſant fruitful country; and has ſeveral fine moſques, beſiſtins, and caravanſeras, which are an ornament to it.

Hiſtory of Servia.

This country of Servia, with Bulgaria, or the Lower Mæſia, were brought under the dominion of the Romans, in the reign of AUGUSTUS CÆSAR, and made a Roman province; in which ſtate it continued, till the fall of the eaſtern empire, when it was ſeized by the Sorabi, a Sclavonian people, and a branch of the Sarmatians, whoſe name was afterwards contracted to Sorbi, and then changed to Servi, from whence the people were called Servians. When the Turkiſh arms begun to make a progreſs in Europe, the Deſpots, or Princes of Servia, put themſelves under the protection of the Kings of Hungary, that they might be the better enabled to make head againſt the Infidels; and paid ſome ſmall tribute to that crown, as an acknowledgment of their dependency; and from hence, the houſe of Auſtria, as Kings of Hungary, claim the dominion of this province: but the truth is, the Turks made an entire conqueſt of it, and the Deſpots of Servia, became tributary to them, ſo long ago as the year 1460; ſince which, they modelled it after the form of their other provinces; and made it ſubject to the Beglerbeg, or Viceroy, of Romania: ſo that the Emperor had little more than the title of ſovereign of this country, till the battle of Belgrade, *anno* 1717; and the peace which enſued upon it, whereby great part of Servia was transferred to the Emperor. And here, I think, I have a fair opportunity of making out the boundaries of the German, and Ottoman empires, which none of our geographers have hitherto done, or continue to do very wrong, according to antient treaties, notwithſtanding the Emperor's territories are extended in many places, above a hundred and fifty miles beyond the former limits, by the late treaty of Paſſerowitz.

The limits of the two empires.

To begin then on the north-ſide the Danube: All places and countries ſituate on the weſt-ſide of the river Alauta, and particularly Temeſwaer, are confirmed to the Emperor; and whatever lies to the eaſt of that river, remains to the Ottoman Porte, the ſaid river, ſeparating the two empires from Tranſilvania, to the place where it falls into the Danube. On the other ſide the Danube, the limits of the ſaid empires, are appointed to be from the place where the little river Timock falls into the Danube, up for ten leagues along the ſame; Iſperlechbania, and it's dependencies, remaining to the Turks, and Reſſova to the Emperor. And the ſaid limits are continued from thence, thro' the mountains towards Parakin, which remains to the Emperor, and Razna to the Porte, over the little Morava, between Scahack and Belina, to Bedka, and from thence to the territory of Zokol, towards Belina, as far as the river Drin; ſo that Belgrade, Parakin, Iſtolaz, Scahack, Bedka, and Belina, with their antient territories, are yielded to the Emperor, and Zokol and Razna, with their antient territories, remain to the Porte: and the ſubjects of the two empires are equally to enjoy the navigation of the Timock. 3. From the Drin to the river Unna, all walled and open places on the banks of the Save, in poſſeſſion of the Imperialiſts, ſhall remain to the Emperor, as ſhall the river Save, with both it's banks. 4. From the place where the Unna and the Save joined to the territory of the antient Novi, ſhall remain to the Emperor. 5. The territories of New Novi, on the weſt-ſide of the Unna, which, after the treaty of Carlowitz, were granted to the Porte, ſhall be reſtored to the Emperor, with all their dependencies. As to the reſt, the limits of Croatia remain the ſame as they were on the treaty of Carlowitz, the river Unna, being the boundary between the two empires in this province.

CHAP. III.

Treats of the province of Croatia.

Boſnia.

THE province of Boſnia, which lies between Servia and Croatia, has already been deſcribed in treating of Turkey in Europe; and, is indeed, almoſt all of it left in the poſſeſſion of the Turks, by the treaty of Paſſerowitz, except thoſe towns and places which lie upon, or near the Save, and theſe were confirmed to the Emperor; the preliminary article, which was the foundation of that treaty, declaring that each party ſhould keep what they were then poſſeſſed of. And this being all that is requiſite to be ſaid of the province of Boſnia in this place, I proceed weſtward, to that of Croatia.

Croatia, limits and extent.

Croatia, part of the antient Illyricum, is bounded by the river Save, which ſeparates it from Sclavonia, towards the north; by Boſnia, towards the eaſt; by Morlachia, towards the ſouth; and by Carniola on the weſt; and is about eighty miles in length, and as much in breadth.

Chief towns. Carlſtat.

The chief towns whereof, are, 1. Carlſtat, the capital of the imperial Croatia, ſituate on the river Culp, twenty miles to the ſouthward of the Save; and being a frontier town, is tolerably fortified.

Siſeg.

2. Siſeg, ſituate on the Save, thirty-five miles to the eaſtward of Carlſtat; eſteemed a place of ſome ſtrength.

Caſtanovitz.

3. Caſtanovitz, ſituate near the river Unna, about thirty miles to the weſtward of Gradiſca. Theſe are all ſubject to the Emperor.

Dubiez.

4. Dubiez, on the eaſt-ſide of the river Unna, ſubject to the Turk: it being agreed that the river Unna, ſhall be the boundary between the two empires.

Whitz.

5. Whitz, ſituate on the ſame river Unna, fifty miles to the ſouthward of Carlſtat; this alſo is ſubject to the Turk.

Soil.

The country of Croatia, is naturally fruitful, producing plenty of corn, wine, and oil, where it is cultivated; but as it is a frontier againſt the Turks, has not yielded much more than would ſupply the neceſſities of the inhabitants of late years.

Perſons. Eſteemed the beſt horſe in Germany.

The people are of a good ſtature, and make brave hardy ſoldiers; on which account, many of the German Princes have their horſe-guards compoſed of Croatz, or Krabatz, as they are called.

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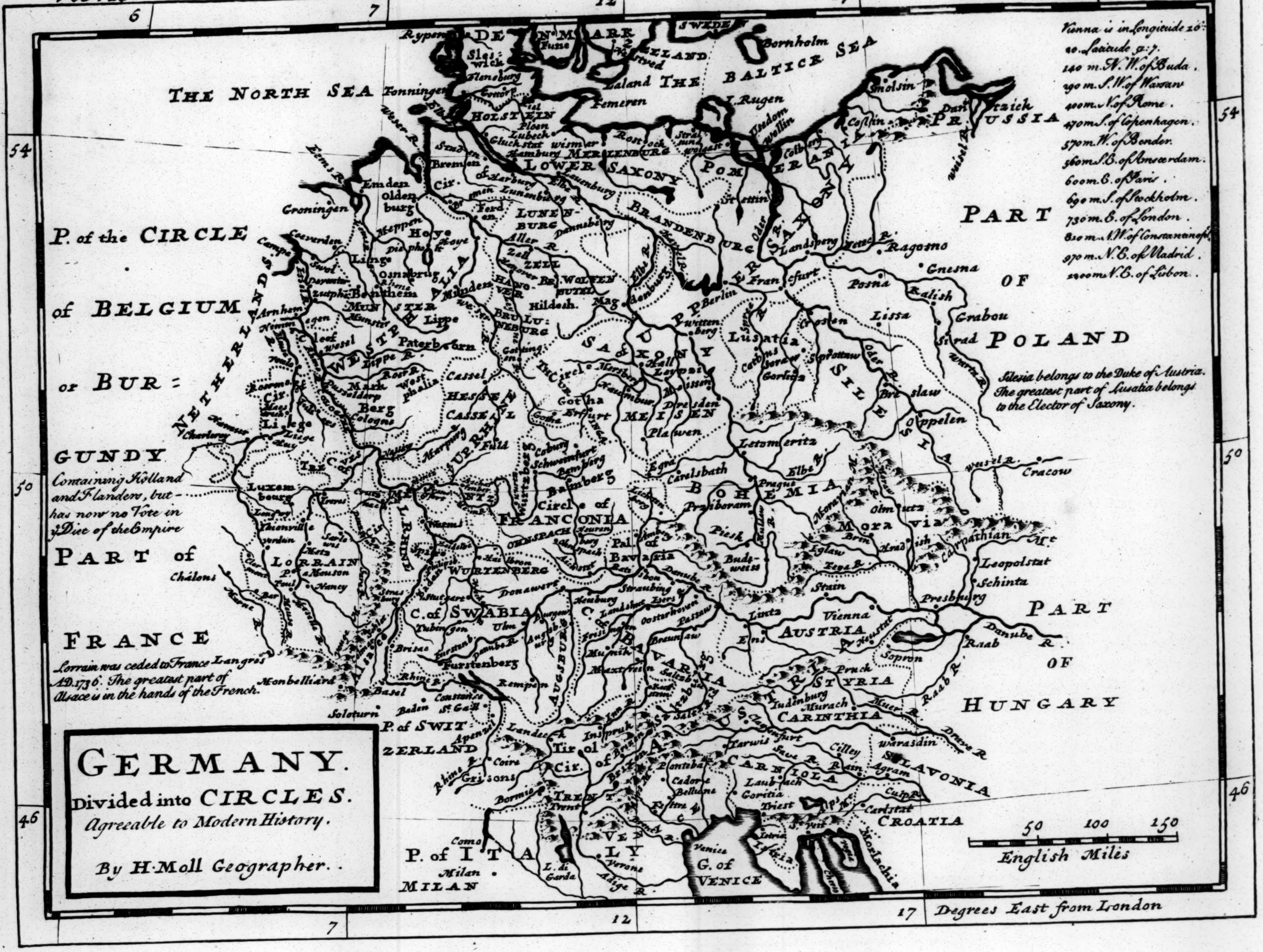

GERMANY.
Divided into CIRCLES.
Agreable to Modern History.

By H. Moll Geographer.

Vienna is in Longitude 16:
20. Latitude 47:7.
140 m. N. W. of Buda.
290 m. S. W. of Warsaw
400 m. N. of Rome.
470 m. S. of Copenhagen.
570 m. W. of Bender.
560 m. S. E. of Amsterdam.
600 m. E. of Paris.
690 m. S. of Stockholm.
730 m. E. of London.
810 m. N. W. of Constantinople.
970 m. N. E. of Madrid.
1200 m. N. E. of Lisbon.

Silesia belongs to the Duke of Austria. The greatest part of Lusatia belongs to the Elector of Saxony.

Containing Holland and Flanders, but has now no Vote in ye Diet of the Empire

Lorrain was ceded to France A.D. 1736. The greatest part of Alsace is in the hands of the French.

THE NORTH SEA
THE BALTICK SEA
DENMARK
SWEDE
ZELAND
Bornholm
PRUSSIA
PART OF POLAND
P. of the CIRCLE of BELGIUM or BURGUNDY
NETHERLANDS
PART of FRANCE
HOLSTEIN
LOWER SAXONY
MEKLENBURG
POMERANIA
BRANDENBURG
UPPER SAXONY
WESTPHALIA
LUNENBURG
HANOVER
HESSE CASSEL
L. RHINE
U. RHINE
MEISSEN
LUSATIA
SILESIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
Circle of FRANCONIA
C. of SWABIA
WURTENBERG
BAVARIA
AUSTRIA
STYRIA
CARINTHIA
CARNIOLA
Tirol Cir.
P. of SWITZERLAND
P. of ITALY
MILAN
G. of VENICE
SLAVONIA
CROATIA
PART OF HUNGARY
LORRAIN
Luxemburg
Carpathian Mt.
Danube R.
Vienna
Prague
Berlin
Hamburg
Cracow
50 100 150
English Miles
Degrees East from London
6
7
12
17
22
54
50
46

CHAP. III.

Morlachia.

Dalmatia.

Morlachia, which lies between Croatia and the gulph of Venice, is ſometimes reckoned a part of Croatia; but Morlachia being ſubject to the Venetians, and Croatia to the German and Turkiſh empires, they may very well be looked on as diſtinct provinces at this day: I chooſe therefore to defer ſpeaking more particularly of Morlachia till I come to treat of the Venetian territories, as alſo of Dalmatia, the ſea-coaſt whereof belongs to the Venetians, and the inland part of the country to the Turks.

And thus having given a deſcription of the frontier provinces of the German Empire, as well towards Poland as Turkey; I proceed to treat of the Empire in general.

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the name, ſituation, extent, climate, ſeas and rivers of Germany.

CHAP. I.

The name.

THE Germans have been known by ſeveral names, as Teutones, Germans, Almans, &c. 1. Teutones, turned by the High-Dutch into Teutſhen and Deutſchen; and by the Engliſh into the word Dutch, the moſt probable derivation whereof is from Teut, the name of one of the antient Celtick deities, whoſe deſcendants, or rather votaries, the Germans pretended to be. 2. German, a word ſaid to be derived from Wehr and Man; Wehr and War being of the ſame import in the antient Teutonick; ſo that Wehrman ſignified a Warrior, or gallant Man, as the Germans were generally eſteemed; and nothing is ſo common as the turning the German W into G by the Latins, and thus they make German of Werman. 3. Alemanni, or Almans, as they are called by the French, Spaniards, and Italians, ſaid to be derived from the words All and Man, as much as to ſay all manner of men, or a mixture of all people, as the vaſt numbers they brought into the field, inclined their enemies to think they were. As to the name of Celts, or Celtæ, this being common to them, with many other nations, I ſhall wave the entering into the etymology of it here.

Situation and extent.

The air.

Seas.

The bounds of antient Germany were very different from the modern, the Danube being looked upon as the ſouthern, and the Rhine the weſtern limits of it; but then they extended it ſo far north as to include Scandinavia. The bounds of modern Germany, if we include Bohemia and Sileſia, (already deſcribed) are the Baltick-Sea, Denmark, and the German ocean towards the north: Poland and Hungary on the eaſt: the gulph of Venice and the Alps, which divide it from Italy towards the ſouth; and France and the Low Coutries towards the weſt: extending from forty-five degrees thirty minutes north latitude to fifty-four degrees thirty minutes, and from the ſixth to the nineteenth degree of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London; being about ſix hundred Engliſh miles from north to ſouth, and five hundred from eaſt to weſt. The air in the ſouthern provinces is temperate and healthful, and the ſoil extremely fruitful; but towards the north the cold is very ſevere in winter; and the lands produce neither wine or oil, and but moderate crops of grain. The ſeas of Germany are the Baltick and the German ocean, and the gulph of Venice may now come into the number of the German ſeas, the Emperor being maſter of the port of Trieſte and ſome other towns on that ſide, where he has lately attempted to eſtabliſh a trade. The ocean waſhes but a very ſmall part of the German ſhores at preſent, tho' Germany gives name to that ſea: indeed, the ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries were made part of the empire by Charles V. by the name of the circle of Burgundy, and then Germany might be ſaid to have had a pretty large ſea-coaſt; but theſe provinces are now eſteemed no part of the empire.

Rivers.

The Danube.

The rivers of Germany have ſome of them been already touched upon, but the principal of them require a further deſcription here: and, 1. The Danube, which claims the preference of any in Europe; whoſe name Danubius, or Danuvius, is but the Roman verſion of the Teutonick, or German

Olim Iſther.

word Danow, or Done, by moſt of the Roman hiſtorians derived from Duni, a branch of the antient German nation who inhabited the banks of this river. The German writers on the contrary derive the name from Don-Aw, which in their language ſignifies a ſwift ruſhing ſtream, as this appears to be, eſpecially about the cataracts in this river. Below Belgrade it has generally obtained the name of Iſther; but the antient writers uſed the words Iſther and Danubius promiſcuouſly for the whole river.

The Iſer, and other rivers which fall into it.

The Lech.

The Regen.

The Iſar.

The Inn.

Ens.

Rab.

The Drave.

The Save.

Teyſſe.

The Morava, the Alauta, the Pruth, &c.

The Danube never overflows.

Fleets of men of war engage upon it.

Cataracts in it.

The Source is near a ſmall village in Swabia, from thence called Tône Eſchingen, or Thonaw Eſchingen, ſituate in the Hyrcinian foreſt, here called Schwartz Waldt, or the Black Foreſt: the hill at the foot whereof it riſes, is not more than eight yards high, tho' ſome geographers have made it to iſſue out of a vaſt mountain. Not many furlongs from it's head it receives two rivulets named Brygen and Pregen, both larger than itſelf, and makes it look ſomething like a river; afterwards it is mightily augmented by ſeveral navigable rivers, the chief whereof are, 1. The Iſer, which having paſſed by Kempten, and ſeveral other conſiderable places in Swabia, diſcharges itſelf into the Danube near Ulm, the capital of the country. 2. The Lech, which having paſſed by Landtſburg, Augſburg, and ſeveral other great cities, falls into the Danube between Newburg and Donawert. 3. The Regen, which falls into this river at Ratiſbon, from thence called in High-Dutch, Regenſburg. 4. The Iſar, which having paſſed by Landtſhut, Moſburg, Mittenwald, &c. mingles it's waters with the Danube near Pletling. 5. The Inn, the fineſt river in Bavaria, which gives name to the city of Inſpruck, and falls into the Danube at Paſſaw. 6. The Ens, which diſcharges itſelf into this river at the town of Ens, to which it communicates it's name. 7. The Rab, or Arabon, which joins it's waters with the Danube, near the ſtrong fortreſs of Raab in Hungary. 8. The Drave, a large navigable river, which ſeparates Hungary from Sclavonia, and falls into the Danube near Eſſeck. 9. The Save, which paſſing by moſt of the cities of Sclavonia and Servia, diſcharges itſelf into the Danube at Belgrade. 10. The Teyſſe, or Tibiſcus, already mentioned, which riſes in the Carpathian mountains, and running ſouthward thro' Hungary, falls into the Danube over-againſt Salankemen: and there are, beſides theſe, ſeveral conſiderable rivers in the Turkiſh provinces, as the Morava, the Alauta, the Pruth, &c. between Belgrade and the Euxine-Sea, which fall into the Danube and increaſe the ſtream. The ſwiftneſs of the current, 'tis obſerved, renders the waters of the Danube muddy, and of a whitiſh colour; inſomuch, that the clear ſtreams of ſome other rivers which fall into it, are plainly diſcernible after a courſe of ſeveral miles. And notwithſtanding the many large rivers which the Danube receives into it, it never is obſerved to riſe higher than uſual, tho' the banks of the leſſer rivers which fall into it are often overflowed. The reaſon whereof is ſaid to be, that in ſummer time the Danube has as great ſupplies of water from the melted ſnow on the mountains, as it can have in winter from the rains, ſo that the alteration can never be conſiderable. But, ſays my author, perhaps the vaſtneſs of the river may give people occaſion to fancy it always of the ſame ſize, tho' it's increaſe in winter, if it were to be nicely examined, would poſſibly be found greater than in ſummer. This river has ſo deep and wide a channel, that both the Imperialiſts and Turks have their fleets of men of war upon it, and many ſmart engagements have happened between theſe powers upon the water; particularly at the ſiege of Belgrade, and other great towns that ſtand upon it, and cannot be attacked with any hopes of ſucceſs without a fleet. The whole courſe of this river from it's ſource to the Euxine-Sea, into which it diſcharges itſelf by ſix or ſeven mouths, is computed to be about fifteen hundred Engliſh miles. There are three cataracts in that part of the Danube which runs through Chriſtendom, the firſt whereof is called Der-Saw Ruſſel, or Swines-Snout, ſo named from a craggy rock of that ſhape, which hangs over the river near Lintz in Auſtria; under which there is a very dangerous whirlpool. 2. Der Strudel, ſo called from the prodigious noiſe which the water makes in it's fall: this cataract is near the town of Greinon in Auſtria. 3. Der Wurbel, or the Whirlpool, about a furlong diſtant from Strudel. But however terrible theſe mighty water-falls may have been repreſented of old, I do not find but the water-men find means to paſs them at preſent without much hazard. There are ſome indeed in that part of the river which runs through Turkey that are ſaid to be impaſſable, but this perhaps may proceed from the unſkilfulneſs of the Turkiſh water-men.

The Rhine.

The Neckar.

Main.

Moſelle.

Roer.

Lippe.

2. The ſecond great river is the Rhine, which riſes from two ſprings in the Alps, the one near a ſmall village called Tavetſch, out of the high mountain of Gottards Geburg, and the other near Reinwald in Rhætia, which two fountains are forty miles aſunder, but unite their ſtreams about eight miles from the city of Coire; and within leſs than a mile beyond this confluence the river dilates itſelf into that great lake called Der Bodenſee, or the lake of Conſtance. There are reckoned nine cataracts in the Rhine, two whereof only are eſteemed dangerous, one of them being a little below the city of Schaffhuyſen in Switzerland, where the whole river falls from the top of a rock ſeventy-five foot high: the other is at Lauffenburg in Switzerland, which has it's name from the cataract, Lauffen in their language ſignifying a water-fall, and Burg a fortreſs. This river runs to the northward between Swabia and Alſace into the Palatinate, receiving the Neckar at Manheim, and the Main at Mentz, and continuing it's courſe to Coblentz is joined by the Moſelle; afterwards it paſſes by Cologn, and through the dutchy of Cleve, being joined by the Roer and Lippe and other ſmaller rivers, and enters the Netherlands at Schenckenſchans. I defer ſpeaking of the further progreſs of it therefore till I come to the Low Countries.

The Elbe.

Muldau.

Egra.

3. The Elbe, which riſes near Hirchburg in Sileſia from eleven ſeveral heads, which after they are united run northward between Miſnia and Luſatia into Saxony, and being joined by the Muldau, Egra, and other rivers, paſſes by Magdeburgh, Lawenburgh, and Hamburgh to Gluckſtadt, below which it divides into two branches, and ſoon after diſcharges itſelf into the German ocean. There is ſcarce any European river that will bear ſhips of burthen to paſs up ſo high as the Elbe does; for at Hamburgh, upwards of ſeventy miles from the ſea, it is an ordinary thing to ſee veſſels of three or four hundred tons.

The Weſer.

4. The Weſer, which riſes in the mountains of Thuringia, and paſſing through Heſſen and Weſtphalia, falls into the German ocean a little below

Bremen. The reſt of the German rivers, with the lakes, mineral-waters, baths, mountains, mines, and foreſts, will be deſcribed in the reſpective circles, or provinces, to which they belong.

CHAP. II.

Treats of the perſons, genius, and temper of the Germans; of their vices and virtues; diet, lodging, and diverſions.

The perſons of the Germans.

Intellectuals.

THE ſtature of the antient Germans, as well as the preſent race, was obſerved to be of the largeſt, eſpecially if compared with the French. Indeed there are Roman authors who inform us, that there was but little difference between the Germans and the Gauls, in their perſons or manners; but this muſt be underſtood of thoſe Gauls which lay near the Rhine, whoſe country is now reckoned part of Germany: for every country, I am ſatisfied, produces people of the ſame bulk, features, and complexions it did two thouſand years ago; and whenever a new ſet of people take poſſeſſion of a country, they become like thoſe who inhabited it before in a very few generations. If a ſwarthy Scythian or Tartar, of a ſhort ſquat make, flat noſe, thick lips, and little black eyes ſet deep in his head, was to be tranſplanted into Germany (as many nations of the Scythians were formerly) his poſterity, in an hundred or two of years, would infallibly be tall luſty fellows, of fair complexions, and regular features, as the preſent Germans are. And, on the contrary, if a German was to be tranſplanted into Tartary, his poſterity would in time become deformed, and dwindle into the Tartar make. For notwithſtanding we all ſprung from one original, our features and complexion, our ſtature, and even tempers, vary according to the part of the world we happen to be planted in. There is ſomething in the air, the ſoil, the diet, or manner of life, which makes the inhabitants of one country appear, as if they were caſt in a different mould from thoſe of another. But to proceed: whether the reſt of the world were piqued to ſee the Germans excel them in ſtature, or for what other reaſon I cannot conceive, they have generally agreed to charge the whole German nation with ſtupidity, and want of ſenſe; inſinuating that it is not poſſible for the ſoul to animate ſo vaſt a bulk, with the ſame advantage it does one of an inferior ſize. The leaden temper of the Germans (ſay the French) wants to be mended, by mingling the French quick-ſilver with it. And true it is, almoſt every people have ſomething in their tempers, as well as in their perſons, to diſtinguiſh them by. The levity of the French, and the gravity of the Spaniard, are as much occaſioned by the ſituation of their reſpective countries, as the different taſtes of their wines are. Animals of ſuch and ſuch a frame of mind and body, are as natural to ſome certain ſoils, as the plants peculiar to the country are. But notwithſtanding theſe different tempers and capacities that are to be met with in the world, the heavieſt and moſt untractable part of mankind are capable of being wonderfully improved by their education and application to buſineſs. Nor is it the lad of the quickeſt parts that always makes the greateſt man. If one whom nature has been bountiful to at firſt, makes ſwifter advances in his ſtudies than uſual, perhaps he wants the patience and diligence of others, who, by their unwearied application, at length may poſſibly ſurpaſs him. Again, if one perſon wants a ready wit, it is frequently made up to him in a good judgment. And as it is with particular perſons, ſo I apprehend it to be with nations. If they are defective in one reſpect, it is made up to them in another. Heaven has not given us all the ſame endowments, but has however diſtributed the gifts of nature ſo equally, that every one is ſatisfied with his particular portion; and perhaps, there are very few defects but may be ſurmounted by diligence and application: not a German, but if his genius was duly conſidered, and he was introduced into an employment ſuitable to it, might make a figure in the world; of which we ſhall be further convinced, when we come to ſpeak of their learning, arts, and ſciences.

Vices.

Food.

The morals of the Germans alſo have been cenſured, drunkenneſs is ſaid to be a vice proper to the country, *Germanorum vivere eſt bibere*, is become a proverb; but whether they are more addicted to drinking than their northern neighbours, or indeed than the Engliſh at preſent, is very much queſtioned. Certain it is, they cannot exceed the Ruſſians in diſorders of this kind. Nothing is more common, ſays my reverend author, than for the Germans to form drinking ſocieties, which they call *Drinck Brudder*, where they contract an intimacy by being drunk together. But I don't find there is much more in this, than in our common clubs, where people ſometimes drink to exceſs. And theſe were as ſeverely cenſured in England within theſe fifty years, as thoſe in Germany can be. The Germans ſeem to be a little hard upon ſtrangers indeed, in obliging them to take off a large bowl on their firſt entrance into their houſes, which is called their Welcome. This, and ſome other ſuch drunken cuſtoms, puts the French King, it is ſaid, to ſome difficulty to find a miniſter capable of negotiating his affairs in this country; for the French are as remarkable for their ſobriety, as the Germans for intemperance: and, according to PHILIP MELANCTHON, the Germans were guilty of eating, as well as drinking to exceſs, for he uſed to ſay, We Germans eat ourſelves ſick: We eat ourſelves into hell. It is no extraordinary thing for them to ſit from twelve at noon to five in the evening at dinner, and from ſeven at night till two or three in the morning: but I perceive the greateſt part of this time is ſpent in drinking after the cloth is taken away: and then perhaps we may not fall much ſhort of them ourſelves. Their ordinary food is beef, mutton, fowls, &c. as with us; but they have one diſh which has been introduced in England very lately, and that is ſnails: from Michaelmas to Lady-Day theſe are eaten at the tables of the quality as a great rarity. There is ſcarce a nobleman's garden but has a ſnail-houſe in it, which furniſhes his table with them. Their drink is beer and wine, as with us, but both the one and the other they have upon eaſier terms; for they have not only Rheniſh and other wines of their own growth, but Hungary, France and Italy lie contiguous to them, where the beſt wines are produced.

Travelling.

There is no nation more in love with travelling than the Germans. We meet with them in all the courts of Europe; and if it ſhould be admitted that their natural parts were not equal to their neighbours, the experience they gain abroad makes an ample amends for what they are ſuppoſed to be naturally defective in. But the miſfortune is, this paſſion for travelling frequently, ruins their eſtates, and impoveriſhes their country; they carry out more money annually, 'tis ſaid, than their ſilver mines produce; for a German nobleman will not be ſeen in a foreign court without an equipage ſuitable to his quality, and perhaps beyond it.

Virtues. Integrity and honeſty.

The Germans however, with all the vices and vanities aſcribed to them, are allowed to be endowed with ſome very commendable virtues, particularly honeſty and fairneſs in their dealings. To be Dutch-hearted is a phraſe with them, which ſignifies an open-hearted honeſt man, who ſcorns flattery and diſſimulation. And the French have a ſaying, That a German's word is as good as another man's bond.

Hoſpitality.

Hoſpitality is another good quality, which the antient as well as the preſent Germans are allowed to have. JULIUS CÆSAR informs us, that in his days their houſes were open to all men, who were welcome to ſuch entertainment as they found. That they looked upon it as a piece of injuſtice to affront a traveller, and thought it a piece of religion to protect thoſe who came under their roof. Nor are the preſent Germans degenerated from their anceſtors; for, as has been obſerved already, the ſame countries will produce people of like diſpoſitions and qualities to the end of the world, how often ſoever the inhabitants may be changed. According to a modern author, you may travel cheaper in Germany than in any other country; becauſe, ſays he, you pay nothing, or very little for your meat or lodging; and you will meet with all imaginable ſecurity, murders and robberies being rarely heard of: the only inconvenience is, the being obliged to ride night and day in a poſt-waggon, as they call it, though it goes but a foot-pace; and if you happen to have the opportunity of reſting two or three hours, in the middle of a winter's night, the only bedding you muſt expect is clean ſtraw, where people of all ranks and degrees, noblemen and beggars lie promiſcuouſly.

Courage.

The courage and bravery of the antient or preſent Germans were never diſputed; but probably, the knowledge they had that their own bulk and ſtrength exceeded that of other nations, contributed, in a great meaſure, to raiſe in them that contempt of the reſt of mankind, which obtained the name of courage: for whether at laſt, when a perſon's ſize and ſtrength gives him an aſſurance of victory, this opinion of his own abilities can properly be denominated courage, I very much queſtion; there being but little room for a man to ſhew his courage where there is little or no hazard to be run. On the contrary, where the hazard is ſo great that there is ſcarce any probability of ſucceſs, or if the thing a perſon hazards his life for, be not worth ſo great a venture, I take the champion to be a fool. From which few obſervations it will follow, that not one tenth part of the actions which are looked upon as the effects of courage deſerve ſo noble an epithet. But to proceed: it is generally ſaid, if Germany be ever conquered, it muſt be by Germans; that is, either by the mercenary troops hired from thence, or by their own diſſenſions: for was Germany firmly united, they might bid defiance to all the world. I have had occaſion to obſerve formerly, that where two armies are equally diſciplined, and equal in their numbers and ſituation, that ſide which has the greateſt weight of men and horſes will infallibly carry their point; and there is no country which affords greater numbers, or larger bodies of men and horſes than this does. Had not the army of GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS conſiſted of Germans, with which he was furniſhed by the Electors of Brandenburgh and Saxony, as well as Swedes, he had never made that progreſs in Germany that he did. The French King alſo, in the late wars, owed much of his ſucceſs to the Switzers: his foot would have made but a very inconſiderable figure in the field, without theſe and the Germans, which the Duke of Bavaria brought to his aſſiſtance.

Sports and Diverſions.

Hunting the wild boar or deer is the ſport moſt generally followed in Germany by the quality: but there ſeems to be but little riding in the caſe; for the beaſt being found by the huntſmen ſome time before, is ſurrounded by a large company, who with their guns, lances, ſpears, and dogs, diſpatch the creature as ſoon as they can, without ſuffering him to run for his life: ſometimes indeed a wild boar will break through the croud, and 'tis well if he do not wound either man or horſe with his tuſks. Another diverſion in winter is, the riding thro' the ſtreets on the ſnow in ſledges, which are drawn by horſes richly accoutered, and adorned with bells and feathers: But this is a diverſion uſed by their northern neighbours alſo, and has been mentioned already. The game which they uſed chiefly to delight in, was cheſs; but ſince their officers aſſociated with ours, and thoſe of other nations in the laſt war, they cannot be ignorant of any modern games, and no doubt divert themſelves with them as their countrymen uſed to do in the army.

Lodging.

In their houſes we ſeldom ſee a fire, except in the kitchen; but their rooms are heated by a ſtove, or oven, to what degree they deſire: and they have this particular to them in their winter-lodgings, that they lay one feather-bed over them, and another under them.

CHAP. III.

Treats of their language, learning, univerſities, arts and ſciences.

Language.

THE High-Dutch, which is the language of Germany, is much admired by ſome, as a noble copious language, but very difficult to be attained by the French or Italians, on account of the multitude of conſonants in it. There are a thouſand words in the High-Dutch, ſays my author, which can never poſſibly be pronounced by one who has been uſed to a ſoft and eaſy language: but there can be no greater argument of the antiquity of the High-Dutch tongue, than the many monoſyllables which are found it, becauſe theſe cannot be ſuppoſed to be derived from any other language. SIMON STEVIN, a Dutchman, has collected above two thouſand monoſyllable primitives in this tongue, whereas he could not find more than an hundred and ſixty-three in the Latin, and two hundred and ſixty-five in the Greek. In the Engliſh tongue a whole ſpeech might be compoſed of monoſyllables, which were all of them originally High-Dutch, according to the right reverend author already mentioned. There are, he obſerves farther, in the German tongue, twenty-three principal terminations, which though they ſignify nothing in themſelves, yet being added to another word, very much alter it's ſignification; of which our Engliſh tongue retains a great many; as *er* in buyer, ſeller, &c. *hood*, in manhood, prieſthood, &c. *dom*, in kingdom, dukedom, &c. by the help of which the German tongue is made exceeding copious. It is held alſo to be the richeſt of any in its admirable compounds; for in this language we have not only words compounded of adjectives and ſubſtantives, and verbs or participiles, with prepoſitions, which is uſual in all languages, but alſo innumerable words which conſiſt of two ſubſtantives or two adjectives. In the Engliſh tongue alſo we ſtill retain this elegancy of compounding ſubſtantives, as in houſe-wife, ſnow-ball, foot-ball, &c. But the greateſt excellency in this kind of compoſitin is, our author obſerves, in the altering the ſignification of the word by tranſpoſing of the ſubſtantives; as we ſay in Engliſh, horſe-mill and mill-horſe, &c. of which there are infinitely more examples in the High-Dutch than Engliſh language.

But the Germans have it ſeems much corrupted their language of late, by introducing a great number of Italian, French, and Latin words, which they have turned into Dutch by giving them a German termination. There are alſo numberleſs dialects of the High-Dutch in Germany, and ſome of them ſo different, that the natives of one province ſcarce underſtand thoſe of another. A Brandenburgher will hardly underſtand a Miſnian, or a Swabe either of them. The citizens of Leipſick obſerve three ſeveral dialects within the walls of their city. The old Britiſh, Engliſh, Daniſh, Swediſh, Norwegian and Flemiſh languages are alſo all derived from the High-Dutch, and looked upon as branches of it. Upon the frontiers of Germany the people frequently ſpeak the language of the nation which lies contiguous to them; as in Lorrain and the biſhoprick of Triers, they ſpeak French; in the Upper Tyrol, Italian; and in Bohemia and Moravia, the Sclavonian: but Latin and French are ſaid to be the beſt travelling languages through Germany, the meaneſt ſervants in the inns being able to expreſs themſelves intelligibly in Latin, though they do not ſpeak very correctly.

Learning.

The Germans could not boaſt of any great ſtock of learning till they became acquainted with the Romans. Some ſchools they had, where the prieſts who ſerved at the altar were inſtructed in the principles of their religion, which they revealed to the laity only in dark fables, and myſterious riddles, and the actions of their great men they uſed to record in doggrel rhimes, but never committed them to writing. In the reign of the Emperor ADRIAN, ſeveral ſchools were erected in that part of Germany which lies next the Rhine, where their young nobility were taught Latin; but ſtill the northern Germans wanted the opportunity of education, till the French got footing in Germany, whoſe princes founded ſchools amongſt them, eſpecially DAGOBERT and CHARLES the Great; but the great difficulty of the governours of theſe ſchools, was the reducing the High-Dutch tongue to writing, which till then had never been brought under any rules: and this was found ſo difficult an undertaking, that for many years all proceedings at law, and every thing elſe which was put in writing, was always drawn up in the Latin tongue. But the Germans having regulated their language by degrees, applied themſelves to the ſtudy of the liberal arts and ſciences with ſo much zeal, that in a ſhort time were raiſed ſeveral univerſities of note. JUSTUS LIPSIUS relates, that in his days there were more univerſities in Germany than in all the reſt of Chriſtendom. There are at this day reckoned above thirty, and the German princes are mighty zealous in keeping up the grandeur of them, being proud of nothing more than the number of ſcholars in their dominions.

Univerſities.

There are no people more induſtrious in their ſeveral profeſſions than the Germans, nor do their ſcholars come behind the mechanicks in their diligent application to their ſtudies: the Hebrew is no where ſo generally learnt, or better underſtood than in Germany; and it is obſerved that no language is more ſpoken by the trading Jews than the High-Dutch.

Printing is here encouraged to a fault. Every man of letters is an author, and they multiply books without number, whether they have any thing new to entertain the world with or not. It were to be wiſhed, ſays my reverend author, that a little more moderation were uſed in publiſhing thoſe millions of ſuppoſitions and diſputations which annually overſtock the fairs at Frankfort and Leipſick. But it ſeems no man can be a graduate in their univerſities, who has not publiſhed one diſputation at leaſt.

Mechanicks and chymiſts.

Gun-powder.

The Germans are allowed by all to be excellent mechanicks and chymiſts. The inventions of gun-powder, guns, and printing, are generally aſcribed to them; but this of gun-powder muſt be acknowledg'd to be diſcover'd by pure accident. It is related, that BARTHOLD SCHWARTZ, a Franciſcan friar of this nation, having made a great proficiency in chymiſtry, once happened to mingle ſulphur and ſalt-petre with ſome other ingredients in an earthen crucible, and ſetting them on a hot fire, in order to make an experiment, the veſſel was broke in a thouſand pieces, with a wonderful noiſe and violence, which at firſt ſurpriſed him; but upon ſecond thoughts repeating the experiment, he began to conceive mighty hopes of it, and firſt he procured a long iron pipe, not unlike the barrel of a gun, and having drilled a touch-hole, he rammed in the ſame ingredients he obſerved had ſuch terrible effects in his crucible, putting ſome ſmall ſtones upon them, and ſetting fire to the combuſtible matter, the ſtones were thrown out with greater force and noiſe than could be expected. And this was the original of guns; and tho' the powder was diſcovered by accident, yet the application of it to this purpoſe was purely owing to his own murdering genius, none that I have heard of having endeavoured to deprive him of the honour of it. This occurrence happened about the year 1330; but the invention was concealed from the publick for ſome time, and only communicated to friends. The Venetians were the next people acquainted with this invention, which did them good ſervice when they were beſieged by the Genoeſe: they ſoon after took the cities of Padua, Verona, and others, from the Germans, by the help of their guns; ſo that in a little time the Germans ſaw their artificial thunder turned againſt them: and the German Jews, it is ſaid, inſtructed the Turks in this art, out of their prejudice to Chriſtianity; but if the Jews had not, the Chriſtian renegadoes would ſoon have done it. The Venetians were the firſt that made uſe of guns at ſea; and after them the merchants of the Baltick: the Engliſh took Calais with their great guns in 1347; and taught the French the uſe of them. The Spaniards about the ſame time found the advantage of them; which the Moors, they were engaged with, could not but obſerve and endeavour to imitate. And thus theſe terrible engines in about the ſpace of fifty or threeſcore years, were made uſe of by all the

Guns invented.

The conſternation of the Americans on ſeeing guns fired.

Gun-powder diſcover'd long before it was applied to guns.

nations in Europe. But when the Spaniards diſcovered America, it is evident the natives were perfect ſtrangers to guns in that part of the world: for they looked upon the Spaniards to be gods, when after a flaſh of lightning they ſaw ſome of their countrymen fall down dead, and heard the thunder of the artillery; in ſo much, that they began to offer ſacrifice to them, till the Spaniſh cruelties, it is ſaid, gave them ſome reaſon to change the opinion they had conceived of theſe thunderers. Having taken a Spaniard therefore ſtraggling from his company, it is reported that they threw him into a river, and held him under water till he was drowned, by way of experiment, to try if he was mortal. But to proceed; we have abundance of reaſon to believe that the Germans, notwithſtanding all that has been ſaid, were not the firſt who underſtood the force of nitre and ſulphur mixed together; though I am ready to allow that they were the firſt who applied them to the uſe we now put them to. It is evident that our countryman ROGER BACON, a Franciſcan friar, and fellow of Merton-college in Oxford, was acquainted with the experiment three or fourſcore years before SCHWARTZ the German happened upon it: For in one of his letters inſcribed *ad Pariſienſem*, he obſerves, That out of ſalt-petre, ſulphur, and coal-duſt, he could make fire which ſhould burn at what diſtance he pleaſed; that with the ſame matter he could cauſe thunder and lightning in the air, more terrible than that produced naturally. That a city or an army might be deſtroyed by this fire, and that it burſt forth with an incredible noiſe. The Chineſe alſo had the uſe of gun-powder long before we knew it in Europe, tho' they did not apply it to thoſe deſtructive ends: and indeed it is not eaſy to believe that the world ſhould for three or four thouſand years remain perfectly ignorant of the force of nitre and ſulphur mixed together; though it did not come to be much talked of, till we ſaw the dreadful effects of them when applied to guns and bombs, and the blowing up men and towns. And I cannot avoid here relating an obſervation of a phyſician for improving theſe murdering arts, namely, that poiſons might be ſo compounded and fired from guns and mortars, that they ſhould carry certain death to all that came within the ſmell of them, and eſpecially on ſhipboard, where the mariners could not get out of their reach. Some have thought, that the reaſon Friar BACON did not communicate his knowledge of the force of gun-powder more generally, was the ill conſequences that he apprehended from it; but others ſay, he was afraid of confirming the people in the notion they had of his being a conjurer, from ſome experiments he had made, which at that time were thought above the power of nature.

Printing.

As to the art of printing, which the Germans challenge the invention of, I ſhall defer ſpeaking of it till I come to Holland; the Dutch ſeeming to have a better pretence to the invention than the Germans; and it is very certain that the Chineſe had it long before either: but thus much muſt be allowed the Europeans, that they have brought this art to much greater perfection than the Chineſe, who know nothing of diſtributing the letters, and compoſing ſeveral ſheets with the ſame types, to this day; but have as many forms, or rather boards, as ſheets; ſo that the materials uſed in printing a ſmall book, would fill an ordinary room. And from hence it is natural to believe, that the Europeans neither learnt the art of the Chineſe, nor the Chineſe of them, their manner of printing being ſo very different.

Clock-work.

Whether clock-work was an invention of the Germans is much diſputed; but it is certain they brought that art to very great perfection; and among other inſtances of it, it is related that the Emperor CHARLES V. had a watch in the jewel of his ring, and King JAMES I. of England another of the ſame kind, both made in Germany. The Germans alſo are excellent engravers and painters, and underſtand engineering perfectly well: but I muſt confeſs I have ſcarce faith to believe what is related of REGIOMONTANUS, namely, that he made a wooden eagle, which flew a quarter of a mile out of town to meet the Emperor MAXIMILIAN when he came to Noremburg, and returned back with him thither; and that the ſame artiſt made an iron fly, which he threw off his hand, and after it had flown round the room returned to him again. But however that were, our Engliſh mechanicks ſeem to be in the greateſt reputation for clocks and watches, ſince the days of TOMPION; their work being ſeen in the palaces of the greateſt Princes in the known world.

CHAP. IV.

Contains an abſtract of the ancient and modern hiſtory of Germany, with the ſucceſſion of its Emperors.

CHAP. IV.

The uncertainty of the origin of nations.

AMONG the many nations whoſe origin hath been enquired into in the progreſs of this work, if there had been one of which it could with any certainty be ſaid, by what people, or in what century it was firſt planted, I ſhould not deſpair of diſcovering the original inhabitants of this. Indeed CLUVERIUS and Dr. HEYLIN, and after them an hundred more, pretend to ſhew preciſely from which of the grand-ſons of NOAH, and at what time every country of any conſequence in Europe was firſt peopled: but what ſlender evidence do they rely upon? or rather, have they produced any but a pretended ſimilitude of names? From GOMER the grand-ſon of NOAH, ſay they, deſcended the Cimbrians or Cimmerians, who peopled Germany; for there cannot be a more eaſy change than that of Gomerians into Cimmerians, and this is to paſs for proof. Had they ſaid no more than that all nations were peopled by the poſterity of NOAH, as we learn from ſcripture, they would have had the concurrence of every man who is not an infidel; but to pretend to point out particularly which of them inhabited this country, and which of them that, and the preciſe time of their peregrinations, when there are no hiſtories written within two thouſand years of the times they pretended to be ſo well acquainted with, ſeems to me an unpardonable preſumption; and may incline their readers to believe they have no better authority for many facts they recite of a later date.

The Romans firſt acquainted with the Germans.

It is from the Romans we firſt learn any thing of this people which can be depended on. The Germans had paſs'd the banks of the Rhine it ſeems, and fallen upon the Gauls, who were then under the protection of the Romans: whereupon JULIUS CÆSAR attack'd a body of them commanded by ARIOVISTUS one of their kings, and drove them back over the Rhine again; after which he built a bridge over that river, and obtained ſome further victories over them: but DRUSUS, the adopted ſon of Auguſtus, had the greateſt ſucceſs in Germany of any of the Roman generals, from whence he obtained the title of Germanicus; for he ſubdued the whole country as far as the ocean, and reduced it into the form of a Roman province. Quintilius Varus, who ſucceeded Druſus, loſt all that his predeceſſor had gained, and with it three entire Roman legions, which ſeems to have been more ſenſibly reſented by Auguſtus than any misfortune in his reign: inſomuch, that it is related, he would often cry out as in a fit of diſtraction, Varus, reſtore me my legions. After which defeat this prince thought fit to make the Rhine and the Danube the boundaries of his empire on that ſide; and to defend it againſt the incurſions of the Germans for the future, he quartered eight legions upon the banks of the Rhine, and four upon the Danube.

The ſtate of ancient Germany, as to government.

During this war the Romans had an opportunity of informing themſelves of the manners and cuſtoms of the Germans: and they obſerve in the firſt place, that they were divided into many nations and principalities, all of them ſpeaking the ſame language. That ſome of theſe nations were governed by Kings with limited powers, and others were abſolute in their dominions; ſome of their princes were elective, and others hereditary; and ſome ariſtocratical and democratical governments were alſo found amongſt them. And that many of theſe ſtates and kingdoms frequently united under one head, or general, both in their offenſive and defenſive wars. The patriarchal form of government ſeems firſt to have obtained here, as in other countries we have paſſed through; for we are told, that ſeveral families being frequently united by marriages or compacts for their common defence under one head or leader, they gave him the name of Hertzog or Duke, and ſubmitted their controverſies to his determination: and that ſometimes the ambitious head of a powerful family ſubdued his weaker neighbours, and aſſumed the ſame abſolute dominion over them as he claimed over his own tribe. Thus various conſtitutions were ſtruck out, according to the circumſtances the ſeveral people happened to be under. And I believe all the world will agree with me at this day, that neither monarchy, or ariſtocracy, a limited or abſolute power in the ſtate or ſovereign, are any of them jure divino; but whatever kind of government is once eſtabliſh'd in any country ought to be ſubmitted to. Thus much however I can't help obſerving, that whatever were the forms of government the ancient Germans liv'd under, moſt of the princes of Germany at preſent are abſolute in their reſpective dominions, as the Emperor himſelf is in his hereditary countries: nay, there is ſcarce that ſtate or monarchy in being at this day, but the ſovereigns of them are abſolute. The common people ſubject to the Venetians, the States of the United Provinces, or any other republick in Europe, have as little ſhare in the adminiſtration as thoſe who live under a monarchy, and their governors are as arbitrary and uncontrolable. The only difference, as has long been obſerved, is, that under a monarchy we have uſually one tyrant, and under a ſtate ſome hundreds; and yet I don't know how it comes to paſs, but the ſubjects of a monarchy are uſually looked upon to be in a ſtate of ſlavery, while thoſe who live in a common-wealth are ſuppoſed to be in perfect freedom. But to return to Germany: We have a ſet of hiſtorians who are very poſitive that the ancient German Kings were elected and depoſed by their people whenever they ſaw fit: that this was an unalienable right in the multitude, which they could never part with; and as we are ſuppoſed to be of German extraction, this ought to be part of the Engliſh conſtitution. But they may remember too, that theſe ſame Germans, or Saxons, uſed to determine their controverſies by combat, or going to loggerheads: and that their criminals were tried by fire and water ordeal, thrown into a river, or obliged to walk over nine or ten burning plough-ſhares blind-fold, to vindicate their innocence; and a hundred other extravagancies of the like nature, which are parts of that admired conſtitution, that few of the preſent generation will be fond of returning to. But further, what ſhould we get by making the populace judges of their Prince's actions, ſo little as they underſtand of the ſtate of the world, and the intereſt of their own nation? Would they not commit ten thouſand errors in politicks? would they not be liable to be ſpirited up by every deſigning knave, to the deſtruction of the Prince and the community; and perhaps oftener uſe their electing and depoſing powers to their own hurt than benefit? Some men are ſo fond of a democracy, that they will not give themſelves leave to reflect that they are at preſent under a much happier conſtitution than ever the ancient Germans experienced. The art of government, as well as other arts, is capable of improvement; and why we ſhould be always appealing to the firſt rude draughts, and inculcating to the mob that we ought to imitate only the firſt eſſays of this nature, that were made when there were no laws to aſcertain the Prince's prerogative, or the people's rights, in which our great happineſs conſiſts, ſhews a more than ordinary perverſeneſs, or a very great degree of ignorance in the hiſtory of the ancients.

Repub-licks as arbitrary as monarchs.

Other cuſtoms of the ancient Germans.

I proceed now to take notice of ſome other cuſtoms of the ancient inhabitants of Germany, collected by Cluverius from Cæsar, Tacitus, and other Roman hiſtorians. The common people, they tell us, generally went naked 'till they grew old, when they hung the ſkin of ſome wild beaſt about their ſhoulders, faſtening it with a thong; and men of the beſt quality only wore a little woollen mantle, or a coat without ſleeves. Their uſual bed was the ground, or a little ſtraw; and people of diſtinction lay upon the ſkins of wolves or bears. That they dipped their new-born infants in cold water; and ſome ſay, threw them into rivers, that by their ſwimming or ſinking their legitimacy might be determined. Their food was bread, fleſh, butter and fruits, as now. Their drink, water, milk and beer, not knowing the uſe of wine. They had ſeldom more than one knife in a family, for they pulled their meat to pieces with their fingers, as they do ſtill in the eaſt; but then 'tis uſually ſo over-done that it is ready to drop in pieces. They were uſually very merry at their entertainments, ſitting in a ſemicircle, the maſter of the family in the middle, and the reſt on the right and left of him, according to their quality; but no women were admitted to their feaſts, or a ſon under twenty years of age. They had the liberty of marrying or cohabiting with as many women as they pleaſed; but the common people uſually contented themſelves with one a piece, on account of the charge that attended the keeping more, as is ſuppoſed. The eldeſt ſon, or next heir of the family, always inherited the entire principality, or eſtate of his anceſtor; and the younger children had certain villages, or lordſhips aſſigned them for their maintenance.

Few

CHAP. IV.

The religion of the ancient Germans.

Few Pagan nations, 'tis ſaid, liv'd up to the rules of morality ſo well as the Germans did. They expreſs'd a more than ordinary regard for divine worſhip; chuſing their prieſts out of their nobility, who were not altogether ignorant of moral philoſophy and phyſicks, and were uſually call'd to their councils of ſtate. Women were alſo admitted to the prieſtly office; and both the one and the other had the profoundeſt reſpect paid them by the laity. The doctrine of tranſmigration prevailed amongſt them, they believed that departed ſouls animated other creatures when they had left theſe bodies, and were happy or miſerable, according as they behaved in this life. The ſun they worſhiped with that devotion, that CLUVERIUS is of opinion, they looked upon this planet as the only true God, dedicating the firſt day of the week to it. They alſo worſhiped the God WODEN, or GODAN, after whom Wedneſday, or the fourth day of the week is called. This word GODAN afterwards came to be contracted into God, and from the Germans we have it. They worſhiped alſo the God TARANES, the ſame with the Daniſh THOR, the Thunderer, from whom our Thurſday hath its name. The Goddeſs FREIA, or VENUS, was alſo worſhiped by the Germans, from whom Friday was ſo called. The God THIES, or TIES, another of their deities anſwerable to MARS, gave name to Tueſday. CLUVERIUS alſo would have us believe, that they worſhiped the Trinity: that they were acquainted with the hiſtory of the creation, the fall of angels, &c. but I don't ſee any foundation he hath for this. They performed their religious exerciſes, and ſacrificed in groves, the one being uſually made choice of for an altar: and inſtead of a temple, they erected an arbour made of oak and beechen boughs. They looked upon it, ſays CLUVERIUS, as impious to draw any picture, or repreſentation of their gods; and yet we find the image of an armed man ſet on the top of a vaſt pillar, worſhiped by the Saxons till the time of CHARLES the Great, who deſtroyed it; the memory of which occurrence is ſtill kept up among the Germans in their tragedies; and ſome pieces of that mighty pillar are ſtill preſerved in the cathedral church of Harberſtat.

The prieſts, as well as the ſacrifice, were always crowned with wreaths of oak, or of ſome other ſacred tree. They ſacrificed not only beaſts, but men, if we may believe the Roman writers; but when they offered human ſacrifices, they were taken from among their ſlaves, or malefactors; though upon extraordinary occaſions, it is ſaid, they would offer their own children. The prieſts uſually ſhot the ſacrifice to death with arrows, if it was a beaſt, but the men were ſometimes crucified. They inſpected the entrails of the animal, and from thence prognoſticated good or ill ſucceſs in their wars and other undertakings; and when the rites were ended, the ſacrifices, whether they conſiſted of men or animals, were eaten, and they were merry, as uſual at feſtivals; the prieſts entertaining them with muſick and dancing. But I muſt confeſs, that part of the account which mentions the eating of human fleſh, makes me give the leſs credit to the reſt, becauſe I have yet never met with that people on the face of the earth which do allow themſelves in eating their own ſpecies, and it is generally what even other animals abhor.

Funerals.

Their belief that their ſouls ſhould animate other bodies after death, it is ſaid, made them fearleſs of danger; and if a man happened to be under unfortunate circumſtances, he made no ſcruple of diſpatching himſelf to the other world. They burnt their dead bodies, and having gathered up the bones and aſhes of the funeral pile, they buried them together. The wives, ſlaves, dogs, horſes and armour of the deceaſed, it is ſaid, were alſo thrown into the fire, in order to ſerve their lord in the other world. And at the funerals of the great, were tiltings and tournaments, and ſongs ſung in memory of their heroick actions.

CHAP. IV.

The northern nations break in upon the Roman empire.

I have already ſhewn that the Germans defended their frontiers ſo well againſt the Romans, that they were contented to make the Rhine and the Danube the boundaries of their empire; and accordingly built fortreſſes, and planted gariſons on the banks of both thoſe rivers to prevent the incurſions of the barbarous nations, as they called them: but notwithſtanding theſe precautions, within leſs than an hundred years after CONSTANTINE the Great, the Franks, Burgundians, Almans, and other German nations, broke through thoſe boundaries, paſſed the Rhine, and diſpoſſeſſed the Romans of all Gaul, Rhætia and Noricum, which they ſhared amongſt them; but the Franks prevailing over the reſt, at length eſtabliſhed their empire over all modern Germany, France, and Italy, under the conduct of CHARLES the Great.

Charles the Great firſt Emperor of Germany, &c. anno 800.

Germany was never under the dominion of one ſovereign, as Dr. NICHOLSON obſerves, till the reign of this Prince, who was the ſon of PEPIN, King of France. He was born the 28th of January, 747, and upon the death of his father PEPIN, which happened in the year 768, he ſhared his dominions with his brother. After his brother's death, he aſſumed the government of the whole, notwithſtanding his brother left a ſon behind him, with whom his mother fled to DESIDERIUS, King of Lombardy, for protection. Hither CHARLES purſued her, and having defeated King DESIDERIUS, made himſelf maſter of great part of Italy, and particularly of Rome. The Pope and clergy of that city having been forced to ſubmit to the Kings of Lombardy, and loſt much of the power they had formerly uſurped, looked upon King CHARLES as their deliverer, and ſwore allegiance to him on St. PETER's tomb: he was alſo, by the decree of Pope ADRIAN, declared Patrician of Rome, which was then a title only inferior to that of Emperor, and gave him authority to confirm the election of the Popes, and grant the Italian biſhops the inveſtiture of their ſees. King CHARLES, to ſhew his gratitude to the Pope, and to confirm him in his intereſt, gave him a power of conſtituting Exarchs, or lieutenants over the provinces of Ancona, Bolognia, Mantua, Modena, Parma, Ferrara, &c. and conferred on him almoſt regal powers. This Prince afterwards conquered part of Spain, and reduced the Saxons in Germany to his obedience, planting the Chriſtian religion wherever he carried his arms, and founding ſchools and univerſities throughout his whole empire. Pope ADRIAN dying in the year 795, LEO the third was choſen to ſucceed him, and his election confirmed by CHARLES the Great, as Patrician of Rome; but an inſurrection being incited againſt this Pope by the nephews of Pope ADRIAN, who treated him barbarouſly, obliged him to fly into Germany to CHARLES the Great for protection, who thereupon marched again into Italy, and having condemned the offenders to death, their ſentence was changed into that of baniſhment at the interceſſion of the Pope. It was at this time, viz. on Chriſtmas-day, in the year of our Lord 800, that the Pope with the ſenate and people of Rome, agreed to confer the title of Roman Emperor on CHARLES the Great, and accordingly placed the imperial crown upon his head the moment he was at his devotions in St. PETER's church, and the people with loud acclamations ſaluted him Emperor of the Romans. The Pope alſo anointed him with the holy oils, acknowledging him to be his ſovereign, and the Emperor's ſtatue was afterwards ſet up in the publick places of Rome; but the Emperor choſe to reſide in Germany, leaving Italy in a great meaſure under the influence of the Pope, who knew how to make an advantage of his abſence, as his predeceſſors had done on the removing the imperial ſeat from Rome to Conſtantinople. CHARLES the Great having enjoyed the title of Emperor fourteen years, died in the year 814, and was buried at Aix la Chapelle, where he had founded a church, deſigning to have made that city the capital of his Empire, and the reſidence of his ſucceſſors. He was about ſeventy two years of age when he died, the epitaph on his tomb being no more than this, *Magni Caroli Regis Chriſtianiſſimi Romanorum Imperatoris corpus hoc ſepulchro conditum jacet.*

Lewis 814.

LUDOWICK, or LEWIS, King of Aquitain, for his piety ſurnamed the Godly, ſucceeded his father CHARLES the Great, being crowned Emperor by Pope STEPHEN IV. at Rheims in France. This Prince ordered the bible to be tranſlated into the Saxon tongue, and diſperſed among the common people. He had three ſons, viz. LOTHARIUS, LUDOWICK and PEPIN, by his firſt wife, who all rebelled againſt their father, and ſhut him up in a monaſtery; but being reſcued by his ſubjects from his confinement, he aſſembled an army and was marching againſt his ſon LOTHARIUS, when he died. He left alſo a ſon named CHARLES, by a ſecond venture.

Lotharius 840.

LOTHARIUS, the eldeſt ſon of LEWIS, ſucceeded his father, anno 840, in the whole Empire, and having reigned fifteen years, retired into a monaſtery at Treves, where he lived ſome time. It was in this reign that JOHN VIII. filled the papal chair, generally reported to be a woman, and called Pope JOAN.

Lewis II. 855.

Papal encroachments.

LUDOWICK, or LEWIS II. ſucceeded LOTHARIUS his father, upon his reſignation of the Empire, and retiring to a convent, anno 855. He conquered Sclavonia, and planted Chriſtianity in that country. It was in this reign the court of Rome aſſumed the power of electing their Pope, without the concurrence of their ſovereign: and ADRIAN II. was the firſt who was choſen without the Emperor's leave.

Charles II. 875.

CHARLES the Bald, ſon of LEWIS I. ſucceeded his nephew anno 875. He is ſaid to be a weak Prince, being perſuaded by Pope JOHN IX. to ſolemnize his coronation at Rome, and there receive the imperial ſcepter at his hands.

Lewis III. 878.

LUDOWICK, or LEWIS III. ſucceeded his father CHARLES, anno 878; and having reigned about a year, died, leaving his throne to his brother.

Charles III. 879.

CHARLES the Groſs, ſo named from his corpulency, who by the death of his two brothers became poſſeſſed of all Germany, France, and Italy. He was the firſt who added the year of our Lord to the year of his reign, in his grants and acts of ſtate. He made a diſadvantageous peace with the Normans, whereby he left them in poſſeſſion of that part of France which is now called Normandy; and having done ſome other mean unpopular things, was depoſed by his nobility, and died miſerably in a poor village in Swabia.

Arnolph 888.

ARNOLPH, natural ſon of the King of Bavaria, and Duke of Carinthia, was advanced to the throne by the ſame faction which depoſed his predeceſſor, anno 888. He defeated GUIDO and BERENGARIUS, who oppoſed him in Italy, and took Rome by ſtorm; but is ſaid to have been ſoon after poiſoned there by GUIDO's wife.

Lewis IV. 900.

LUDOWICK, or LEWIS IV. the ſon of ARNOLPH, was advanced to the imperial throne, on the death of his father. He was in perpetual war with the Hungarians, in which he had very ill ſucceſs, and great numbers of the German nobility loſt their lives. The Pope alſo ſet up another LUDOWICK againſt him in Italy, which created him a great deal of diſturbance.

Conrade 912.

The imperial crown after the death of LEWIS IV. was offered to OTTO, Duke of Saxony, by the German nobility, who being grown old, recommended to them CONRADE, Duke of Franconia, who was thereupon declared Emperor: but the very men who advanced him, not approving his conduct, attempted to dethrone him. CONRADE however ſecured his poſſeſſion, and on his death appointed HENRY the ſon of OTTO, Duke of Saxony, to ſucceed him.

Henry 919.

HENRY, ſurnamed AUCEPS, from the pleaſure he took in hawking, ſucceeded to the empire by virtue of his predeceſſor CONRADE's will, anno 919. The Pope it ſeems offered to conſecrate and anoint him Emperor; but he anſwered, that he did not think he ſtood in need of his confirmation. He was a brave Prince, defended the empire againſt the Hungarians and other foreign enemies, and compoſed the factions among his own people at home. He firſt fortified the great towns of Germany, and ordered every ninth peaſant to remove into the cities, and that a third part of the corn and hay about every city ſhould be aſſigned for the maintenance of the inhabitants. He alſo firſt inſtituted tilts and turnaments: and after a proſperous reign of ſeven years and a half, died of an apoplexy in Italy, much regretted by his German ſubjects.

Otho 936.

The Emperor aſſerts his power of appointing the Pope.

OTHO, the ſon of HENRY, ſucceeded his father, anno 936, being from his piety and happy conduct ſtiled the Great. He obliged HAROLD, King of Denmark, to acknowledge his dependance on the empire, and to introduce Chriſtianity into his dominions. He alſo ſubdued BOLESLAUS, King of Bohemia, and planted Chriſtianity in that country. On the other hand, he depoſed Pope JOHN XII. and placed LEO VIII. in his room, decreeing, that for the future the Pope ſhould be appointed only by the Emperor. In this reign the ceremony of chriſtening the bells of churches was firſt introduced.

Otho II. 973.

OTHO II. ſucceeded his father, and after a proſperous reign left the empire to his ſon,

Otho III. 984.

Emperors firſt elected.

OTHO III. an infant of ten years of age. He proved a very wiſe Prince, and was the firſt, according to ſome, who inſtituted the cuſtom of chooſing an Emperor by a majority of voices of ſeven electors. After a reign of eighteen years, he was poiſoned in Italy with a pair of gloves by his concubine on account of his refuſing to marry her, as he had promiſed.

Henry II. 1002.

HENRY, Duke of Bavaria, was choſen Emperor by the Electors, anno 1002, being crowned by the arch-biſhop of Mentz. He was ſucceſsful in his wars againſt the Saracens in Italy, whom he drove out of Apulia and Calabria, and vanquiſhed the Wendiſh forces, who had over-run great part of Germany. His piety procured him the title of the Holy, and his ſelf-denial was ſo great, that upon his death-bed, after he had been married above twenty years, he returned his Empreſs CUNIGUNDA to her relations, aſſuring them ſhe was a pure virgin, having by mutual conſent, on the day of their marriage, agreed they would never come together. But hiſtory relates that he was once ſo jealous of this lady, that he made her walk bare-foot over a red-hot grate to manifeſt her innocence; and if we may credit the writers of thoſe times, ſhe never flinched at it, or expreſſed the leaſt ſenſe of pain.

Conrade 1024.

CONRADE, a Prince deſcended from CHARLES the Great, ſucceeded to the empire anno 1024, being crowned at Aix la Chapelle, by the archbiſhop of Cologne. He was generally beloved by his ſubjects, and amongſt his laws he enacted, that no prince ſhould make war on any province of the empire on pain of death,

Henry III. 1039.

HENRY, the ſon of CONRADE, ſurnamed the Black, ſucceeded his father. He was ſucceſsful in his wars againſt the Bohemians and Hungarians; and in the year 1046, was called into Italy, to ſettle the peace of that country, which was diſturbed by three Popes, ſet up by contrary factions. He did not approve any of them, it ſeems, but ſet up a fourth, viz. CLEMENT II. and revived the decree, That the Pope ſhould be appointed by the Emperor.

Henry IV. 1056.

HENRY IV. an infant of ſix years of age, ſucceeded his father. Pope HILDIBRAND, called GREGORY VII. refuſed to acknowledge this Emperor for his ſovereign, and ſet up RODOLPH, Duke of Swabia, againſt him, who was content to accept the Imperial crown at the hands of the Pope: and though RODOLPH was defeated and killed in battle, the Pope ſo managed matters, that he procured HENRY to be depoſed by his ſubjects, who elected his ſon in his ſtead, after he had reigned fifty years, and fought ſixty-two general battels. And he was reduced to ſuch ſtraits before he died, that he begged a prebendary in the church of Spire, which he had founded himſelf, and was denied it by the biſhop.

Henry .V 1106.

HENRY V. the ſon of HENRY IV. ſucceeded his father in the empire, anno 1106; but was obliged to acknowledge the Pope's ſupremacy, and renounce all pretenſions to the inveſtiture of biſhopricks, which his anceſtors claimed. It is reported that at his coronation his ſword was melted by lightning, and the ſcabbard remained untouched by the fire. This Prince dying without iſſue,

Lotharius 1125.

LOTHARIUS, Duke of Saxony, was elected Emperor, and received his crown from the Pope. He revived the practice of the civil law in the empire.

Conrade 1138.

CONRADE, Duke of Swabia, ſon of the late Emperor's ſiſter, ſucceeded his uncle, but was oppoſed for ſome time by HENRY, Duke of Bavaria. In this reign a body of the cannon laws was compiled, and taught in the German univerſities.

Frederick 1152.

FREDERICK, Duke of Swabia, was elected Emperor upon the death of CONRADE, being ſurnamed BARBAROSSA, from his red beard. He was crowned by Pope ADRIAN, but during the papacy of Pope ALEXANDER III. he was excommunicated for oppoſing ſome encroachments of that ſee, and ſo humbled, that he was content to throw himſelf at the Pope's feet, and ſuffer him to tread on his neck. In the year 1187, this Emperor, RICHARD I. of England, and PHILIP II, of France, all went in perſon on an expedition to the Holy Land, where this unhappy Emperor was drowned in a river, as he was bathing himſelf, and was buried at Tyre.

Henry VI. 1190.

HENRY, the ſon of FREDERICK BARBAROSSA, ſucceeded his father. He died alſo in a voyage to the Holy Land, which the Pope had prevailed upon him to undertake.

Phillip 1198.

PHILIP, the brother of HENRY, ſucceeded him; but refuſing to acknowledge the Pope's ſupremacy, he was excommunicated, and OTHO, Duke of Brunſwick, ſet up againſt him by the Pope and the Electors. The whole empire was engaged on the one ſide or the other by theſe competitors in a bloody war, till PHILIP was treacherouſly aſſaſſinated in his bed.

Otho 1208.

OTHO, the ſurviving competitor by the death of PHILIP became poſſeſſed of the whole Empire, anno 1208; but he had not reigned four years before he was depoſed by the Pope and the Electors: and FREDERICK King of Sicily advanced to the imperial dignity by the ſame powers. OTHO being univerſally deſerted, died at BRUNSWICK in the year 1218.

Frederick II.

FREDERICK II. much admired by hiſtorians for his learning and wiſdom, and reſolution, was five times excommunicated by three Popes; but prevailed againſt Pope GREGORY IX. ſo far as to depoſe him from the papal chair. Theſe continual conteſts between him and the Popes gave riſe to thoſe two famous factions of GUELPHS and GIBELLINES; the former adhering to the Papal See, and the latter to the Emperors.

Guelphs and Gibellines.

An interregnum.

FREDERICK having reigned eight and thirty years, died, or, as is inſinuated by ſome, was poiſoned in Italy; after which the Empire remained in great confuſion for twenty years and upwards, there being no leſs than ſix competitors for the Imperial dignity, viz. (1.) HENRY Landgrave of Heſſe, who was killed at the ſiege of Ulm. (2.) CONRADE IV. FREDERICK's ſecond ſon, having been elected King of the Romans in the year 1254, who was poiſoned by his phyſicians, after he had ſtyled himſelf Emperor about three years. (3.) MANFRED. (4.) WILLIAM Earl of Holland, declared King of the Romans by the Pope in oppoſition to FREDERICK II. and was afterwards aſſaſſinated by the Friſians. (5.) ALPHONSUS King of Caſtile. And (6.) RICHARD Earl of Cornwal, brother to HENRY III. of England, who by his money is ſuppoſed to have gained the voices of ſome of the Electors; but he was at length deſerted by thoſe who ſet him up; and after ſix years conteſt was obliged to return to England.

Rodolph 1273. Riſe of the Auſtrian family.

RODOLPH Earl of Hapſburg, was at length advanced to the Imperial dignity, anno 1273, by the unanimous conſent of all the Electors, and confirmed by the Pope. This Prince firſt raiſed the Auſtrian family, by creating his ſon ALBERT Archduke of Auſtria, who was afterwards Emperor.

Adolph 1292.

ADOLPH Earl of Naſſau, was declared Emperor on the death of RODOLPH, anno 1292; but ſerving with his troops as mercenaries in the army of EDWARD I. of England againſt France, he ſo diſguſted the Electors of the empire, that they made choice of ALBERT the ſon of RODOLPH for their ſovereign, who defeated ADOLPH in a pitched battle, and killed him with his own hand.

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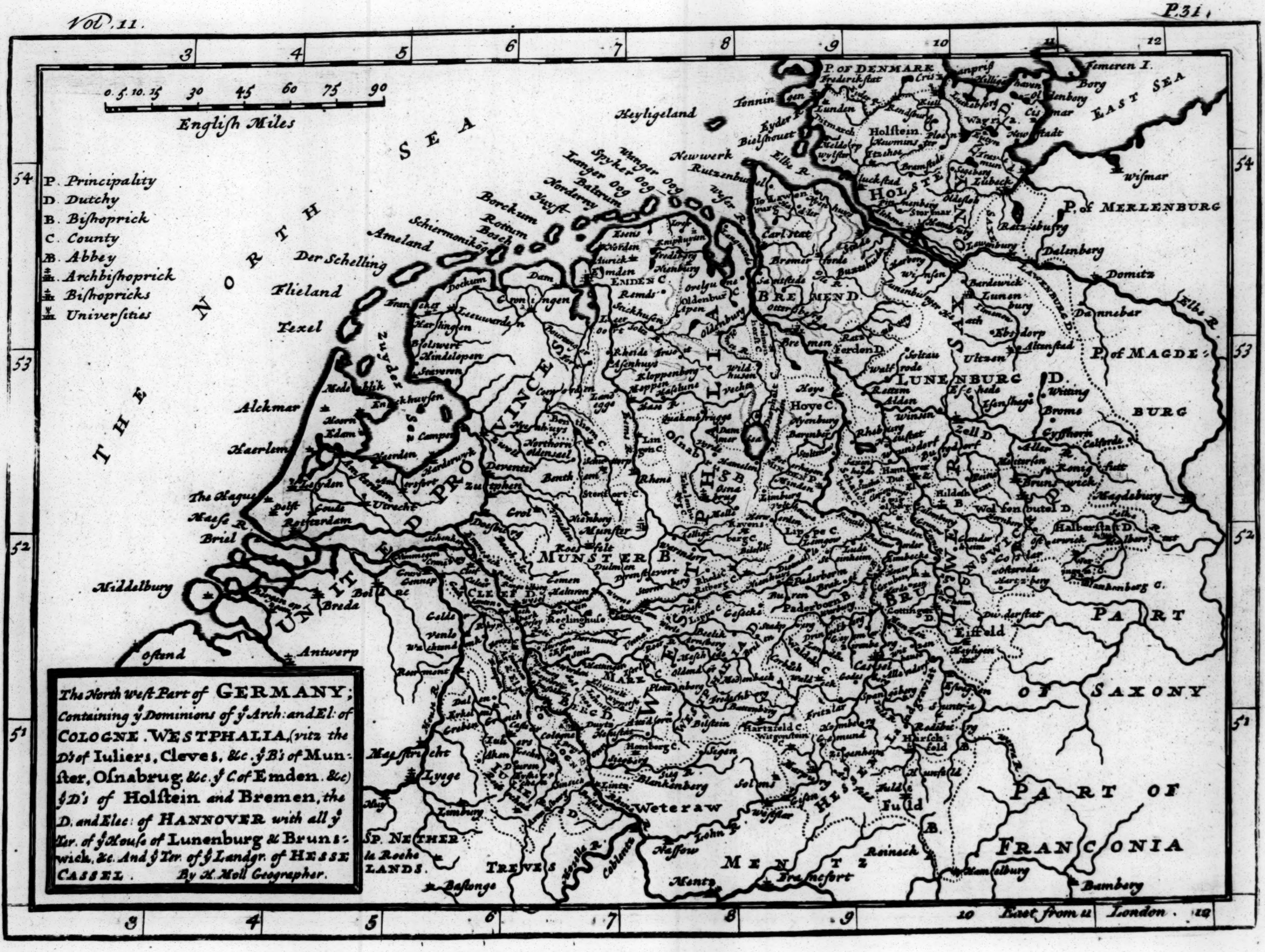

The North West Part of GERMANY; Containing ye Dominions of ye Arch: and El: of COLOGNE. WESTPHALIA, (vitz the D's of Iuliers, Cleves, &c. ye B's of Munſter, Oſnabrug. &c. ye C. of Emden. &c) ye D's of Holſtein and Bremen, the D. and Elec: of HANNOVER with all ye Ter. of ye House of Lunenburg & Brunswick, &c. And ye Ter. of ye Landgr. of HESSE CASSEL. By H. Moll Geographer.

0 5 10 15 30 45 60 75 90
English Miles
P. Principality
D. Dutchy
B. Biſhoprick
C. County
B. Abbey
Archbiſhoprick
Biſhopricks
Univerſities
THE NORTH SEA
EAST SEA
P. OF DENMARK
P. of MERLENBURG
HOLSTEIN
BREMEN D.
LUNENBURG D.
P. of MAGDEBURG
MUNSTER B.
WESTPHALIA
UNITED PROVINCES
PART OF SAXONY
PART OF FRANCONIA
HESSE
MENTZ
TREVES
SP. NETHERLANDS
Weteraw
Heyligeland
Texel
Flieland
Der Schelling
Ameland
Schiermonikoog
Borckum
Juyst
Norderney
Baltrum
Langer oog
Spyker oog
Wanger oog
Newwerk
Femeren I.
Zuyder Sea
Alckmar
Haerlem
The Hague
Briel
Maese R.
Middelburg
Ostend
Antwerp
Breda
Groningen
Emden
Oldenburg
Bremen
Hamburg
Lubeck
Wismar
Domitz
Elbe R.
Weser R.
Magdeburg
Brunswick
Hannover
Osnabrug
Paderborn
Cassel
Gottingen
Fuld
Cologne
Mastricht
Lyege
Bastonge
Francfort
Mentz
Bamberg
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54
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51
East from London

Albert. 1298.

Albert the ſon of Rodolph, was crowned Emperor anno 1298, and confirmed by the Pope: he made his ſon Rodolph King of Bohemia, and attempted to reduce Hungary in vain; he was murdered by his nephew and three other aſſaſſins.

Henry VII. 1308.

Henry Earl of Luxemburg, was elected Emperor on the death of Albert, anno 1308. He is celebrated for his wiſdom and valour, as well as for his temper and extraordinary devotion. Neither proſperity nor adverſity could move him, it is ſaid; and he is reported to be ſo devout, that he would ſpend whole nights in prayer before a crucifix, and receive the ſacrament every day; but was poiſoned at length by a Franciſcan monk with the conſecrated elements: which the Emperor ſoon perceiving, ordered the friar to get out of the way leſt he ſhould be apprehended; which the villain neglecting, was afterwards flea'd alive. After this Prince's murder there happened a terrible famine in Germany, which ſome pious people looked upon as a judgment on that country: and relate ſuch incredible things of parents eating their children, and children their parents, as would ſhock a very forward believer.

Ludowick 1318.

Ludowick Duke of Bavaria, after an interregnum of ſome years, was choſen Emperor by a majority of the Electors; but Frederick Duke of Auſtria, ſon of the late Emperor Albert, was ſet up by a contrary faction: Frederick's forces being defeated, Ludowick remained ſole Emperor. He conſtantly oppoſed the Papal encroachments, depoſed Pope John XXII. and placed Nicholas V. in his room; deſpiſing the papal excommunications, which were from time to time thundred out againſt him.

Charles IV. 1346.

Charles IV. ſon of John King of Bohemia, was elected Emperor on the death of Ludowick, anno 1346. He procured a majority of voices, it is ſaid, by his money: and there being three Princes who pretended to the Imperial dignity during his reign, he bought off their adherents, and prevented their appearing in arms againſt him. He was a learned prudent Prince; and the contriver of the *Aurea Bulla*, which contains a regiſter of the rites and ceremonies to be obſerved at the election of an Emperor.

Wenceſlaus. 1378.

Wenceslaus the fourth ſon of Charles, at the deſire of his father ſucceeded to the Empire; but being a diſſolute cruel Prince, was depoſed after he had reigned two and twenty years.

Frederick.

Frederick Duke of Brunſwick, being elected in the room of Wenceſlaus, was aſſaſſinated by Henry Count Waldeck, as he came from the place of election.

Rupert 1400.

Rupert, Elector Palatine of the Rhine, was immediately after elected Emperor anno 1400. He was eſteemed a brave Prince, and having reigned about ten years, died in peace, and was buried at Spire.

Jodocus 1410.

Jodocus Barbatus, Marquiſs of Moravia, and nephew to the Emperor Charles IV. ſucceeded Rupert, and reigned nine months: after whom

Sigiſmond 1411.

Sigismond King of Hungary and Bohemia, and brother to the Emperor Wenceslaus, was unanimouſly choſen Emperor by the Electors; and is repreſented by the catholick hiſtorians, as a brave Prince, of uncommon piety and learning; but it was he that ſuffered John Huss, and Jerom of Prague, to be condemned as hereticks by the council of Conſtance, and afterwards burnt, notwithſtanding he had granted them a paſſport, and was engaged in honour and conſcience for their ſafe return to their country; which ſo exaſperated the Huſſites of Bohemia, that they raiſed a formidable army; and under the conduct of their General Ziſca, defeated his forces in fourteen general battles, and maintained the war againſt him with advantage till his death.

Frederick IV. 1440.

Frederick IV. Duke of Auſtria, and ſon-in-law to the Emperor Sigismond, was unanimouſly choſen Emperor upon the death of his father, and was crowned at Rome by Pope Nicholas V. He made it his buſineſs to procure peace in his dominions; and by his marriage with Leonora the daughter of Alphonsus King of Portugal, the houſes of Spain and Auſtria came to be united. He reigned fifty-three years, being longer than any of his predeceſſors ſat on the imperial throne.

Maximilian 1493.

Maximilian ſucceeded his father Frederick, anno 1493, having been elected King of the Romans in the year 1486. He married Mary the daughter and heireſs of Charles Duke of Burgundy; whereby all the territories belonging to that Duke were transferred to the houſe of Auſtria. He was engaged in perpetual wars; and for five years before his death had his coffin carried with him in all his expeditions, not ſo much to put him in mind of his mortality, as ſome have ſuggeſted, as to conceal ſome extraordinary treaſure that was locked up in it.

Charles V. 1519.

Charles V. ſurnamed the Great, Archduke of Auſtria, ſon to Philip King of Spain, and grandſon of Maximilian, was next elected Emperor, anno 1519; but Francis the firſt, King of France, being his competitor, and ſpending a great deal of money among the Electors, delayed the choice, and cauſed an interregnum of ſix months. He was crowned at Aix la Chapelle, on the 21ſt of Auguſt 1520. He procured Luther's doctrine to be condemned, but did not meddle with his perſon: and it was in this reign that the diſciples of Luther obtained the name of Proteſtants, from their proteſting againſt a decree of the imperial diet, in favour of the Catholicks. This prince is reported to have been victorious in ſeventy battles. He had the Pope and the French King his priſoners at the ſame time; and carried his arms into Africa, where he conquered the kingdom of Tunis: he ſubdued the Proteſtant princes who were engaged in the Smalcaldick league; taking the Elector of Saxony and the Prince of Heſſe priſoners, and drove the Turk from the ſiege of Vienna. And after a proſperous reign of eight and thirty years, reſigned his empire to his brother Ferdinand; retiring into a convent in Spain, where he declared he had more ſatisfaction in one day, than in all the triumphs of his preceding life; and in this retirement he died, about two years after his reſignation.

Proteſtants firſt ſo called.

Ferdinand I. 1558.

Ferdinand I. was declared Emperor on the reſignation of his brother, by the unanimous conſent of the Electors; but Pope Pius IV. refuſed to confirm him, becauſe neither the reſignation of Charles V. nor the election of Ferdinand were done with his concurrence. He was a peaceful prince; and uſed to aſſign one part of the day to hear the complaints of his meaneſt ſubjects; and was eſteemed a great favourer of the Proteſtants.

Maximilian II. 1564.

Maximilian II. his ſon ſucceeded him, being at that time King of Bohemia, and afterwards King of Hungary. He was as indulgent to the Proteſtants as his father, which occaſioned his being called by ſome the Lutheran Emperor.

Rodolph 1576.

Rodolph ſucceeded his father Maximilian in the empire, being elected as uſual. He applied himſelf to the ſtudy of moſt arts and ſciences, and eſpecially the mathematicks, and entertained the famous Tycho Brahe in his court; but was eſteemed a better ſcholar than a governor.

Matthias, 1612.

Matthias, the brother of Rodolph, King of Hungary and Bohemia, ſucceeded him, anno 1612. He was very ſevere upon the Proteſtants, which occaſioned an inſurrection in Bohemia; and at Prague two of his Miniſters were thrown out of the caſtle-windows, as has been mentioned already in the deſcription of Bohemia. He died without iſſue, having reigned ſeven years; and was ſucceeded by

Ferdinand II. 1619.

Ferdinand of Gratz, Archduke of Auſtria, grandſon to Ferdinand I. anno 1619. The Bohemians apprehending he would be as ſevere upon the Proteſtants as his predeceſſor, offered the crown of Bohemia to Frederick V. Count Palatine of the Rhine; though they had before acknowledged Ferdinand for their King; which ſo incenſed the Emperor, that he determined the deſtruction of the Proteſtants: whereupon followed a bloody war in Germany, which laſted near thirty years; but was ended by the treaty of Weſtphalia, in the reign of his ſon; whereby the Proteſtants were ſecured in their religious and civil rights.

Ferdinand III. 1637.

Ferdinand III. being elected King of the Romans the year before, ſucceeded his father, anno 1637. He carried on the war his father had begun, and obtained a great victory over the Proteſtants at Ratiſbon, and broke the power of the Swedes, who had been long victorious in Germany; but being afterwards deſerted by moſt of the Princes of the Empire, was obliged to enter into a treaty with them, and allow them honourable terms. The miniſters of the Catholick Princes reſiding at Munſter during this treaty, and the Proteſtant miniſters at Oſnabrug, this is ſometimes called the peace of Munſter, and at others the peace of Oſnabrug: it is alſo ſometimes called the treaty of Weſtphalia, from it's being concluded in that circle. In the year 1653, the Emperor procured his eldeſt ſon Ferdinand to be elected King of the Romans, and crowned; but this Prince dying within a year afterwards, his father ſurvived him, and he never arrived at the imperial dignity.

Leopold, 1658.

Articles ſworn to at his acceſſion.

Leopold, the only ſurviving ſon of Ferdinand III. was elected Emperor on the eighth of July 1658, after an interregnum of eight months, and crowned at Francfort the twenty-ſecond day of the ſame month. At the time of his election he ſigned and executed certain articles of agreement, made between his ſaid Imperial Majeſty and the Electors of the Empire, called the Capitulations of the Emperor Leopold: whereby he obliged himſelf to protect Chriſtendom, the ſee of Rome, and the Pope, to promote peace in the empire, and do juſtice without exception, according to the laws: and alſo to protect the Electors of Saxony, Brandenburgh, Palatine, and all their ſubjects of the Proteſtant Religion, according to the treaty of Oſnabrug and Munſter. He obliged himſelf alſo to obſerve the Imperial conſtitutions, and acts of the diet; and declares he will not ſuffer any thing to be publiſhed againſt the peace of religion, concluded in the treaty of Weſtphalia. That he will protect the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire in the enjoyment of their rights and privileges. That the ambaſſadors of the Electors ſhall take place of thoſe ſent from any Republick. That he will make no alliance with foreign ſtates, or engage in any war without the conſent of the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire; or alienate any thing which belongs to the Empire without the conſent of the Electors. And it is thereby declared, That any ſtate or ſubject of the Empire may engage in foreign wars, provided they are not againſt the Empire, or any of it's members. And the Emperor further declares, That he will not pretend to any hereditary right of ſucceſſion to the Imperial dignity; but leave the Electors their full right of electing a King of the Romans, according to the golden bull, even during the Emperor's life, with or without his conſent. And that he will employ none in his councils, or in any office in the Empire, but native Germans. But the moſt extraordinary article inſerted in this Pacta Conventa, as it may be called, was, That he ſhould afford Spain no aſſiſtance againſt France.

War with Sweden.

Peace of Oliva, 1660.

War with the Turks and Hungarians, 1663.

At the acceſſion of the Emperor Leopold, Charles Gustavus, King of Sweden, was become very terrible to the German Princes, having in a manner conquered Poland, and made a great progreſs in the north of Germany; whereupon the new Emperor entered into a confederacy with Denmark, Brandenburgh, and Poland, and carried on the war againſt Sweden with various fortune, till the peace of Oliva put an end to it in the year 1660. In the year 1663 he entered into a war with the Turk, in which he loſt the city of Newhauſel. The Emperor's forces however having defeated ſeveral great bodies of the Turks afterwards, a truce was concluded between the two empires in the year 1664, for twenty years. The Hungarians ſtill continued reſtleſs, and exerciſed the Emperor with continual conſpiracies againſt his government; which they were induced to, 'tis ſaid, on account of the invaſion of their religious and civil rights; and in the year 1669, they made an offer to the Grand Seignior of their country, in order to obtain his protection againſt his Imperial Majeſty: but the Turks being then engaged in the ſiege of Candia, neglected the propoſal; and the Hungarians were left to defend themſelves againſt their exaſperated Prince as well as they could: and indeed they were grown ſo formidable, that the Emperor thought fit to ſend that great General, the Duke of Lorrain, againſt them, at the head of a powerful army, in the year 1671; who reduced many of the revolted cities, and made the moſt conſiderable leaders of the malecontents priſoners; amongſt whom were the Count Serini, Frangapani, and Nadasti, who were all ſoon after beheaded: and the Emperor hoping to root the Proteſtant religion out of the kingdom at once, ſent down the moſt bigotted Roman Catholick governors and judges amongſt them, who exerciſed all manner of cruelties upon the miſerable inhabitants; which made many of them fly into the Grand Seignior's dominions, and again implore his aſſiſtance. But the Emperor, being ſoon made ſenſible of the ill conſequences of ſuch ſeverities, directed his miniſters to proceed with more moderation.

War with France, 1672.

In the year 1672 and 1673, the French having over-run good part of Holland and Flanders, and committed great ravages in the Palatinate on the frontiers of Germany, the Emperor entered into a confederacy with Spain and the States General againſt them, and ſent an army of forty thouſand men under the command of General Montecuculi to the aſſiſtance of the Dutch, who were in ſome danger of being conquered by

France at this Time, if this ſeaſonable relief had not in a great meaſure prevented it. The war however was carried on for ſome years with various ſucceſs, till 1678, when a peace was concluded at Nimeguen, between the contending powers.

Peace of Nimeguen, 1678.

The French aſſiſt the Hungarians.

The French having ſent four thouſand men to the aſſiſtance of the Hungarians the preceding year, who joined Count TECKELI, the malecontents carried all before them in that country; but the Emperor making them an offer to confirm them in all their religious and civil rights upon their returning to their duty, moſt part of the Hungarians laid down their arms; and a general diet or aſſembly of the States being held, the Emperor paſſed ſome acts very advantageous to the Proteſtants. Count TECKELI however could not be prevailed on to ſubmit himſelf, the Turk having engaged to make him Sovereign of Hungary.

Surprize Straſburg, 1680.

The French King alſo being aſſured of the Grand Signior's deſign to break with the Emperor, ſurprized Straſburg, the moſt conſiderable town on the frontiers of Germany towards France, in the year 1680, and entered into an alliance with Count TECKELI, who having married the Princeſs RAGOTSKI, and thereby gotten poſſeſſion of the places that depended on that family, raiſed an army of thirty or forty thouſand men, with which he joined the Turks; and in the year 1683, the Port declared war againſt the Emperor. The Imperial court, apprehending the ſtorm that was coming, ſent embaſſies to the Princes of Chriſtendom to deſire their aſſiſtance againſt the common enemy: and moſt of them contributed ſomething, but none of them ſo largely as Pope INNOCENT XI. and JOHN King of Poland. TECKELI in the mean time made himſelf maſter of ſeveral great towns in Hungary, and began to ſtile himſelf Sovereign of the country, coining money in his own name; againſt whom a great army was ſent under the command of the Duke of Lorrain. But while the Imperial troops were endeavouring to reduce the revolted places in Hungary, the Grand Vizier, CARA MUSTAPHA, having joined Count TECKELI, on a ſudden marched into Auſtria, and laid ſiege to Vienna; the Emperor having but juſt time to retire from the city with his court before it was inveſted.

Vienna beſieged, 1683.

The Turks ſat down before the town on the 14th of July, 1683, and carried on the ſiege with their uſual fury for two months, when the gariſon was ſo weakened and haraſſed by continual attacks, that Vienna was almoſt given over for loſt; and the preſervation of it is generally aſcribed to the vigilance and conduct of the governor, Count STAREMBERG. But the Duke of Lorrain, the Imperial General, being at length joined by the Elector of Saxony with ten thouſand men, and after him by JOHN SOBIESKI, King of Poland, with twenty-four thouſand horſe, came to a reſolution to give the enemy battle. The right wing of the Imperialiſts was commanded by the King of Poland, the left by the Duke of Lorrain, and the center by the Electors of Bavaria and Saxony and Prince WALDECK; and in this order they marched to attack the Infidels, TECKELI with his troops being at this time abſent upon ſome expedition, which made their work much the eaſier: and after about three hours obſtinate reſiſtance, they forced the Turkiſh camp, whereupon the enemy's horſe fled, leaving their foot to the mercy of the victorious Chriſtians, and the ſiege was happily raiſed on the twelfth day of September. The Chriſtians afterwards purſued the flying enemy, drove the Turks out of the iſland of Schut, and retook the fortreſs of Gran, and ſeveral other places from the Infidels.

The ſiege raiſed.

The Imperialiſts were ſucceſsful both againſt the Turks and Hungarians the following years, 1684 and 1685, defeating Count TECKELI, and taking in ſeveral towns; but were forced to raiſe the ſiege of Buda, after they had lain before it ſome time. In the year 1686, the Chriſtians beſieged it with better ſucceſs, taking the city by ſtorm. This is one of the moſt famous ſieges in our memory, at which many noble voluntiers aſſiſted from moſt of the kingdoms in Europe. The following year the Emperor reduced the greateſt part of Hungary under his obedience; and cauſed his eldeſt ſon, the Arch-duke JOSEPH, to be crowned King at Preſburg. He alſo procured the conſent of the States, that this kingdom ſhould be no more elective but hereditary. In the year 1688, the Imperialiſts, under the conduct of the Duke of Bavaria, took Belgrade, which put the Turks into the utmoſt conſternation; there being no place of any conſiderable ſtrength between that city and Conſtantinople. In the mean time the French continued to ravage the Palatinate, burning and plundering all the towns and villages between Heidelburg and Frankfort; whereupon a grand confederacy was formed againſt France, by the Emperor, Spain, England, Holland, Savoy, and ſeveral of the German Princes, wherein it was agreed, "That they would never make peace with LEWIS XIV. until he had made reparation to the holy ſee for all damages done to it; and till he had annulled and made void all his infamous proceedings againſt the holy father INNOCENT XI. Nor till he had reſtored to each party all he had taken from them ſince the peace of Munſter. Nor till he had reſtored to the Proteſtants of France all their poſſeſſions and goods, and an entire liberty of conſcience. Nor until he had reſtored the eſtates of the kingdom of France to their ancient liberties and privileges." Upon the concluſion of which alliance the war was carried on with all imaginable vigour, both upon the Rhine, and in Flanders.

Buda taken, 1686.

Hungary made an hereditary kingdom.

Belgrade taken, 1688.

Confederacy againſt France, An. 1699.

Conditions of it.

War in Turky.

Prince LEWIS of Baden, who commanded on the frontiers of Turky, on the Duke of Lorrain's being ſent to make head againſt the French upon the Rhine, was very ſucceſsful in his firſt campaign, defeating the Turks in a general battle near Patochin, and afterwards made himſelf maſter of the cities of Niſſa and Widdin. In the year 1690, the Emperor prevailed with the Electors to chuſe his eldeſt ſon JOSEPH (who was already King of Hungary) to be King of the Romans.

King of the Romans choſen.

Belgrade taken by the Turks, 1690.

The year 1690 proved very unfortunate to the Imperialiſts; for they loſt not only Widdin and Niſſa, but Belgrade alſo was taken by ſtorm, on blowing up a magazine, which threw down great part of the wall. Count TECKELI, being alſo made Prince of Tranſilvania by the Grand Signior, routed a body of the Imperialiſts, and took poſſeſſion of that country; though he was forced to relinquiſh it before the year came about. The following year Prince LEWIS of Baden had the good fortune to defeat the Turks in a general battle, near Salankamen, wherein the Grand Vizier CUPERLI was killed; and afterwards took Peterwaradin: but laying ſiege to Belgrade, in the year 1693, the Turks made ſo gallant a defence, that they were forced to riſe from before it. Tranſilvania was again invaded by the Turks, in the year 1695, where the Imperial General VETERANI was defeated and taken priſoner; and afterwards

Battle of Salankamen.

wards beheaded in cool blood by the barbarous Turk, contrary to all rules of war. There happened afterwards a conſiderable action between the Turks and Imperialiſts near Temeſwaer, where both claimed the victory, but neither party had much reaſon to boaſt.

Battle of Zenta.

The laſt great battle which was fought between the Imperialiſts and the Turks in this war, was in the year 1697, near Zenta in Hungary, in which Prince EUGENE of Savoy commanded the Chriſtians, and obtained a compleat victory, the Turks loſing thirty thouſand men, among whom was the Grand Vizier, with their camp, cannon, and an incredible quantity of ammunition and proviſion. The ſame year the Elector of Saxony, who commanded the Imperialiſts at the battle of Temeſwaer, was advanced to the crown of Poland, to the mortification of the French, who ſet up the Prince of Conti againſt him;

Peace of Ryſwick, 1697.

and perhaps this might have ſome influence on the treaty of Ryſwick, which was concluded at this time between the confederates and France: though ſurely no articles could be more different than theſe were from thoſe the allies propoſed to themſelves at the beginning of the war; for there they engage that they will not make peace with France till the French Proteſtants are reſtored to their religious and civil rights, and in this peace thoſe Proteſtants are not ſo much as mentioned; but on the contrary, Popery is eſtabliſhed in the Palatinate, and the poor Proteſtants left to the mercy of their enemies.

Subſtance of it.

The ſubſtance of the other articles were, That France ſhould reſtore to Spain, Barcelona, Roſes, Gironne in Catalonia, and Luxemburg, Mons, and Charleroy, and all other towns that had been taken by the French in the Low-Countries, or in America: That the Elector Palatine ſhould be reſtored to his territories, Dinant reſtored to Liege, and Fort Kiel, Friburg, Starfort, Old Briſac, and Philipſburg reſtored to the empire; but the important city of Straſburg was reſigned to France; the caſtles of Traerbach, Ebrenburgh, Kirnburgh, and the fortreſs of Montroyal to be demoliſhed and reſtored to their reſpective owners; and Lorrain was to be reſtored to it's Duke.

Truce of Carlowitz, 1698.

The following year, 1698, a treaty was ſet on foot between Germany and Turky, in which the Engliſh and Dutch were admitted mediators; and a truce was concluded for twenty-five years between the two empires, at Carlowitz, on the twenty-ſixth of January, 1698-9, whereby all Tranſilvania was confirmed to the Emperor, and the province of Temeſwaer to the Grand Signior; and for the reſt, each party was to keep what was in their reſpective poſſeſſions, and the Roman Catholicks in the Turkiſh dominions were to have the free exerciſe of their religion.

Treaty of Partition, 1699.

About this time the Engliſh, French, and Hollander entered into a treaty for the partition of the Spaniſh dominions between the Arch-duke CHARLES and the Dauphin of France, in caſe CHARLES II. King of Spain ſhould happen to die; and this they did without the conſent of the Auſtrian family, who looked upon themſelves to have an undoubted right to the whole Spaniſh monarchy; and the Emperor being deſired to come into the ſaid treaty, after it was concluded, rejected the propoſal with ſome indignation.

King of Spain dies, 1700.

Soon after the ſigning of the partition treaty, viz. on the firſt of November 1700, died CHARLES II. King of Spain; and by his will, (at leaſt as the French King pretended) appointed the Duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the Dauphin of France, to ſucceed him in all his dominions. And LEWIS XIV. without any regard to the treaty of partition ſo lately made, immediately took poſſeſſion of the Spaniſh territories in Spain, Italy, and the Low-Countries;

Duke of Anjou ſucceeds him.

and declared his grandſon, the Duke of Anjou, King of Spain, and the dominions thereto belonging. And his title to the ſame was acknowledged even by England and Holland; nay, King WILLIAM and the States General wrote letters to the Duke of Anjou, congratulating his acceſſion: and he was crowned at Madrid the 14th of April 1701.

Oppoſed by the Emperor.

The Imperialiſts under the command of Prince EUGENE thereupon marched into Italy this ſummer with an army of forty thouſand men, in order to make good his Imperial Majeſty's pretenſions to the Spaniſh territories there; and were very ſucceſsful in their firſt attempts.

Another alliance formed againſt France, 1701, on the death of King James II.

JAMES II. King of England, dying on the 6th of September 1701, at St. Germains in France, and the French King cauſing his ſon to be proclaimed King of England by the name of JAMES III. King WILLIAM entered into an alliance with the Emperor and the Dutch againſt France: whereby it was agreed, that ſatisfaction ſhould be procured to the Emperor for his pretenſions upon Spain; and that England and Holland ſhould be ſecured in their dominions and commerce. And if this could not be obtained in a peaceable way within the ſpace of two months from the date of the treaty (7th September 1701,) that then they ſhould aſſiſt each other with all their forces to accompliſh it. And in order to this, they ſhould endeavour to conquer the Spaniſh Netherlands for a barrier for the Dutch: and the Dutchy of Milan, the Kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, and the Spaniſh places on the coaſt of Tuſcany for the Emperor: And the Engliſh and Dutch were to poſſeſs ſuch places as they ſhould take from the Spaniards in the Indies. And it was further agreed, that none of the parties ſhould make peace without the conſent of the other: nor until they had obtained ſatisfaction for the Emperor, and a ſecurity for the dominions and trade of the Engliſh and Dutch, and procured, that the crowns of France and Spain ſhould never be united under the ſame Prince, and the French excluded from the trade of the Weſt-Indies.

Succeſs of the Imperialiſts in Italy.

The Imperialiſts in the mean time had made a conſiderable progreſs in Italy, and among other actions, Prince EUGENE on the firſt of February 1701, N. S. ſurprized the French General Marſhal VILLEROY in his bed at Cremona, having diſcovered a way into the town by a ſubterraneous paſſage.

King William dies the 8th of March, 1701-2.

While the allies were preparing to ſecond the Emperor in his pretenſions to the Spaniſh monarchy, King WILLIAM died on the 8th of March 170½. to the great mortification of the confederates: but his ſucceſſor Queen ANNE, declaring that ſhe would carry on the preparations againſt France, and ſupport the allies, their hopes begun to revive, and all things went on in the ſame channel as in the former reign.

War declared againſt France.

Her Britiſh Majeſty formally declared war againſt France on the fourth of May 1702; and having conſtituted the Earl of Marlborough General of her forces in the Low Countries, the Dutch alſo gave him the command of their troops; and in his firſt campaign he obliged the French to quit the Spaniſh Guelderland. The grand fleet alſo ſailed to Spain, with ten thouſand land forces on board under the command of the Duke of Ormond, and made a deſcent near Cadiz, inviting the Spaniards to join them, and aſſert the title of the houſe of Auſtria: but ſome diſorders the Engliſh had committed, with the natural averſion of the Spaniards for hereticks, rendered the attempt unſucceſsful; and the Britiſh troops were obliged to re-imbarque without effecting any thing conſiderable. However they had the good fortune, in their return home, to meet with the Spaniſh galeons at Vigo, which made ſome amends for their diſappointment at Cadiz.

Battle of Luzara.

Landau taken.

Progreſs of the allies in Flanders.

A great battle was fought this ſummer near Luzara in Italy, between the French and Imperialiſts on the 15th of Auguſt N. S. and great was the ſlaughter on both ſides; but it is a doubt at this day which ſide had the victory. The Imperialiſts however, had the good fortune to make themſelves maſters of Landau in Germany this campaign; and the Earl of Marlborough took Venloe, and afterwards Ruremond and Stevenſwaert upon the Meuſe: Marſhal Boufflers alſo abandoning the city of Liege on the approach of the confederates, the Earl of Marlborough took poſſeſſion of it, and on the 23d of October took the citadel by ſtorm: whereupon the Chartreuſe of Liege ſurrendred to the allies on the 29th of the ſame inſtant. And thus ended the campaign of 1702, when the Earl of Marlborough, as he was returning by water from the confederate army to Holland, was made priſoner by a French party from Guelder; but none of the party knowing him, and the Earl producing a French paſs, after they had plundered the boat, he was diſmiſſed, and ſuffered to proceed in his paſſage. At his return to England he was created Duke of Marlborough: and it was reſolved by the parliament, that the Engliſh forces under his command in Flanders ſhould be increaſed to fifty thouſand men.

Duke of Bavaria joins the French, 1703.

Towns taken this campaign.

Prince of Heſſe defeated.

The following campaign, anno 1703, the Duke of Bavaria having declared for France, was joined by a body of French troops under the command of Marſhal Villars; and made himſelf maſter of the city of Ratiſbon, where the diet of the Empire was aſſembled. The Elector afterwards invaded Tyrol, in order to open a communication with the French in Italy; but the Imperialiſts invading Bavaria at the ſame time, he was obliged to retire to defend his own country; but afterwards made himſelf maſter of Augſburg. On the other ſide, the confederates in the Low Countries beſieged Bonn, and took it, and afterwards Huy, Limburgh and Guelder. The French under the command of the Duke of Burgundy inveſted Old Briſac, and took it; after which Marſhal Tallard ſet down before Landau, and the Prince of Heſſe being detached from the Netherlands to endeavour the relief of that town, was ſurprized by Tallard and defeated, ſoon after which the place ſurrendered.

Battle of Eckeren.

The confederate forces under the command of General Opdam in Flanders, alſo were ſurprized by Boufflers this campaign near Eckeren, on the 30th of June N. S. and Opdam, being cut off from his army, fled to Breda, giving all for loſt; but the other Generals maintaining their ground, there was an incredible ſlaughter on both ſides; till night came on, when the French thought fit to retire.

King of Portugal comes into the alliance.

Archduke Charles declared King of Spain.

This year the King of Portugal came into the grand alliance; and the Emperor and the King of the Romans reſigned their right in the dominions of Spain to the Archduke CHARLES; who was thereupon declared King of Spain by the name of CHARLES III. and on the 26th of December his Catholick Majeſty arrived in England, and after having been magnificently entertained by the court at Windſor, he continued his voyage to Portugal, under the convoy of an Engliſh ſquadron of men of war.

Duke of Savoy comes into the alliance.

The ſame year the Duke of Savoy coming into the grand alliance, the Duke of Vendoſme, who commanded the French in Italy, having ſome intimation of his deſign, made ſix thouſand of his troops priſoners; which his Royal Highneſs retaliated by taking the French ambaſſador into cuſtody, and all the ſubjects of France in his dominions. About the ſame time the Marquis of Viſconti joined the Duke of Savoy with fifteen hundred German horſe, and afterwards General Staremberg with ſixteen thouſand Imperialiſts more, having marched two hundred miles, and ſkirmiſhed every day with the French, who were ſuperior to him in numbers; and it is to the conduct of this General, that the allies were in a great meaſure obliged for their future ſucceſs on that ſide: for if the Duke of Savoy had not been ſupported in this critical juncture, all Italy had been loſt. And thus ended the Year 1703.

Duke of Marlbro's march to the Danube, 1704.

Attack of Donawert.

Battle of Hochſtet.

Landau ſurrendred.

Bavaria yielded to the Imperialiſts.

The Imperial Miniſter, Count Wratiſlaw, having repreſented to her Britannick Majeſty the diſtreſs the Empire was reduced to by the French and Bavarians, and a freſh inſurrection of the Hungarian malecontents, the Duke of Marlborough was detached from the Netherlands with a formidable army to aſſiſt the Imperialiſts on the Danube, whither he began his march the middle of May 1704; and having joined Prince LEWIS of Baden, attacked the Bavarian intrenchments near Donawert on the 2d of July, and carried them after a ſharp diſpute, wherein many thouſands were killed on both ſides. The allies immediately after took poſſeſſion of Donawert, and entring the Duke of Bavaria's country, he was obliged to retire under the cannon of Augſburg, where an accommodation was propoſed to his Electoral Highneſs by the confederate Generals, and in a manner agreed to: but the Elector underſtanding that Marſhal Tallard, with a ſtrong body of French troops, had paſſed the Black Foreſt, and was ready to join him, broke off the treaty abruptly; which provoked the Duke of Marlborough to detach thirty ſquadrons of horſe to burn and deſtroy the country of Bavaria to the very walls of his capital city of Munich. On the 13th of Auguſt N. S. Prince EUGENE and the Duke of Marlborough engaged the French and Bavarians at Hochſtet, where they obtained a compleat victory, near twenty thouſand of the enemy being killed, and thirteen thouſand made priſoners, together with Marſhal Tallard, General of the French: whereupon the city of Augſburg ſent to deſire the protection of the Duke of Marlborough; and the Emperor, in conſideration of this important ſervice made him a Prince of the Empire. The city of Ulm alſo ſurrendered to the Imperialiſts on the 11th of September; after which Prince LEWIS of Baden inveſted Landau, while the Duke of Marlborough covered the ſiege, and the place ſurrendred on the 24th of November N. S. In the mean time the Electoreſs of Bavaria yielded up the whole Electorate to the Imperialiſts.

War in Portugal.

A detachment of twelve thouſand Engliſh and Dutch forces were this year ſent to the aſſiſtance of the King of Portugal, under the command of Duke Schomberg: whereupon King CHARLES III. publiſhed a declaration, inviting his Spaniſh ſubjects to join him; and the King of Portugal publiſhed another declaration, ſhewing the right of King CHARLES III. to the Spaniſh monarchy,

narchy, and his reaſons for his appearing in arms againſt King Philip, whom he ſtiled a uſurper. King Philip, on the other hand, declared war againſt the King of Portugal, King Charles, and all their allies; and ſoon after invading Portugal, took ſeveral towns on the frontiers of that kingdom. Duke Schomberg weary of his command in Portugal, where he found neither horſes for mounting the confederate cavalry, or any other proviſions of war they had agreed to furniſh; and the Portugueſe Generals inſiſting on their having the command of the Engliſh troops, he deſired to be recalled, and the Earl of Galway was appointed to command the Engliſh troops in Portugal in his room.

1704.

Gibralter taken.

Sea-fight off Malaga.

In the beginning of the year 1704, Admiral Rooke with a body of land-forces on board commanded by the Prince of Heſſe, ſailed to Barcelona, where he arrived the 18th of May; and the Prince of Heſſe landed near the town with 2500 men, ſending a ſummons to the governor to ſurrender, who did not think fit to obey it. This expedition was undertaken on an aſſurance that there would be an inſurrection in the town in favour of King Charles, on the appearance of the confederate fleet; but nothing of this ſort happening, the troops were re-imbarked; and the fleet ſailed to Gibralter, and having made a deſcent the 21ſt of July, attacked the place with that fury, that it ſurrendered the 24th. Sir George Rooke engaged the French fleet, commanded by the Count de Thoulouſe, on the 24th of Auguſt following, and had gained a complete victory if his ammunition had not failed him, which was occaſioned by the great fire which was made on the attack of Gibralter, and the leaving a quantity of ammunition there to ſecure it. However, the French fleet was ſo ſhattered, that they declined renewing the engagement the next day, and never after diſputed the dominion of the ſeas with the confederates during the war.

In Italy the confederates had not ſo good ſucceſs this campaign as in ſome other parts of Europe: for here the French took Verceil and Suza, and the confederates were not in a condition to attempt the relief of either. On the other hand, the Hungarian malecontents were prevailed with to accept the mediation of England and Holland, which was ſome relief to the Emperor on that ſide.

War in Italy 1705.

Verue in Piedmont ſurrendered to the French the 8th of April 1705; and ſoon after Nice and Villa Franca; and on the 16th of Auguſt a battle was fought near Caſſano in Italy between the French and Imperialiſts, wherein great numbers were killed on both ſides, but neither of them had much reaſon to boaſt of the victory, though both ſung Te Deum for it.

In the Low Countries.

The Duke of Marlborough commanding on the Moſelle this campaign, the French retook the town of Huy, and made themſelves maſters of Liege; but the confederate army returning to Flanders, the French were forced to relinquiſh thoſe places again. The Duke afterwards entered the French lines near Tirlemont, and defeated a great body of the enemies troops; but as he was about to attack their grand army at Overyſch, the deputies of the ſtates oppoſed it, and refuſed to let the Dutch troops engage; which the Duke reſented ſo highly, that it coſt their High Mightineſſes ſome pains to reconcile themſelves to him again; but ſuch ample amends and large promiſes were made him on this occaſion, that they continued very dear ever afterwards.

The death of Leopold Emperor of Germany.

Leopold Emperor of Germany, after a long and proſperous reign, died at Vienna on the fifth of May N. S. in the year 1705. He was born the 9th of June 1640, and crowned King of Hungary on the 27th of June 1655, and of Bohemia the 14th of September 1656; and afterwards elected Emperor on the 18th of July 1658. He was three times married, but left children only by his laſt Empreſs Magdalena Thereſa, daughter to Prince Philip William of Newburg, by whom he had the late Emperor Joseph, and the preſent Emperor Charles, and three Archdutcheſſes, viz. Mary Elizabeth, Mary Anne, and Mary Magdalen. This Prince is frequently ſtiled the Happy, from his eſcaping the many conſpiracies formed againſt him, and his ſucceſs againſt the Turks: and it is certain he was very happy in the choice of his miniſters and generals, which ought not to be looked upon as purely the effect of chance, but ſomething in this caſe may very well be aſcribed to the judgment of the Prince.

Joſeph 1705.

Joseph King of the Romans ſucceeded his father Leopold, who laid his dying commands on him to aſſiſt his brother Charles in the recovery of the Spaniſh monarchy. The late Emperor being embalmed, his heart was put into a ſilver box, and carried to the chapel of Loretto to be depoſited behind the high altar there. His bowels were put into another ſilver box, and with a great deal of ceremony interred in the cathedral church of St. Stephen; and his body, after it had lain three days in ſtate in the Imperial palace, was interred in the church of the Capuchins at Vienna, with all imaginable ſtate.

Barcelona taken by the allies.

Catalonia and Valencia declare for King Charles.

1706. Barcelona beſieged by King Philip.

The grand fleet, under the command of Sir Cloudeſly Shovel, with a body of land-forces on board commanded by the Earl of Peterborough, ſet ſail from England on the 24th of May, this year 1705; and having touched at Liſbon, King Charres III. came on board them, after which the fleet ſailed to Barcelona, arriving before that city on the 22d of Auguſt, N. S. The confederate forces having made a deſcent, attacked the fort of Montjuich, or Montjoy, and carried it on the 6th of September; but the Prince of Heſſe was killed at the firſt attack. The city of Barcelona alſo ſurrendered on the 4th of October N. S. and the whole province of Catalonia, except Roſes, immediately after declared for King Charles III. The following winter the Earl of Peterborough made a prodigious progreſs in Spain, conſidering the ſmall force he had with him; for he took poſſeſſion of the city of Valencia, and obliged that whole province to declare for the houſe of Auſtria. The Portugueſe alſo were upon the offenſive this year, and took ſome towns on the frontiers of Spain; but ſetting down before Badajox were forced to raiſe the ſiege, and were afterwards handſomly banged by the French general, the Marſhall Theſſe. But the French and Spaniards being apprehenſive of a general revolt in the kingdom of Spain, if the allies were ſuffered to remain in the quiet poſſeſſion of Catalonia and Valencia, drew off moſt of their forces from the frontiers of Portugal, and on the third of April N. S. laid ſiege to the city of Barcelona, where King Charles III. commanded in perſon: King Philip alſo thought fit to command the French and Spaniſh troops which formed the ſiege in perſon: for on the fortune of this place it was generally thought at that time, the fate of the Spaniſh monarchy depended. There

The ſiege raiſed.

was not more than ſeven or eight hundred regular troops in Barcelona, when King Philip ſat down before it; but the Earl of Peterborough found means to throw in three or four thouſand men afterwards, who defended the place till the 8th of May N. S. when the confederate fleet, conſiſting of fifty men of war, beſides frigats and tranſports, with a body of land-forces on board, arrived in the road of Barcelona, the fleet being commanded by Sir John Leake, and the land-forces by the Earl of Peterborough; which put the French and Spaniards into ſuch a conſternation, that they precipitately raiſed the ſiege, and drew off their troops on the 12th of May early in the morning, leaving their artillery and ammunition, proviſion, and wounded men behind them, and marched directly for France with King Philip at the head of them: and what is very remarkable, there happened at the ſame time at nine in the morning almoſt a total eclipſe of the ſun, being the French King's device, for ſix minutes; from whence many of the ſuperſtitious took leave to conjecture that the French, as well as the Spaniſh monarchy, would ſoon decline and become a prey to their enemies.

The allies take poſſeſſion of Madrid.

The ſiege of Barcelona was no ſooner raiſed, but the Portugueſe and Engliſh Generals on that ſide took a reſolution of advancing directly to Madrid; whereupon the Queen and court of Spain thought fit to retire to the confines of France, and the Marquis das Minas and the Earl of Galway took poſſeſſion of that capital on the 24th of June 1706; and on the 27th King Charles III. was proclaimed there: whereupon Toledo, and ſeveral other great towns made their ſubmiſſion. This ſucceſs made the confederate generals at Madrid ſend expreſs after expreſs to King Charles III. to haſten his march to his capital city and join them with all the forces he could aſſemble; but the Kingdom of Arragon declaring for him at the ſame time, he marched to Saragoſſa, and trifled away ſo much time there in bull-feaſts and other amuſements, that King Philip had time to draw together an army ſuperior to that of the allies at Madrid, and obliged the confederates to quit that city; whereupon the towns of Toledo, Salamanca and other places in Caſtile, which had deſired the protection of the allies, declared again for King Philip; and three or four days afterwards, when it was too late, King Charles joined the Portugueſe at Guadalaxara with ſix or ſeven regiments. But the forces of the confederates, not being able to ſubſiſt in Caſtile for want of proviſions, decamped about the ninth of September, and marched into Valencia, where they were joined by ten thouſand men from England, who landed at Alicant, at leaſt they were ten thouſand when they embarqued in England; but ſickneſs and other accidents, deſtroyed above half of them before they entered upon action. On the eleventh of December this year died Don Pedro King of Portugal, in the 58th year of his age, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Don Juan IV.

Battle of Ramillies.

Upon the Rhine there was very little action; and in Hungary a ſuſpenſion of arms was agreed on this campaign between the Imperialiſts and the Malecontents: but in Flanders on the 12th of May O. S. that memorable battle was fought called the battle of Ramillies, between the Confederates under the command of the Duke of Marlborough, and the French and Bavarians commanded by the Elector of Bavaria and Marſhal Villeroy, wherein the Allies gained a compleat victory, taking great part of the enemy's artillery and baggage, with very little loſs on the ſide of the allies. Whereupon the cities of Louvain, Bruſſels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenard, Bruges, Antwerp, and ſeveral other conſiderable cities in Flanders and Brabant, made their ſubmiſſion, and acknowledged King Charles III. for their ſovereign. The Duke of Marlborough the ſame campaign beſieged and made himſelf maſter of Oſtend, Menin, Dendermond and Aeth.

Battle of Turin.

The French evacuate Italy.

In Italy alſo the confederates were very ſucceſsful at the end of the campaign, though things had but a dark aſpect on that ſide in the beginning of the year: for the Duke of Vendoſme on the 19th of April defeated the Imperialiſts at Calcinato. On the 23d of May the French inveſted Turin, and preſſed that city very hard; whereupon Prince Eugene marched to the relief of it. On the 5th of Auguſt the French took the counterſcarp of the citadel of Turin, and both town and caſtle were upon the point of being taken: but the Duke of Savoy and Prince Eugene having joined their forces, attacked the French in their intrenchments before Turin on the 7th of September N. S. and having obtained a compleat victory, entered the city in triumph. Soon after the city of Milan and the greateſt part of that dutchy ſubmitted to the Imperialiſts: and about the beginning of March following, a treaty was concluded between Prince Eugene on the part of the Imperialiſts, and Prince Vaudemont on the part of France; whereby it was agreed, that the French ſhould evacuate all they were poſſeſſed of in Italy, and be permitted to march home with the uſual marks of honour. And thus ended the year 1706, the moſt glorious to the allies of any during the war, and which would infalliby have put an end to it, if there had been a good underſtanding between the Engliſh, Imperialiſts, and Portugueſe in Spain; but while their Generals were diſputing about command and precedency, moſt of the mighty advantages we had gained in that kingdom were loſt, never to be retrieved again. We conquered great part of Spain indeed afterwards; but the indolent conduct of ſome who were principally concerned, had ſo diſguſted the Spaniards, that they would never be reconciled to the allies afterwards.

1707. Battle of Almanza.

The firſt conſiderable action which happened in the year 1707, was the battle of Almanza, where the French, under the command of the Duke of Berwick, entirely routed the army of the allies commanded by the Marquiſs Das Minas and the Earl of Galway. The Portugueſe horſe, it ſeems, abandoned the foot at the firſt charge, which occaſioned moſt of the Engliſh and Dutch infantry to be cut in pieces: while the horſe with their two generals made their retreat into Catalonia, leaving the kingdoms of Valencia and Arragon, which had ſo readily declared for the allies, to the mercy of their enraged King, who made them pay very largely for their revolt, and deprived them of their ancient privileges. Nor are the barbarities and inſults which the miſerable inhabitants ſuffered on this occaſion from the conquerors to be expreſſed; particularly in the cities of Valencia, Saragoſſa, Requena, Xativa and Alcyra, which upon the loſs of the battle of Almanza were obliged to ſubmit to King Philip's forces: and on the 30th of September following the Duke of Orleans took the city of Lerida by ſtorm. The principal occaſion of all which misfortunes, if we may depend upon the reſolutions of the Commons

mons of England, was, That of near thirty thouſand Engliſh forces provided for the ſervice of Spain and Portugal, there were but eight thouſand and ſome odd hundreds there at the battle of Almanza. But what contributed further towards the miſfortune of the allies in Spain, was a romantick project of the Duke of Savoy's, (in which revenge had a greater ſhare than prudence) for the taking of Thoulon, in which expedition was employed the grand fleet of England, and upwards of forty thouſand men by land, which attempt came to nothing, neither was there any probability it ſhould; whereas, if half that force had been ſent to Spain on the concluſion of the war in Italy, that kingdom had been ſecured to King CHARLES III.

Euterprize againſt Thoulon.

The Imperialiſts poſſeſs themſelves of Naples.

In the mean time Count THAUN, with fifteen thouſand Imperialiſts, entered the kingdom of Naples without oppoſition. The city of Naples ſubmitted on the 6th of July to King CHARLES III. without ſtriking a ſtroke: And on the 16th the caſtles of Naples ſurrendred. Count THAUN on the 29th of September following took Gaieta by ſtorm, and in it the Duke de Eſcalona, Viceroy of Naples for King PHILIP, with all the nobility in that intereſt, whereby the kingdom of Naples was entirely reduced to the obedience of King CHARLES.

In Flanders there happened little or no action this campaign; and upon the Rhine the allies ſeemed to be aſleep, while Marſhal Villars, who commanded the French on that ſide, forced the lines of Buhl, poſſeſſed himſelf of Raſtat, and afterwards laid under contribution the Circles of Suabia and Franconia, the Electorate of Mentz, the Landgravate of Darmſtat, the Palatinate of the Rhine, and ſeveral other German Principalities: and to finiſh the miſfortunes of this fatal year 1707, Admiral SHOVEL on his return from the Mediterranean with the grand fleet, on the 22d of October ſplit upon a rock near the land's end of England, and was loſt with all his hands on board, to the number of near one thouſand, two or three other men of war in the fleet running the ſame fate. And much about the ſame time four Engliſh men of war, and a rich fleet of merchant ſhips were taken off the Lizard by a French ſquadron from Breſt. We begun this year, it is true, with a thankſgiving for the union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland: but ſome people obſerve, that the allies had but very few real occaſions of ſinging Te Deum afterwards, during the courſe of the war, beſides the defeating the Pretender's deſign againſt Scotland, who in the beginning of March 1707-8, ſailed from Dunkirk to the Frith of Edinburgh with a ſquadron of French men of war, and a body of land-forces on board; and was driven from thence on the 13th of the ſame month by the Engliſh fleet commanded by Sir GEORGE BYNG, who took the Saliſbury, on board of which ſhip, it is ſaid, the Pretender dined the ſame day.

1708.

The Imperial General Count STAREMBERG was ſent into Spain in the beginning of the year 1708, to command the German forces in that kingdom; and ſoon after Major-General STANHOPE was diſpatched to Barcelona to command the Engliſh there; and Sir JOHN LEAKE convoyed ſix or eight thouſand men from Italy to Spain to re-inforce King CHARLES. The Admiral alſo brought over to Barcelona at the ſame time the Princeſs of Wolfembuttle, the preſent Empreſs, who was contracted to King CHARLES; and in this city the marriage was conſummated: and whether, according to the Jewiſh law, his Majeſty thought it improper to go into the wars the firſt year after his eſpouſals, I ſhall not take upon me to reſolve; but certain it is, this was a very unactive campaign in Catalonia. Admiral LEAKE indeed, after his ſetting the Queen of Spain on ſhore, ſailed to Cagliari, the capital of the iſland of Sardinia; and the inhabitants both of city and country declared for King CHARLES III. with very little perſuaſion. The iſland of Minorca, in which is the commodious harbour of Port Mahon, was alſo ſoon after reduced to the obedience of King CHARLES by the confederate fleet. The young King of Portugal being at the ſame time taken up with a marriage-treaty, and celebrating his nuptials with the Arch-Ducheſs MARY-ANNE of Auſtria, who was convoyed to Liſbon by Sir GEORGE BYNG, little was done this campaign on the ſide of Portugal.

Sardinia and Minorca reduced by the allies.

The three colleges of the Empire determined to admit the Elector of Hanover to ſit and vote in the electoral college on the 30th of June, 1708. which had been oppoſed for ſixteen years: whereupon his Electoral Highneſs was prevailed upon to take upon him the command of the Imperial troops upon the Rhine; but it happened to be a campaign of very little action.

In Flanders the French ſurprized the cities of Ghent and Bruges about the beginning of July, and afterwards inveſted Oudenard; the Dukes of Burgundy and Berry, and the Chevalier St. George being in the field in perſon, they were attacked by the Duke of Marlborough and Prince EUGENE, while they lay before this town, and their troops being defeated, were forced to raiſe the ſiege, and retire to Ghent. The Duke of Marlborough afterwards levelled the French lines between Ipres and the Lys, putting Artois and Picardy under contribution. On the other hand, the French laid Dutch Flanders under contribution. And on the 13th of Auguſt, Prince EUGENE of Savoy laid ſiege to the city of Liſle, the capital of French Flanders, while the Duke of Marlborough with the grand army covered the ſiege. This is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in the world; and was defended by one and twenty battalions of foot, and ſeveral regiments of horſe, commanded by the Marſhal Boufflers. The allies attacked the counterſcarp on the ſeventh of September, and carried it after an obſtinate defence, wherein they loſt two thouſand men, and ſixteen of their engineers. At another attack the allies loſt a thouſand men, and Prince EUGENE was wounded by a muſket-ball, which grazed upon his ſkull; and being thereby confined to his tent, the Duke of Marlborough took upon him the command of the ſiege. The French, to diſtreſs the beſiegers the more, cut off their communication with all their gariſons, except Oſtend: from whence General WEBB marching with a great convoy of proviſions towards Liſle, on the 28th of September, was attacked at Winnendale by twenty-four thouſand French, commanded by General de la Mothe; but the French were defeated, and the convoy arrived ſafe at Liſle: by which General WEBB obtained abundance of honour, the enemy being treble his number, and furniſhed with a train of artillery, whereas he had not a field-piece with him. The town of Liſle ſurrendered on the 23d of October following, the gariſon retiring into the caſtle, except the horſe, who were permitted to march away; and it was the 9th of December before the caſtle ſurrendered: in the ſiege whereof,

The ſiege of Liſle.

and of the town, the allies did not loſe leſs than twelve or fourteen thouſand men by the ſword, beſides what they loſt by ſickneſs or other accidents. While the allies were at the ſiege of the caſtle, the Duke of Bavaria attacked Bruſſels, but was forced to riſe from before it on the approach of the Duke of Marlborough: who afterwards inveſted Ghent on the 18th of December, and the town ſurrendered the 30th. The next day the French quitted Bruges, and all the other towns they had taken in Spaniſh Flanders. And thus ended this long campaign of 1708, in a cold and rigorous ſeaſon, in which great numbers of men and horſes muſt have periſhed, if Ghent had not ſurrendered ſo ſuddenly, beyond all expectation, there being a gariſon of near twenty thouſand men in that place.

1709. Offers of peace.

Tournay taken.

Battle of Malplaquet.

The year 1709 begun very pacifically, the French offering by way of preliminaries, to acknowledge King CHARLES III. King of Spain; and to yield up all the Spaniſh dominions to the houſe of Auſtria, to reſign Straſburg, Briſac, &c. to the Emperor; to acknowledge the Queen of Great Britain, and demoliſh Dunkirk, and relinquiſh Liſle, and all other places the allies had taken in the Netherlands: but after all theſe things were agreed on, the French plenipotentiaries refuſed to ſign the articles; whereupon the treaty broke off the latter end of May, and both ſides prepared again for war. And the allies, having aſſembled their forces, inveſted Tournay the 27th of June; the town ſurrendering the 30th of July, and the citadel the 3d of September following. This place coſt the confederates a world of men, being one of the fineſt fortifications in the Netherlands, and undermined in almoſt every part where it was to be approached. On the eleventh of September following was fought the battle of Malplaquet, or Blaregnies, near Mons, between the allies, commanded by Prince EUGENE of Savoy and the Duke of Marlborough on one ſide, and the French, under the command of the Marſhals Villars and Boufflers on the other; each army conſiſting of an hundred thouſand men and more, the fineſt troops in the world. The French had poſted themſelves very advantageouſly in the woods of Sart and Janſart, where they cut down trees, and rendered the attack exceeding difficult. In other places they were covered by a triple entrenchment, and all the intervals planted with artillery, which made it ſeveral hours before the confederates could make any impreſſion upon them. At length the intrenchments were forced, after it had coſt the allies near twenty thouſand men: but the French retired in good order, the confederate forces being in no condition to purſue them far. The following winter the French being diſtreſſed by famine, as well as by the arms of the confederates, made freſh overtures of peace, wherein the French King agreed to all the preliminary articles above recited, but the aſſiſting to dethrone his grandſon with his own troops; and in lieu of it, offered to contribute a ſum of money towards it, if he refuſed to ſubmit to the aboveſaid conditions: but the terms were rejected. The laſt place of treaty was at Gertrudenburgh; where ſuch was our confidence in our good friends the Dutch, that we intruſted them entirely with our intereſts, and had not a miniſter amongſt them. The Dutch treated with the French plenipotentiaries, excluſive of the miniſters of the other allies: and their High Mightineſſes were ſo exceeding ſtiff, that this treaty too came to nothing.

On the ſide of Portugal the allies were unſucceſsful this year; for the Marquis de Bay, who commanded King PHILIP's forces, obtained a victory over the allies on the banks of the river Caya, and made one entire brigade of Engliſh priſoners. On the other hand, the allies made themſelves maſters of Balaguer in Catalonia; but there happened no other conſiderable action in Spain.

The Pope having refuſed to acknowledge CHARLES III. King of Spain, or grant him the inveſtiture of Naples, the Imperial Generals poſſeſſed themſelves of Comachio, and ſeveral other places belonging to the ſee of Rome; but his Holineſs having conſidered better of it, conſented to acknowledge that Prince Sovereign of the Spaniſh dominions.

1710.

The King of Sweden having been ſome time engaged in a war with the King of Poland, and laid his Electorate of Saxony under contribution, and threatened other parts of the Empire, which occaſioned ſome troops to be withdrawn from Flanders, the confederates entered into a treaty in the beginning of the year 1710, for preſerving the peace of the Empire; whereby each of the contracting powers were to furniſh a certain number of troops, and form an army to oppoſe thoſe who ſhould diſturb the peace of the Empire for the future.

In Flanders the allies took ſeveral towns from the French this year, particularly Mortaign, Doway, Bethune, Aire, and St. Venant, before which places they loſt abundance of men. The confederates had no ſooner taken one fortreſs, but another roſe up at a very ſmall diſtance in the room of it; and at this rate the war might have laſted forty years, if the Engliſh would have found money to have ſupported it: it having been long ſince obſerved, that the attacking France on the ſide of Flanders, is like the taking a bull by the horns, or battering it where it is moſt impregnable; when at the ſame time the adding ten or fifteen thouſand men to the army in Spain, would ſoon have reduced that kingdom, and put an end to the war at once; as will evidently appear by the ſwift progreſs the arms of the allies made in Spain this campaign, which they were forced to abandon as ſuddenly for want of being timely ſupported.

Battle of Saragoſſa.

K. Charles takes poſſeſſion of Madrid again.

The confederates attacked King PHILIP, who commanded his army in perſon, near Almenara, in Catalonia, on the 27th of July, and put his cavalry to the rout; but it being late in the evening when the action began, his foot retired by the favour of the night under the cannon of Lerida; and from thence King PHILIP retreated to Saragoſſa, being cloſely purſued by the allies. On the twentieth of Auguſt following, the two rival Kings, CHARLES and PHILIP, came to a general battle, near the city of Saragoſſa; wherein King CHARLES obtained a complete victory, and King PHILIP retired into France by the way of Navarre. The city of Saragoſſa hereupon opened her gates to the conqueror, who made his triumphant entry into the town the ſame night; where having ſtaid about a week to refreſh his troops, the army continued it's march to Madrid; of which capital King CHARLES took poſſeſſion again on the 21ſt of September: but all the Grandees were retired from thence, that they might not be put under a neceſſity of declaring for either party, before they ſaw the ſucceſs of the war. In this ſituation King CHARLES preſſed the army of the allies on the ſide of Portugal to join him; but they could not be prevailed on to move that way: and King PHILIP having aſſembled a ſuperior army to that of the confederates at Madrid, King CHARLES took a reſolution of returning to Catalonia, which he did ſoon after with a thouſand horſe, leaving the army to follow him at leiſure.

The English forces taken priſoners in Brihuega.

The army of the allies in their march from Caſtile, for the conveniency of ſubſiſting their troops, or upon ſome miſunderſtanding between the Generals, was divided into two bodies; the Germans and Portugueſe, commanded by Count STAREMBERG, took one road; and the Engliſh, under General STANHOPE, another. The Engliſh General thought fit to halt with his body, conſiſting of eight battalions and as many ſquadrons at the town of Brihuega; where he was ſurprized December the 9th by King PHILIP and his whole army, which ſurrounded the place: the Engliſh defended themſelves here till the 10th in the morning; when all their ammunition being ſpent, they were obliged to ſurrender priſoners of war. General STAREMBERG receiving advice of the diſtreſs the Engliſh in Brihuega were reduced to, marched with all diligence to their relief; but was prevented by King PHILIP, who gave him battle at Villa Vicioſa, about a league from Brihuega, within a few hours after General STANHOPE had ſurrendered. In this battle STAREMBERG gave great proof of his military ſkill by defeating the Spaniards, though he was not half their number; but underſtanding that the Engliſh in Brihuega had been made priſoners the morning before, he continued his march towards Arragon; and having withdrawn the confederate troops out of the gariſon towns in that Kingdom, he marched to join King CHARLES in Catalonia; who was not able to prevent the taking of Gironne by the French the ſame winter. And thus this unhappy year 1710, which begun with ſo much glory, ended with the utmoſt diſgrace to the allies: which happened rather from a miſunderſtanding between their miniſters and generals, and a fondneſs in ſome people to have the war prolonged, than through the want of forces or treaſure, to have eſtabliſhed what had been ſo well begun.

1711.

The Emperor Joſeph dies.

King Charles elected Emperor.

A treaty of peace propoſed.

The year 1711 was fatal to ſome of the greateſt Princes of Europe; for on the 14th of April, N. S. died LEWIS, Dauphin of France, of the ſmall-pox, in the fiftieth year of his age, being ſucceeded in that honour by his eldeſt ſon LEWIS, Duke of Burgundy. And on the 20th of the ſame month of April, died JOSEPH, late Emperor of Germany, of the ſame diſtemper. Upon this laſt great event the allies uſed their utmoſt efforts to have CHARLES III. King of Spain, the only ſurviving brother of the late Emperor, elected in his room; and by their conſent Prince EUGENE detached fifty ſquadrons of horſe and twelve battalions of foot from the grand army in Flanders, to reinforce the Imperialiſts on the Rhine, and fruſtrate the deſigns of the French, who were endeavouring to penetrate into Germany again; in order to influence the Electors, and prevent the advancement of King CHARLES to the Imperial throne. And on the 27th of September King CHARLES was convoyed by the confederate fleet to Vado in Italy, where he arrived the 7th of October; and from thence went to Milan, where while he reſided he was choſen Emperor; namely, on the 12th of the ſame month of October. Here the new Emperor receiving advice that propoſals of peace had been offered to the allies on the part of France, he wrote to the Princes of the Empire and to the Dutch, to diſſuade them from accepting thoſe propoſals, or entring into any treaty with France, without ſome further conceſſions; which he aſſured them he would not agree to himſelf, be the conſequence what it would. Her Britiſh Majeſty, on the contrary, notified to the allies, that ſhe had pitched upon Utrecht for the place of treaty; and that the conferences would begin there on the firſt of January, O. S. and invited them to ſend their miniſters thither. Whereupon Prince EUGENE was diſpatched into England by the Emperor, to diſſuade the Queen from treating with France. But her miniſtry repreſented to him, that the expences of Britain, which in the beginning of the war did not amount to four millions per ann. were now increaſed to near ſeven millions, by her being obliged to ſupply the annual deficiencies of the allies. That the States General were frequently deficient two thirds of the quota of ſhipping they had ſtipulated to provide; which not only increaſed the charge of the Engliſh, but was the occaſion of great damages to the royal navy, and the ruin of the Engliſh merchants, whoſe ſhips were deſtroyed for want of convoys; the Engliſh men of war being employed in ſervices which ought to have been performed by the States. That the Dutch alſo had been deficient in the Netherlands upwards of twenty thouſand men of their quota of troops; and that the whole burthen of the war almoſt in Spain and Portugal had of late been thrown upon the Engliſh; the Dutch every year leſſening the number of their troops in thoſe countries: and the Emperor, who was moſt nearly concerned in the event of that war, had no troops at all in his pay there till the laſt year of the war, and then but one ſingle regiment. On the contrary, Britain did not only maintain ſixty thouſand land-men in the Spaniſh war, but the charges of the ſhipping only employed in that ſervice, amounted to eight millions ſterling; and that Britain had expended in this war, above it's quota, at leaſt nineteen millions of money. That the greater our ſucceſs had been, the heavier had been the burthen on the part of Britain; and while new dominions were daily conquered for the allies, they continually abated their ſhare of the expence. Nor could it be expected thoſe allies ſhould ever be weary of enlarging their territories at the charge of Britain, eſpecially when even the revenues of the conquered countries were not applied to the carrying on the war. That though Britain had born as great a ſhare in the war as all the confederates beſides, ſhe was to reap no advantage by it: on the contrary, the late acquiſitions of the Dutch might prove deſtructive to our trade. The putting Newport, and other places in Flanders into their hands, rendered the Britiſh trade thither precarious; and the ſtrength of that country, which Britain had contributed ſo largely to reduce, might hereafter be employed againſt Britain itſelf.

The firſt general conference on the ſubject of peace was held between the plenipotentiaries of Britain, France, and the States General at Utrecht, on the 29th of January, new ſtile, anno 1711-12; and the Britiſh miniſtry not being to be diverted from proceeding in it by any promiſes Prince EUGENE could make, that the Empire would for the future contribute more to the expences of the war than they had done, the Prince had his audience of leave of her Majeſty; when to expreſs the value ſhe had for his perſonal merit, ſhe preſented him with a ſword enriched with diamonds, of the value of five thouſand pounds.

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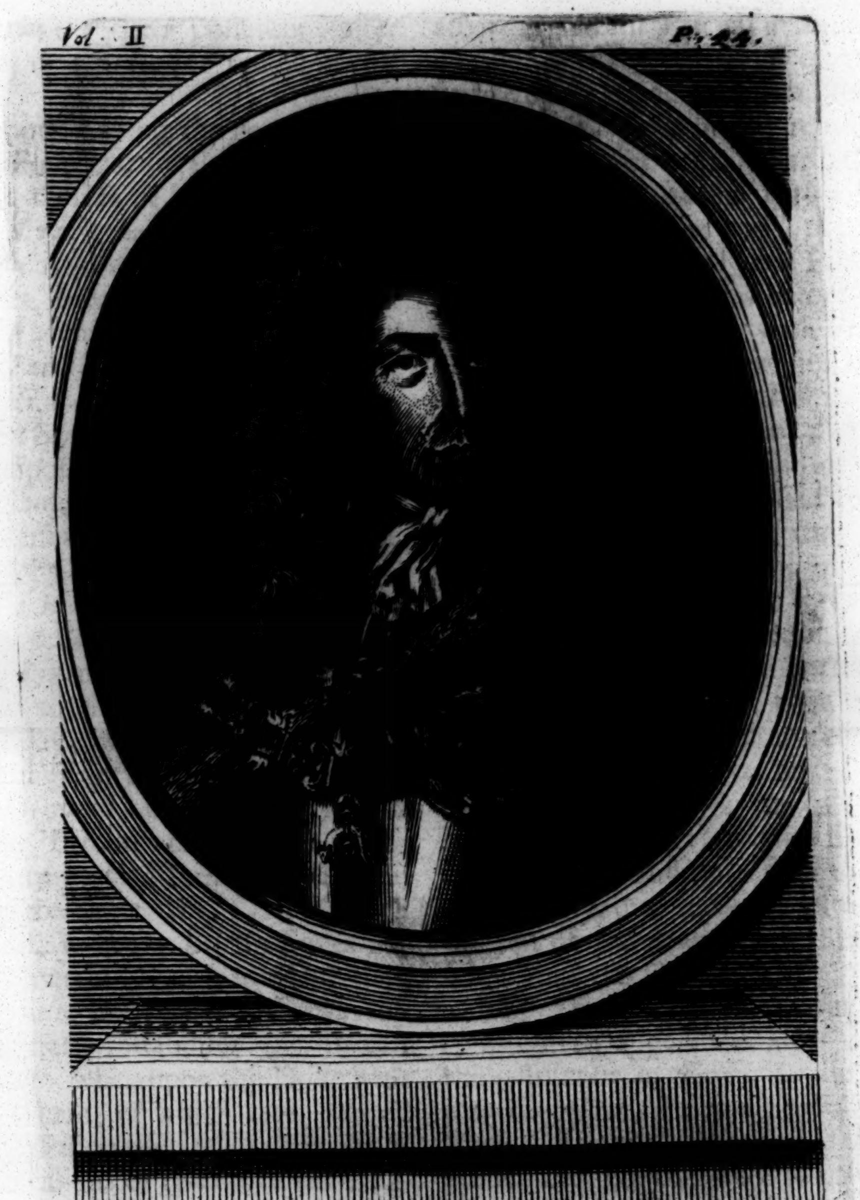

Charles VI. the Present Emperor of Germany

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But notwithſtanding the Queen of Great Britain was not averſe to a treaty of peace, ſhe did not yet ſlacken the preparations for war: and the Duke of Marlborough, paſſing the French lines at Arleux and Bac-a-Bacheul, on the fifth of Auguſt new ſtile, inveſted the town of Bouchain the 12th, which ſurrendered to the allies the 13th of September following, the gariſon being made priſoners of war. On the Rhine there was little or no action this campaign, any more than in Spain. And in Hungary a treaty of pacification was concluded between the Imperial miniſters and the malecontents; whereby the malecontents being pardoned, agreed to diſband their forces, and deliver up the fortreſſes in their poſſeſſion, after they had continued in a ſtate of rebellion for nine years together.

1712.

A ceſſation of arms between Great Britain and France.

The Duke of Ormond having the command of the Britiſh forces in Flanders, in the year 1712, declared to the allies, that there being a near proſpect of peace, her Majeſty had given him orders not to act offenſively: however, at the preſſing inſtances of the allies, ſhe did afterwards conſent to the beſieging of Queſnoy, which ſurrendered the fourth of July; and on the ſeventh of the ſame month, the French King voluntarily ſurrendered Dunkirk to the Britiſh troops. About which time the Britiſh plenipotentiaries at Utrecht, and the Duke of Ormond, General of the Britiſh troops, propoſed a ceſſation of arms to the allies, which was rejected by them: on the contrary, Prince Eugene, the Imperial General, with the German and Dutch troops, ſeparated from the Duke of Ormond, inviting the mercenaries in Britiſh pay to follow them, which moſt of them did. And the next day, being the 17th of July, Prince Eugene laid ſiege to Landrecy. Hereupon the Duke of Ormond cauſed a ceſſation of arms between Great Britain and France to be proclaimed in his camp, as Marſhal Villars did in the French camp the ſame day. After which the Duke of Ormond, with the Britiſh forces under his command, marching towards Dunkirk, was denied entrance into Bouchain and Doway by the Dutch gariſons, notwithſtanding the Britiſh hoſpital was in Doway: whereupon the Duke bent his march towards Ghent, of which city, as well as Bruges, he took poſſeſſion the 23d of July, N. S. and detached ſix battalions to re-inforce the Engliſh gariſon in Dunkirk. On the twenty-fourth of the ſame month, the allies under Prince Eugene met with a misfortune, which could not but make them ſenſible of the raſhneſs in inſulting the Duke of Ormond, and ſeparating their forces from thoſe of Britain: for the Earl of Albemarle, being encamped with thirteen battalions and thirty ſquadrons at Denain, to ſecure the communication of Prince Eugene's army (which lay before Landrecy) with Marchiennes, where was the grand magazine of the confederates, was attacked by Marſhal Villars, and defeated, and himſelf made priſoner; Count Dhona, Lieutenant-General and Governor of Mons, was drowned in the Scheld; Count Naſſau with three thouſand officers and ſoldiers were killed and wounded, and as many made priſoners; and a vaſt quantity of ammunition and proviſions, beſides twelve pieces of cannon, were taken by the French: and about a week after, Marchiennes itſelf ſurrendered to them, the gariſon conſiſting of between four and five thouſand men being made priſoners of war: in the place alſo was found three hundred thouſand weight of powder, an hundred pieces of cannon, three hundred waggons, a vaſt quantity of bombs, granadoes, bullets, corn, meal, bacon, wine, brandy, and all kinds of proviſion and tools neceſſary for making two ſieges, beſides great numbers of horſes. Upon which misfortune Prince Eugene thought fit to raiſe the ſiege of Landrecy the ſecond of Auguſt.

And now the French being in their turn maſters of the field, inveſted Doway on the 14th of Auguſt, which ſurrendered the 8th of September following, the gariſon being made priſoners of war. The ſame day Queſnoy was inveſted by the French, and ſurrendered the 4th of October, the gariſon alſo being made priſoners of war; which, according to the French account, compleated the number of forty battalions of the allies they had deſtroyed or made priſoners, ſince the defeat at Denain. The Dutch ſtill refuſing to come into the ceſſation of arms, Marſhal Villars ſat down before Bouchain on the 10th of October, which place ſurrendered the 19th, the gariſon remaining priſoners at diſcretion. But I ſhould have remembered that Portugal was before-hand with all the allies in treating ſecretly with France: and on the fifth of November a ſuſpenſion of arms was ſigned for four months between France and Spain on the one ſide, and Portugal on the other. Brigadier Pierce alſo, Commander of the Britiſh troops in Catalonia, having notified to Count Staremberg, that a ceſſation of arms had been agreed upon between Great Britain and France, declared that he muſt ſeparate his forces from him; and on the 15th of November the Britiſh forces in Catalonia were embarked for Port Mahon, where the Duke of Argyle at that time commanded. His Grace upon their arrival cauſed the Emperor's colours to be taken down, and the Engliſh colours to be hoiſted in the ſeveral caſtles and forts in the iſland of Minorca: and the Emperor's governor in the iſland refuſing to take the oaths to her Britiſh Majeſty, had leave to retire to Barcelona: but the reſt of the magiſtrates there took an oath of fidelity to the Queen.

The States General, finding the allies in no condition to oppoſe the arms of France without the aſſiſtance of Great Britain, agreed to come into the plan of peace propoſed to them by the Earl of Strafford on the part of Britain, and conclude, and ſign the peace jointly, and at the ſame time with the Britiſh miniſters. But before the concluſion of the general peace a new treaty of guaranty for the Proteſtant ſucceſſion in Britain, and the Barrier of the States General, was ſigned on the 30th of January, 1712-13. By which treaty it was agreed, that the Dutch ſhould put gariſons in the towns and forts of Furnes, fort Knocque, Ipres, Menin, the town and citadal of Tournay, Mons, Charleroy, the town and caſtle of Namur, the caſtle of Ghent, the ports Le Perle, Philip and Damme, and the fort of St. Donat. The fortifications of all which places, with the gariſons therein, to be maintained out of the revenues ariſing in the countries about them; ſo that the Dutch were to be at no expence in maintaining thoſe gariſons.

Barrier treaty.

And it was further agreed, that Britain, when required by the Dutch, ſhould ſend ten thouſand foot, and twenty men of war to their aſſiſtance, at the charge of Britain, to maintain the aforeſaid Barrier: and on the other ſide, the Dutch ſhould ſend ſix thouſand foot and twenty men of war to the aſſiſtance of Britain when required, at the expence of the States, to ſupport the Proteſtant ſucceſſion:

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Treaty for the evacuation of Catalonia.

The Imperial and French miniſters on the 14th of March following concluded a treaty for the evacuating Catalonia, Majorca and Ivica by the Imperialiſts, and for the neutrality of Italy. By the firſt article whereof it was agreed, that there ſhould be a ſuſpenſion of arms in Catalonia till the Empreſs and the Court then reſiding there, and other perſons who were diſpoſed to follow it, whether military or not, Spaniards or others, ſhould with their effects, and the Imperial forces, be entirely departed from Spain and arrived in Italy, upon condition they delivered up the places poſſeſſed by them.

And by the eighth article it was agreed, that as ſoon as the ſaid evacuation ſhould be begun, there ſhould be granted to all the ſubjects and inhabitants of Catalonia, and the ſaid Iſlands, a general amneſty and perpetual oblition for all that had been done by them during the war; and no trouble ſhould be given on thoſe accounts to the Catalans, or inhabitants of the ſaid iſles: but as to the enjoyment of their ancient privileges, this was referred to be diſcuſſed at the treaty for a general peace. And by the eleventh article it is agreed, that there ſhall be an entire ſuſpenſion of arms throughout Italy, and the iſlands of the Mediterranean, reſpectively poſſeſſed by the parties engaged in war, as in all the territories of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of Savoy, ſituate as well on this ſide as on the other ſide the Alps.

In purſuance of the aboveſaid convention for the evacuation of Catalonia, the Empreſs embarqued at Barcelona about the beginning of March 1712-13, and was convoyed to Vado in Italy by the Britiſh fleet.

1713. Peace between the allies and France.

The year 1713 was more remarkable for negotiations of peace than warlike enterprizes; for on the 31ſt of March O. S. or the 11th of April N. S. the reſpective treaties of peace between Great Britain, Pruſſia, Portugal, the States General and Savoy on the one part; and the French King on the other, were executed at Utrecht: Count Zinzendorf the Imperial Miniſter proteſting againſt it, declaring, that he conceived the Emperor and Empire had great injuſtice done them; for that the Emperor's Imperial dignity was not by the preliminary articles to be acknowledged till after the ſigning the peace. 2. Becauſe that expreſſion in them, that the Rhine ſhall ſerve as a boundary between France and the Empire, is very captious and ambiguous, there being many conſiderable places and countries belonging to the Empire on the French ſide the Rhine. 3. Becauſe France inſiſts on the reſtoration of the Elector of Bavaria, with ſome other demands of importance. For which reaſons the Emperor and Empire determined to continue the war againſt France alone, till they could obtain better terms.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France, it was ſtipulated, that the acts of ſettlement made by the Britiſh parliament, for the ſecurity of the Proteſtant ſucceſſion, ſhould be thereby confirmed and enforced: that the crowns of France and Spain ſhould remain for ever ſeparate, Dunkirk be demoliſhed, the Britiſh plantations in America in poſſeſſion of France be reſtored, and a juſt and reaſonable ſatisfaction given to all the allies.

By the treaty with the States General, France conſented to yield up the town and dutchy of Luxemburg, the towns of Namur, Charleroy, Menin, Tournay, Furnes, Fort Knocque, Loo, Dixmude, Ipres, and ſome other places for a barrier to the States; and the Dutch on the other hand, agreed to yield up Liſle, Aire, Bethune, and St. Venant.

By the treaty between France and Savoy, Sicily was yielded to the Duke of Savoy, a ſufficient barrier was given him on the ſide of France; and the crown of Spain was limited to the ſaid Duke on failure of iſſue of King PHILIP.

The war ſtill continuing between the Empire and France, the French inveſted Landau on the 12th of June, which held out till the 20th of Auguſt, when the gariſon ſurrendered, and were made priſoners of war. On the 30th of September the French laid ſiege to Friburgh, which they made themſelves maſters of on the 1ſt of November, and on the 16th of the ſame month the caſtle ſurrendered: which ſucceſſes induced the Imperialiſts the following winter to enter into a treaty with France, which was managed by Prince EUGENE of Savoy, on the one ſide, and Marſhal Villars on the other, at the caſtle of Raſtadt

Count STAREMBERG having evacuated Catalonia with the Imperial troops on the 9th of July, according to the abovementioned convention, the Catalans immediately took poſſeſſion of Barcelona, and declared war againſt King PHILIP, rejecting the indemnity the Queen of Great Britain had procured for them; and on the 13th of the ſame month of July, a treaty of peace was ſigned between Great Britain and Spain; whereby the Queen's title, and the Proteſtant ſucceſſion in Britain were agreed to; Gibralter, Minorca and Port Mahon yielded to Britain, with the benefit of the Aſſiento trade, or the furniſhing the Spaniſh dominions in America with negroes; and by it the Catalans were not only indemnified for oppoſing King PHILIP, but their honours and eſtates, together with the privileges of the inhabitants of both Caſtiles were granted them, and the ceſſion of Sicily was confirmed to the Duke of Savoy, with the title of King of that iſland.

The Catalans continuing deaf to all offers of accommodation, King PHILIP's forces plundered and ravaged their country in a terrible manner; whereupon the Catalans declared themſelves a free independent State; granted commiſſions for raiſing ſoldiers in their own name; and took upon them to coin money with the arms of that province ſtamped upon it.

Treaty between the Emperor and France.

At the cloſe of this year, viz. on the 6th of March N. S. 1713-14, a treaty of peace was concluded at Raſtadt, between the Emperor and France: whereby it was agreed, that the treaties of Weſtphalia, Nimeguen. aud Ryſwick, ſhould be the baſis and foundation of the preſent treaty; and particularly, that the French ſhould reſtore to the Emperor the town and fortreſs of Old Briſack, the town and fortreſs of Friburgh, the forts of St. Peter, and of the Star; and all other forts in the Black Foreſt and Briſgau, with the fort of Kehl and it's dependancies; the fort of Pile, and others erected in the iſlands of the Rhine near Straſburgh, were to be demoliſhed, the navigation and uſe of the ſaid river to remain free and open to the ſubjects of either ſide, and no new tolls to be laid on goods paſſing along the ſaid river by either party. The French King alſo agreed, that the fortifications over againſt Hunninghen, on the right ride the Rhine, and the iſland therein ſhould be demoliſhed; and in general, all the forts, intrenchments,

trenchments, lines, and bridges ſpecified in the treaty of Ryſwick, and ſuch as have been erected ſince, either along the Rhine, or in the Rhine, or elſewhere in the Empire, and it's dependancies, which it ſhould not be lawful to re-eſtabliſh. The French King alſo agreed to evacuate the caſtles of Bitſch and Homburgh, and to cauſe the fortifications thereof to be demoliſhed. On the other hand, his Imperial Majeſty agreed, that the city of Landau and it's dependancies ſhould remain to the moſt Chriſtian King: that the Electors of Bavaria and Cologne be reſtored to all their dominions, prerogatives, &c. And the French agreed, that the Emperor ſhould enjoy the Spaniſh Netherlands, ſaving the barrier towns there granted to the States General: that the King of Pruſſia ſhould keep all he was poſſeſſed of in the upper quarter of Guelderland, particularly the town of Guelder, &c. which was confirmed to that Prince in lieu of his pretenſions to the principality of Orange in France.

1714.

Death of the Queen of England, &c.

The year 1714 was fatal to ſeveral great perſons, as 1. to CHARLES Duke of Berry, youngeſt ſon of the late Dauphin of France, and grandſon to LEWIS XIV. who died at Marli on the 4th of May, in the 28th year of his age. 2. The Princeſs SOPHIA, Electreſs and Dutcheſs dowager of Hanover, who died on the 8th of June N. S. in the 84th year of her age. And 3. ANNE, Queen of Great Britain, who died on the firſt of Auguſt, in the 50th year of her age; being ſucceeded by GEORGE Elector of Brunſwick-Lunenburgh, who arrived at London on the 20th of September, and was crowned the 20th of October following.

Barcelona taken.

The Duke of Berwick, with an army compoſed of French and Spaniſh troops, laid ſiege to Barcelona on the 12th of July, this year; the citizens defending themſelves with great obſtinacy till the eleventh of September following, when they retired into the new city, and beat a parley; and on the 12th they ſurrendered on condition their lives ſhould be ſpared, and the city ſhould not be plundered. As to the Emperor, who encouraged the poor Catalans to ſtand out to the laſt extremity, and not accept of any terms, promiſing to ſend them reinforcements from time to time, he neither ſent them any aſſiſtance, or took any notice of them in the treaty of peace between the Emperor and France, or in the treaty between the Empire and France, which was concluded at Baden the 7th of September N. S. and contains nothing material but what was ſtipulated in the treaty of Raſtadt.

Treaty between the Empire and France.

A treaty was alſo concluded on the ſixth of February this year between Spain and Portugal; ſo that all the nations of Europe were now in peace: but this calm laſted a very little while, for the Turks declared war againſt the republick of Venice on the 7th of December 1714.

1715. The Turks conquer the Morea.

In the year 1715, the Turks made themſelves entire maſters of the Morea, meeting with very little oppoſition there: and this ſwift progreſs of the Ottoman arms obliged the Emperor to enter into a confederacy with the Venetians for their mutual defence. The peace of Great Britain was alſo diſturbed this year by a civil war: the Earl of Marr retiring in diſguſt from court, aſſembled the friends of the Pretender in Scotland about the middle of Auguſt; and proclaimed him King by the name of JAMES VIII. and Mr. FOSTER, who had accepted the poſt of General for the Pretender in England, aſſembled the malecontents in the north of England; and cauſed the Pretender to be proclaimed in Northumberland in October following: but being afterwards ſurrounded by King GEORGE's forces in Preſton, General FOSTER and his adherents were moſt of them made priſoners of war. The ſame day the Earl of Marr attacked King GEORGE's troops near Dumblain; but it was a kind of drawn battle, neither ſide having great reaſon to boaſt of their ſucceſs. On the 25th of December the Pretender landed in Scotland near Aberdeen, with ſome few officers and gentlemen; but it was now too late, the Dutch having before ſent over five or ſix thouſand men to the aſſiſtance of King GEORGE; and the malecontents having no regular troops in their ſervice, the Pretender and the Earl of Marr ſeeing no probability of ſucceſs, diſperſed their troops, and tranſported themſelves into France. What diſheartened the malecontents more than any thing, was the death of the French King LEWIS XIV. who died on the firſt of September N. S. and the Duke of Orleans being declared Regent of France, who betrayed all their counſels to the Britiſh court.

1719. War between the Empire and Turky.

Hoſtilities having been begun between the German and Ottoman Empires in the beginning of the year 1716, Prince EUGENE on the fifth of Auguſt attacked the Turkiſh army, conſiſting of near two hundred thouſand men, entrenched near Carlowitz: and though the Turks defended themſelves well at the beginning of the action, they were at length routed, and a dreadful ſlaughter made of them; the Imperialiſts making themſelves maſters of all their cannon, tents, baggage and ammunition, the military cheſt, with five milllons of florins coined, and the Grand Vizier's pavillion, in which were found jewels and treaſure to the value of three hundred thouſand florins more; two hundred of his women were alſo taken, from fourteen to twenty ſix years of age. After this victory Prince EUGENE marched to inveſt Temeſwaer; before which place the trenches were opened on the firſt of September, and the town ſurrendered on the 14th of October following, having been in the poſſeſſion of the Turks for an hundred and ſixty-four years.

1717. Belgrade taken by the Imperialiſts.

The Imperialiſts the following year inveſted the city of Belgrade on the 18th of June 1717; and the Turks coming to the relief of it on the 16th of Auguſt, Prince EUGENE of Savoy engaged them, and obtained a compleat victory: whereupon the town ſurrendered two days afterwards; but Prince EUGENE made no further advantage of his victory this year. PHILIP King of Spain having augmented his navy, as well as his land-forces this year, propoſed to himſelf the making a conqueſt of Sardinia, Sicily, Naples, and the reſt of the Spaniſh dominions in Italy, which had been diſmembered from that crown by the laſt peace; and accordingly the Marquis de Lede, the Spaniſh General, made a deſcent in the iſland of Sardinia, and reduced that country to the obedience of King PHILIP.

1718. A new war with Spain.

In the beginning of July the year following, the Marquis de Lede landed in Sicily with ſixteen or ſeventeen thouſand men, and was well received by moſt of the towns in that iſland: who ſet open their gates and voluntarily offered to ſubmit to King PHILIP. Whereupon a confederacy was entered into between the Emperor, Britain, and the King of Sicily againſt Spain; and the Dutch afterwards coming into it, this treaty was called the Quadruple Alliance, the chief deſign whereof, was to confirm the partition of the Spaniſh monarchy. In purſuance whereof, Sir GEORGE

BYNG being ſent into the Streights with a ſquadron of Britiſh men of war, fell upon the Spaniſh fleet near Syracuſa in Sicily, and took and deſtroyed about ſixteen of their ſhips of war. In the mean time the Emperor having ſigned a treaty of peace, or truce for twenty-four years with the Turks, was at leiſure to attend the war with Spain in Sicily.

1719. The French alſo aſſembled an army in the beginning of the year 1719, and invaded Spain by land: on the 13th of April they took Port Paſſage, where they burnt ſix Spaniſh men of war, which were almoſt finiſhed, upon the ſtocks. The French Generals afterwards beſieged Fontarabia, which ſurrendred the ſixteenth of June, as did St. Sebaſtian the firſt of Auguſt following, the whole province of Guipuſcoa ſubmitting to the crown of France. On the 29th of Auguſt the Lord Cobham with ſix thouſand Britiſh troops made a deſcent near Vigo in Spain, and took the town and caſtle, but quitted them again the 25th of October. In the mean time the Imperialiſts, by the aſſiſtance of the Britiſh fleet, tranſported an army into Sicily; and having taken the town of Meſſina, the caſtle ſurrendred to them the 19th of October. King PHILIP finding himſelf thus preſſed by a potent confederacy, thought it time to hearken to propoſals of accommodation. But I ſhould have remembred, that Spain in order to make a diverſion, and diſtract the allies this ſummer, ſent the Earl of Seaforth with three hundred Spaniards to Scotland, who having joined four thouſand Highlanders on the tenth of June, engaged General WIGHTMAN, but they were defeated, and moſt of the Spaniards made priſoners.

1720. On the ſixth of May 1720, N. S. a convention for a ſuſpenſion of arms, and for the evacuation of Sicily by the Spaniards, was ſigned by the Imperial and Spaniſh Generals, and on the next day a convention for the evacuation of Sardinia.

1721. And in the following year the renunciations of the Emperor and King of Spain, of ſuch part of the Spaniſh Monarchy as each of them were to give up, were executed; by which Sicily was ſurrendred to the Emperor, and Sardinia to the Duke of Savoy, with the title of King of that iſland: and thus peace was once more reſtored to Europe; ſome few matters only being left to be decided in a congreſs at Cambray by the miniſters of the reſpective powers concerned.

Peace concluded.

1722. The Emperor having no male iſſue, ſummoned a general diet of the ſtates of the kingdom of Hungary to meet at Preſburg on the 20th of June 1722, where he procured an act to paſs for ſettling the ſucceſſion of the crown of Hungary on the female line of the houſe of Auſtria: acknowledging for ſucceſſors to that crown the Archducheſſes, his Imperial Majeſty's daughters, and all the females of the houſe of Auſtria, with their deſcendants, in failure of male iſſue, according to the order of primogeniture, in the manner eſtabliſhed in all other kingdoms and territories belonging to his Imperial Majeſty, and his moſt auguſt houſe; determining to remain for ever indiſſolubly united with his Imperial Majeſty's other dominions; ſo that the ſame may for ever hereafter be governed by one head. And it is ſaid, the Proteſtants who were members of the ſtates, contributed very much to the reſolution that was taken for the ſettling the ſucceſſion, having had great aſſurances given them that the affairs of religion ſhould be ſettled to their ſatiſfaction.

The crown of Hungary ſettled on the females of the houſe of Auſtria.

It was looked upon to be very ominous to the Imperial family, that on the 6th of Auguſt in the evening in the inward court of the palace of the Favorita, next to the Emperor's apartment, ſo great a number of graſs-hoppers, or rather locuſts, lodged themſelves, that it was the work of a whole night and the next day to clear the court of them; but the two outer courts of the palace had none in them: I do not find however, that any great misfortune hath happened to the Emperor ſince, according to the wiſe prognoſtications of the ſuperſtitious, unleſs the want of male iſſue is to be accounted ſuch.

The beginning of the year 1723, was fatal to the famous town of Buda in Hungary, moſt part of the city being burnt to the ground, and part of the walls and fortifications deſtroyed by the blowing up the magazines on Eaſter Sunday. 1723.

The Dutch memorial againſt the Oſtend company.

The Emperor having erected a company of merchants at Oſtend to trade to the Eaſt-Indies, the Weſt-Indies, and the coaſt of Africa by his grant, bearing date the day of December 1722, the Dutch preſented memorial after memorial to the Imperial court, in hopes of getting the grant retracted; inſiſting that it was contrary to the treaty of Munſter, and other treaties, that the inhabitants of the Auſtrian, formerly the Spaniſh, Netherlands ſhould trade to the Eaſt-Indies; and ſeemed to charge the Emperor with ingratitude, by encroaching on their trade when they had done him ſo many ſignal ſervices in the late war, conquering whole kingdoms and provinces for him at a great expence of blood and treaſure.

This year the Emperor publiſhed an edict in favour of the Hungarian Proteſtants, allowing them the free exerciſe of their religion, and their ancient privileges. On the 5th of September his Imperial Majeſty was crowned King of Bohemia at Prague, and on the 8th the Empreſs was crowned Queen; it not being the cuſtom of this country, it ſeems, for the King and Queen to be crowned the ſame day.

Congreſs of Cambray.

The famous congreſs of Cambray, which had been ſo long talked of, was opened the 26th of January 1723-4; where the firſt things agreed on, were, that the Emperor ſhould grant the inveſtiture of the dutchies of Tuſcany, Parma and Placentia in Italy, to the Prince Don CARLOS Infante of Spain: and that the artillery taken away by the Spaniards, on their evacuating Sardinia, ſhould be reſtored to the King of Sardinia.

The Empire remaining in perfect peace, the year 1724 affords very little worth relating. The congreſs of Cambray, indeed, continued their conferences; but ſeemed to ſpend their time more in ceremony, or private cabals between particular Miniſters, than the buſineſs they were aſſembled about. The Emperor having determined to conſtitute the Archducheſs ELIZABETH, his eldeſt ſiſter, governor of the Auſtrian Netherlands, Prince EUGENE of Savoy reſigned that government, and was made Vicar-General of all the Auſtrian dominions in Italy, the higheſt poſt the Emperor could confer upon him, ſince the Viceroys of Naples and Sicily, the Governor of the Milaneze, and all other Imperial Officers and Generals in Italy receive their orders from him, and give obedience to them as to thoſe of the Emperor himſelf. 1724.

1725. Treaty of Vienna.

While the Miniſters of the ſeveral powers of Europe aſſembled at Cambray, were ſpending their time, to all appearance, in matters of ceremony, or diverſion, the Emperor and Spain entered into a treaty a treaty without the knowledge of the other powers, which was concluded at Vienna the 30th of April 1725; by which the Emperor acknowledges King PHILIP King of all the Spaniſh dominions in his poſſeſſion, confirms Sardinia to the Duke of Savoy, and the Dutchies of Tuſcany, Parma and Placentia to Don CARLOS Prince of Spain, on the death of the preſent Duke of Tuſcany, &c. and King PHILIP agrees to make over to Don CARLOS his ſon, the city of Porto Longone, with that part of the iſland of Elva in his poſſeſſion: and declares, that neither he nor any of his ſucceſſors to the crown of Spain ſhall ever have the guardianſhip of the Prince who ſhall poſſeſs any of thoſe Dutchies; nor ſhall be in a capacity to acquire, retain, or poſſeſs the leaſt thing in the ſaid Dutchies, or in Italy, or introduce his own troops, or foreigners into the ſaid Dutchies during the life of the preſent Princes: but the ſaid Prince Don CARLOS may however take poſſeſſion of the Dutchies as they devolve upon him. King PHILIP alſo renounces in favour of his Imperial Majeſty, all rights and pretenſions to the Spaniſh dominions in Italy, Sicily, Flanders, and elſewhere in the poſſeſſion of his Imperial Majeſty; but each party to ſtile himſelf King of Spain, &c. during his life: the publiſhing of which treaty put an end to the congreſs at Cambray.

A treaty of commerce alſo was ſigned between the Emperor and Spain on the firſt of May 1725, whereby Spain agrees, that the ſubjects of the Empire ſhould have the ſame privileges in point of commerce as the Engliſh and Dutch, or the moſt favoured nations; and ſhould have the liberty of vending their Eaſt-India merchandize brought over by the Oſtend company in any part of Spain.

Treaty of Hanover.

The Emperor alſo entered into an alliance offenſive and defenſive with Ruſſia and Poland, and other powers were invited to accede to the Vienna treaty. At the ſame time the Imperial Court ſeemed very intent upon promoting commerce; and not only encouraged the Oſtend company, but declared Trieſte, on the gulph of Venice, a free port. On the other hand, Great Britain, France, and Pruſſia, concluded a treaty on the third of September 1725; wherein the ſaid powers promiſe their mutual guaranty to protect and defend all their dominions, countries and cities, as well within as out of Europe, with all their rights and privileges, and particularly thoſe of trade, which the ſaid allies reſpectively enjoy; and if they cannot obtain juſtice by fair means, and any of the contracting powers ſhall be attacked, or moleſted in the ſaid particulars, that then the aboveſaid powers, within two months after demand, ſhall furniſh the following ſuccours, viz. his Britannick Majeſty, three thouſand foot, and four thouſand horſe. His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty eight thouſand foot, and four thouſand horſe. His Pruſſian Majeſty three thouſand foot, and two thouſand horſe. But if the party attacked, or injured, chuſes to be ſupplied with ſhips of war, or tranſports, or money, then the other parties ſhall furniſh him with ſhips or money in proportion to the expence of the troops above ſtipulated. And if the aboveſaid ſuccours are not ſufficient to redreſs the wrongs of the injured party, the contracting powers then agree to furniſh more forces; and in caſe of neceſſity, all their forces, and even to declare war againſt the aggreſſor. The contracting powers alſo agree to maintain the treaties of Oliva and Weſtphalia; and to invite other powers, eſpecially the States General, to accede to the preſent treaty. And the Kings of Great Britain and Pruſſia declare they will not furniſh their contingents of troops to the Empire againſt France in caſe of an offenſive war; and if either of them ſhould be compelled to it, he ſhould furniſh as many forces to aſſiſt France. And on the eighth of February following the States General acceded to the ſaid Hanover treaty.

Upon this treaty the Court of Vienna is ſaid to have made ſome very ſevere reflections; particularly, that this treaty being made by two Electors and Princes of the Empire with a foreign power againſt his Imperial Majeſty and the Empire, was contrary to thoſe ſolemn oaths of fidelity, which the Kings of England and Pruſſia ſwore openly with a loud voice before the Imperial Throne, and in the preſence of Almighty God to his Imperial Majeſty, and to the Holy Roman Empire at their inveſtiture. That it was an actual ſeparation from the whole Empire, and an union with thoſe who would probably be the declared enemies of it. That by this means the adminiſtration of juſtice, which is put into the hands of his Imperial Majeſty according to the capitulation at his election, and the laws of the Empire, are of no force with theſe contracting parties, but wholly deſtroyed; and they have aſſumed a power of acting according to their own will and pleaſure. The peace of the country alſo is at an end, by the bringing in of foreign troops, which is not allowed even to the Emperor himſelf. And the ſaid contracting powers may at any time ſeize by force the rights they have, or pretend to have, and ſecure them by foreign nations againſt the Majeſty of the Emperor, their ſupreme judge and lord, and againſt the other States of the Empire.

The Elector of Bavaria, MAXIMILIAN EMANUEL MARY, died this year on the 26th of February, in the ſixty-fourth year of his age, leaving his dominions to his eldeſt ſon CHARLES ALBERT CAJETAN, the electoral Prince.

1726.

In the beginning of the year 1726, we find the Britiſh miniſters complaining that an Engliſh courier was ſtopped at Belgrade in his return from Conſtantinople, and of a report which prevailed at this time in the court of Vienna, that his Britiſh Majeſty had not only cauſed the treaty of Hanover to be communicated to the Ottoman Porte, but that he had alſo endeavoured to excite the Turks to enter into a war with the Emperor; intimating that the alliance lately formed againſt him, gave the Sultan a favourable opportunity of recovering Temeſwaer and Belgrade. To which the Imperial miniſters anſwered, That it was true, they had received repeated advices from Conſtantinople, that the Britiſh Ambaſſador at the Porte, at an audience of the Grand Vizier, had endeavoured to excite the Turks againſt his Imperial Majeſty; and that all the foreign miniſters at Conſtantinople, with one conſent, had ſpoken of it as a matter both certain and publick; that ſuch informations as theſe, neceſſarily obliged the Emperor to uſe ſome precaution: whereupon orders were ſent on the 23d of January to all the Generals and commanding officers on the frontiers of Turky, to let no body paſs without giving notice thereof to the court. And an Engliſh courier, or meſſenger, afterwards arriving at Belgrade, under the character of a Merchant, the Duke of Wirtemberg, governour of Servia, could not avoid detaining him till further orders. The courier finding himſelf ſtopped, diſcovered the badge of an

Engliſh meſſenger, and delivered a letter from the Imperial reſident at the Porte, wherein he was ſo ſtiled. They leave the world therefore to judge whether the detaining ſuch a perſon as this in a frontier town, who was returning from ſuch an errand, and who was nevertheleſs releaſed out of regard to his Britannick Majeſty, can afford any room to require ſatisfaction for a violation of the law of nations, as the Britiſh miniſter ſtiles it: and if, on the other hand, his Imperial Majeſty had not reaſon to complain of theſe practices. What foundation the Imperialiſts had to charge his Britiſh Majeſty with inciting the Turk againſt Chriſtendom, I ſhall not determine; but certain it is, the Imperialiſts were under ſome apprehenſions of being attacked by the Porte; and entered into an alliance with Muſcovy by way of precaution, wherein it was ſtipulated, that in caſe his Imperial Majeſty's dominions ſhould be invaded by the Turks, Ruſſia ſhould bring forty thouſand men into the field to his aſſiſtance: and if the Turks ſhould invade Muſcovy, the Emperor ſhould declare war againſt the Turks, and make a diverſion on the ſide of Hungary.

This year iſſued an Imperial edict, prohibiting the importation of Engliſh manufactures into the Imperial dominions, as well as the importation of all India goods, except thoſe imported by the Oſtend company. And now things ſeemed to tend to a rupture between the allies of Vienna and Hanover.

CHAP. V.

Treats of the power of the Emperor; of his election and coronation; of the King of the Romans, and Electors; and of the general Diet.

CHAP. V.

Power of the Emperor.

THE power of the German Emperors hath not been at all times the ſame. CHARLEMAIN, who laid the foundation of this Empire, enjoyed great part of Germany, Hungary, France and Italy, of which he was abſolute monarch; and took the liberty of diſpoſing his dominions to his ſucceſſor on his death, as many ſucceeding Emperors did afterwards. But two things much abridged the power of theſe Emperors, one whereof was the encroachments of the See of Rome, which did not only aſſume an independency for themſelves and the ſeveral Princes and States in Italy from the Emperor's juriſdiction, but claimed a ſuperiority over all the Kings and Princes of the earth, and particularly over the German Emperor, whom they did not look upon as legally advanced to the throne without their concurrence; and held that he might be depoſed by the Pope, whenever the Holy Father ſhould charge him with hereſy, or male-adminiſtration. The Imperial power was alſo very much leſſened, and almoſt loſt by the many exorbitant grants made by ſucceeding Emperors to the governours of the ſeveral provinces, whom they inveſted with ſovereign power, and made hereditary in their reſpective governments: whereupon theſe great officers ſoon aſſumed an independency, and even a power of electing their Sovereign: and while the Emperors had ſcarce any other dominions than thoſe they were thus elected to, they made but an inconſiderable figure in Chriſtendom; but now their hereditary dominions, in which they are abſolute, are ſo much enlarged, the German Emperor may be reckoned one of the moſt potent Princes in Europe, eſpecially ſince the See of Rome hath loſt much of that influence it had in the days of bigotry and ſuperſtition. The Emperor is neither crowned or confirmed in his Imperial dignity by the Pope at preſent: on the contrary, ſome late Emperors have ventured to ſeize upon the lands of the Church in Italy, and made the Holy Father ſenſible it was in their power to cruſh him, ſince they have obtained the poſſeſſion of Milan, Naples and Sicily, which almoſt ſurround the territories of the Church.

The fountain of honour.

The Emperors, like other Sovereigns, are the fountains of honour in their dominions, and do not only conſtitute Dukes, Marquiſſes, Counts, &c. but have frequently taken upon them to create Kings: They have not indeed the power of making peace or war, or of levying taxes, without the conſent of the Electors, and other Princes of the Empire; neither can they make laws, or ſuſpend them without the conſent of the Diet, or aſſembly of the Eſtates: but their hereditary dominions are now ſo much enlarged, and they have ſuch a number of profitable poſts and honours at their diſpoſal, that the Princes of the Empire ſeem very much devoted to them, and ſeldom oppoſe any thing which his Imperial Majeſty propoſes. Since the late acquiſitions in Hungary, the Low Countries, and Italy, the Emperor has made a figure equal almoſt to his greateſt anceſtors; nor is there any power in Europe perhaps a match for him by land.

The next perſon to the Emperor is the King of the Romans, who has little authority but what he derives from the Emperor: in the Emperor's abſence indeed he uſually takes upon him the adminiſtration of the government; and after the Emperor's death, ſucceeds without any further election. The firſt occaſion of electing a King of the Romans, proceeded from a contrivance of ſome Emperors to ſecure the Imperial crown to their own families; they made uſe of their authority while they were in poſſeſſion of the throne, and eaſily influenced the Electors to chuſe a ſon, a brother, or ſome other near relation to be King of the Romans, which is now grown ſo cuſtomary, that the Empire ſeems to be entailed on the males of the Auſtrian family, it being much the ſame thing to elect a King of the Romans, as to chuſe an Emperor.

Electors.

The principal members of the Empire after the King of the Romans, are the nine Electors, of whom the three firſt are eccleſiaſtical, viz. the Electors of Mentz, Triers, and Cologne (who are alſo Arch-Chancellors of the Empire,) the King of Bohemia, the Duke of Bavaria, the Duke of Saxony, the Marquiſs of Brandenburgh, the Prince Palatine of the Rhine, and the Duke of Brunſwick. The number of the Electors till the peace of Munſter was only ſeven; but when the authority of chuſing their Emperors became limited to ſo ſmall a number, does not appear. After CHARLES the Great, the Empire was hereditary till the reign of HENRY IV. who being charged with male-adminiſtration, Pope GREGORY VII. excommunicated him, and declaring him unfit to reign, ordered him to be depoſed, which his rebel ſubjects ſoon put in execution; and being abſolved from their allegiance by his Holineſs, they took upon them to elect RODOLPH, Duke of Suabia, for their Emperor, about the year 1106. They alſo declared that the right of ſucceſſion ſhould be for ever aboliſhed, and the power of chuſing Emperors be lodged in the people. The German hiſtories are full of the confuſions that happened in the Empire on this revolution, and relate, that after ſome years, the lower rank of the people were deprived of their ſhare in electing their Emperor, and the whole power of election uſurped by ſome few of the great officers of the Imperial court. The right of election is annexed to their electoral principalities and eſtates, and as long as there is any male iſſue in any of the electoral families the power of electing the Emperor cannot be taken from them, but by the ban of the Empire, or a decree of Eſtates.

Every Elector is ſovereign in his dominions; they make laws, eſtabliſh courts of juſtice, coin money, levy taxes, and make alliances with other Princes of the Empire, or foreigners, raiſe fortifications, and make war or peace under ſome reſtrictions; but they cannot alter the value of money, or lay new tolls or cuſtoms in their reſpective territories without the conſent of the Diet; neither can they enter into ſuch confederacies as tend to the prejudice of the Empire, or are contrary to the fealty they have ſworn to the Emperor; and if they do, the States of the Empire may proceed againſt and diveſt them of their inheritances and the privileges of Electors.

Election of an Emperor.

Upon the death of the Emperor, (where there is no King of the Romans already elected) the Elector of Mentz, as High Chancellor of the Empire, and Dean of the electoral college, gives notice to the other Electors, that they appear at Francfort within the ſpace of a month, to elect a new Emperor, who is generally agreed on before they come to the place of Election. A day being appointed however, rather to publiſh than make election, they come in the morning to the town-houſe in their ordinary dreſs, and without any ceremony; here they put on their electoral habits, the three eccleſiaſtical Electors wearing ſcarlet robes with caps lined with ermine; and the ſecular Electors robes of crimſon velvet lined alſo with ermine. At the town-houſe they take horſe and march to St. Bartholomew's church, but without obſerving any order, only they are each of them attended with their reſpective hereditary Marſhals, carrying a ſword in a ſcabbard before each of them; but the deputies of the abſent Electors have not this honour paid them. When the Electors come to the church, they alight at the gate, and go to their reſpective ſeats in the choir, being followed by ſeveral Princes and Counts of the Empire, the ſeveral ſword-bearers ſtanding before the reſpective Electors with their ſwords drawn, and laid on their ſhoulders. Divine ſervice beginning, at the ſinging the hymn of Veni Creator, the Proteſtant Electors withdraw till maſs is over, after which they return and take the following oath with the reſt at the altar, viz. That without regard to any ſolicitations, promiſes, or rewards, they will elect ſuch a perſon for Emperor, as they believe in their conſciences is fit to govern the world. The qualifications required in the Emperor to be elected are, that he be a Chriſtian Prince of German extraction, not under twenty-eight years of age, and capable of ſuſtaining the character of his Imperial Majeſty. The hymn being ſung once again, they go to the place appointed for the election, being a ſmall vaulted gallery, which goes out of the choir, and the Emperor is choſen by a majority of voices, of which the perſon elected may be one: then they come out, and place the Emperor elect upon the altar, if he be preſent, where the Archbiſhop of Mentz recommends to him the intereſts of the Empire, and preſents him with the capitulation or conditions on which he is choſen, to ſign; after which the election is publiſhed, and the new Emperor proclaimed.

Coronation.

At the Coronation the Electors, or their Ambaſſadors, attend the Emperor from his palace to the church in their robes in the following order; the Elector Palatine with the crown, the Elector of Bavaria with the globe, and the Elector of Brandenburgh with the ſcepter, march firſt abreaſt; the Elector of Saxony carries the ſword, and the Elector of Hanover the ſtandard. (As to the other ſecular Elector, the King of Bohemia, he has been the perſon elected for ſeveral generations, being the eldeſt ſon of the deceaſed Emperor.) At the door of the church the Emperor is received by the three eccleſiaſtical Electors in their robes, who attend him to the altar; and the Archbiſhop who officiates, anoints his head, and between his ſhoulders, his neck, breaſt, and right arm; then he is brought to another altar and crowned, being clothed with the ancient Imperial robes, and afterwards conducted to the throne, where the Archbiſhop bids him receive and keep the pledge which was deſigned for him by providence. Then Te Deum is ſung, and the trumpets and muſick proclaim the general joy.

General Diet.

When a general Diet, or an aſſembly of the States of the Empire is to be held, the Emperor iſſues out his ſummons to the ſeveral Princes and other members of the Diet, acquainting them with the time and place of their ſitting; and they are bound by their allegiance to appear at the day appointed, either in perſon or by proxy. More than half of the aſſembly uſually conſiſts of ſuch ſubſtitutes as have no voices of their own, but come to vote for their maſters; which is one of the principal occaſions of the ſlow proceedings of their Diets: for it often happens, that the perſons deputed have not full inſtructions, and are forced to ſend to their maſters for new inſtructions before they will venture to give their voices. Sometimes the Emperor requires them by the ſummons to repair in perſon to the place appointed, on account of the importance of the matters to be debated: whereupon if they do not appear, they either ſend in no deputies at all, or make their Ambaſſadors plenipotentiaries, giving them authority to vote and act as if they themſelves were actually preſent. Ratiſbon is now become the uſual place for the meeting of the Diet; but it has been held at Mentz, Augſburgh, and other cities; the Emperors ſeem only reſtrained not to hold it without the bounds of the Empire.

When any of the members of the aſſembly, or their Ambaſſadors, arrive at the place appointed, they firſt procure an audience of the Emperor, to whom they produce their ſummons, and thank his Imperial Majeſty for calling the Diet, promiſing their utmoſt endeavours to promote the general good of the Empire at the following ſeſſion; and the Ambaſſadors are obliged to give the reaſons of their maſter's abſence. After this they acquaint the marſhal of the Empire with their arrival, who provides every man quarters ſuitable to his quality, and regiſters their names. They alſo give in their names at the Chancellor's office, who is the Archbiſhop of Mentz, to be recorded with their credentials,

The Emperor alone propoſes what is to be debated in the Diet: the members can introduce nothing. His Imperial Majeſty alſo can adjourn any debate from time to time. The point of precedency among the Electors has been long ſince ſettled by the Golden Bull: but the other Princes and repreſentatives of cities have not agreed upon the matter to this day; inſomuch that it occaſions perpetual quarrels, and the Diet would ſometimes break up in confuſion, if ſome of them did not for peace-ſake yield to the reſt, entring a proteſt only that this ſingle inſtance ſhould not be made a precedent.

Amongſt the Electors, the Elector of Mentz takes the poſt of honour, ſitting in the middle, with the other two ſpiritual Electors, Cologne and Treves, on each ſide of him, who take the right hand by turns: next to them are the Dukes of Saxony, Bavaria, and Hanover on the left; and the King of Bohemia, the Electors Palatine and Brandenburgh on the right. Below theſe ſit the eccleſiaſtical Princes on the right, and the ſecular Princes on the left, and after them the Deputies of the towns.

On the ſpiritual bench anciently ſat the Archduke of Auſtria and the Duke of Burgundy, though ſecular Princes, in regard to their eminence in the Empire. The Lutheran Prelates were formerly excluded this aſſembly; but by the Weſtphalian treaty they obtained ſeats in the Diet; not among the Roman Prelates or ſecular Princes, but between the one and the other. And ſince the archbiſhoprick of Magdeburg is turned into a dukedom, and the biſhopricks of Lubec and Oſnabrug into ſecular principalities, all the reformed Princes, except the Electors, ſit on the ſecular bench which is appointed for the Princes, Counts, and Barons of the Empire, who have voices in the Diet.

The eccleſiaſtical and ſecular Princes of the Empire, and all Prelates who have princely dignities annexed to their functions, with the Maſter of the Teutonick order, have each of them ſingle voices; but the reſt who can claim no temporal principality, give their voices by companies, of which kind are the two benches of Suabia and the Rhine. Formerly the Counts and Barons of the Empire had but two voices, and were therefore divided into two benches, as the prelates are now. Afterwards, at a Diet held in the year 1641, the Counts of Franconia had a voice allowed them by themſelves; and in the year 1654, a vote was given to the Counts of Saxony and Weſtphalia; ſo that at preſent there are four benches of Counts, viz. thoſe of Suabia, Wetteraw, Franconia, and Weſtphalia, who have votes in the general Diet.

The repreſentatives, or deputies of the Imperial cities, make the third and laſt rank of members in the Diet; but when they firſt obtained this privilege is very uncertain. Their deputies at preſent are divided into two benches; the one called the bench of the Rhine, and the other the Suabian bench. On the firſt ſit the repreſentatives of Lubec, the free cities upon the Rhine, in Wetteraw, Alſace, Saxony, and Thuringia; and on the other, the repreſentatives of the free cities in Suabia and Franconia. The repreſentatives of the city where the Diet is held ſit at a table by themſelves, and take an account of the voices of the other deputies, which are regiſtered by the two regiſters of Ulm and Spire; one of them repreſenting the cities in the circle of the Rhine, and the other the cities of the circle of Suabia.

It is generally ſaid, that if we divide the time of any ſeſſion of the Diet into four parts, one is ſpent in diſputes about precedency; a ſecond and better in drinking-matches; a third in diſputes about their privileges, with the Emperor; and ſcarce a fourth upon the buſineſs propoſed to them from the throne, which uſually relates to peace and war, the making or reviving laws, the regulating the coin, raiſing taxes, &c.

CHAP. VI.

Treats of the courts of juſtice, and laws of the Empire.

CHAP. VI.
Courts of juſtice.

ANTIENTLY, the Emperor aſſiſted by the biſhops and great officers of the crown decided all eccleſiaſtical cauſes in the Empire, but the ſecular Princes received juſtice only in the general Diets: but as law-ſuits multiplied, and it appeared impracticable for the Emperor to hear every cauſe, and the ſuiters underwent great hardſhips in following the court from one part of Germany to another, the Emperor Maximilian I. ſettled a court of judicature at Worms, which was removed to Francfort, and afterwards to Spire; from whence it cannot be removed but by the conſent of all the States. The aſſeſſors appointed as judges of this court, were at firſt but ſixteen, but have ſince been increaſed to fifty. The Emperor names the ſupreme judge, and four of the principal officers: every Elector names one aſſeſſor, and the reſt are appointed by the ſeveral circles or benches in the Diet; and as thoſe who appoint the aſſeſſors, are ſome of them of the church of Rome, and others of them Proteſtants; this court is compoſed of both, but the greater number of the aſſeſſors are of the Roman communion. There lies no appeal from this court; but the members of it, however, may be called to an account for any unjuſt proceedings. An appeal lies hither from all inferior and provincial courts; but this is ſeldom done, on account of the ſlowneſs of their proceedings, ſome cauſes being ſtill depending here which were commenced many years ago.

There is another high court of juſtice in the Emperor's palace, wherever he reſides, called *Der Roichs Hoffrat*, or the Dutch King's Bench; which I take to be the ſame with that generally called the Aulick Council. Here the Emperor himſelf is ſupreme judge, being aſſiſted by certain aſſeſſors, both Popiſh and Proteſtant; but the Emperor's place is uſually ſupplied by a preſident. Whether this or the court of Spire has the greater authority is a mighty diſpute I perceive among ſome; but as they have each of them cognizance of the ſame kind of cauſes, and there is no appeal from one court to the other, they ſeem to be pretty much upon the level. As to the inferior and provincial courts, theſe will be taken notice of in the deſcription of the reſpective provinces and great towns where they are held.

Laws.
Bulla Aurea.

The Civil Law is generally obſerved in all courts of the Empire, and to this are added ſome decrees, to which they pay an equal regard: as firſt, the Golden Bull, a ſmall parchment book, containing thirty chapters, and about twenty-four leaves, publiſhed by Charles IV. with the approbation of the greateſt part of the Princes, Counts, Barons, and other States of the Empire; and contains all the fundamental laws relating to the time, place and perſons requiſite to the due election of the Emperor, the number and privileges of the Electors, the order they are to obſerve in all publick ſolemnities, and the appointing Vicars in

Capitulatio Cæſarea.

Acts of the Diet.

Sanctio Pragmatica.

the time of an interregnum; the ſeal annexed to which decree being of gold, the inſtrument obtained the name of the Golden Bull, or Edict, which was held to be irrevocable. But notwithſtanding it is appointed by this Bull, that the Electors ſhould not exceed ſeven, we find they are now multiplied to nine. 2. The Capitulatio Cæſarea, being a collection of forty or fifty articles between the Electors and the Emperor at his coronation, to the obſervation whereof his Imperial Majeſty obliges himſelf by his oath, is another conſiderable part of the municipal laws of the Empire: by this he promiſes to maintain the privileges of the Electors, Princes, and other ſubjects of the Empire: that he will not alienate or diminiſh the revenues of the crown, or bring foreign troops into the Empire without the conſent of the Electors, &c. That no foreigner ſhall be admitted to any publick employment; but all places at court ſhall be filled with native Germans of ſome noble family. 3. The third kind of laws the Germans are governed by, are the acts of their general Diets, which ſeem to differ from our acts of parliament only in this, namely, that the concurrence of the citizens and burgeſſes is not neceſſary to the eſtabliſhing an act, though they are allowed to give their opinions of the expediency of what is about to be enacted. 4. The Sanctio Pragmatica, which principally regards the preſervation of the peace of the Empire: wherein it is decreed, That if any Prince, or other member of the Empire, ſhall endeavour by open hoſtility to diſturb the publick peace of the whole body, he ſhall be cut off from the other members, and deemed an out-law. As to the laws of the particular provinces, theſe will be taken notice of, as we paſs through them.

CHAP. VII.

Treats of the modern religion, and eccleſiaſtical government of Germany.

CHAP. VII. Converſion of the Germans.

SOME German writers pretend, that Germany was converted to the Chriſtian religion by the Apoſtles, but it is generally held that Chriſtianity was not introduced here until the ſecond century, and then only in thoſe parts of it which were ſubjected to the Romans.

In the eighth century ſeveral miſſionaries were ſent over from England, who converted that part of the country which lies between the Rhine and the Weſer: afterwards CHARLES the Great, conquering the pagan Saxons, eſtabliſhed the Chriſtian religion amongſt them; and the Bohemians and Moravians were not converted till ſome years after.

Reformation.

Luther.

Zuinglius.

Calvin.

About the year 1517 happened a reformation of religion in this country, in which MARTIN LUTHER was moſt inſtrumental. For the Archbiſhop of Mentz not being able to pay the large ſums the Pope expected from him, procured leave of his Holineſs to ſell his pardons and indulgencies in all the great towns of Germany; and deputed one Friar TEKEL, his agent, to publiſh every where a pardon for all manner of ſins, paſt, preſent, and to come, to thoſe who would purchaſe them. LUTHER hearing of this, proteſted againſt the proceeding; and diſputed openly at Wittemberg and Leipſick, againſt thoſe who aſſerted the Pope's power of granting pardons and indulgencies, notwithſtanding he was threatned with excommunication, and being condemned for a heretick: but the Elector of Saxony approving of his doctrines, and ſupporting him, he was the more encouraged to propagate them in other parts of Germany, where the Dukes of Brunſwick and Lunenburgh, Wirtemburgh, Mecklenburgh, Pomerania, the Marquis of Brandenburgh, the Landgrave of Heſſe, and moſt of the Imperial cities became his diſciples: and theſe drew up a proteſtation, containing the points wherein they differed from the church of Rome, and preſented it to the Imperial chamber at Spire, anno 1529; whereupon they were called Proteſtants. The following year, they delivered in a confeſſion at Augſburg, from thence called the Augſburg confeſſion; and refuſing to recede from the opinions they profeſſed therein, the Emperor CHARLES V. endeavoured to reduce them by force. But after a long war, with various ſucceſs, he was content to grant them a toleration at Paſſau, in the year 1552; which was afterwards confirmed to them at Augſburg, anno 1555. About two years after LUTHER had began the reformation in Germany, viz. in the year 1519, ZUINGLIUS, a canon of the church of Zurich in Switzerland, began alſo to oppoſe the church of Rome, declaring againſt the maſs, images, the invocation of ſaints, &c. and made ſuch numbers of diſciples, that the maſs was aboliſhed in the year 1526, by the ſenate at Zurich, as it was two years after at Bern. But the differences between theſe two reformers, in relation to the ſacrament of the LORD's Supper (the Lutherans holding conſubſtantiation, and the Zuinglians denying the elements to be any more than bare ſigns of CHRIST's body and blood) was a great hinderance to the progreſs of the reformation. LUTHER and ZUINGLIUS met to try if they could reconcile their doctrines; but to no purpoſe: the breach grew wider between them, and their reſpective diſciples from thenceforward became mortal enemies to one another. The famous CALVIN ſucceeded ZUINGLIUS at Zurich; adding ſeveral new opinions to the doctrines preached by his predeceſſor, ſuch as predeſtination, free-will, and final perſeverance, which made the two ſects irreconcileable: and it was obſerved, that CALVIN's doctrines ſpread further and faſter than thoſe of LUTHER; eſpecially in France, Scotland, the Netherlands, and ſome parts of Germany: while the kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and other parts of Germany adhered to LUTHER's doctrine. And the Lutherans, to ſhow their inſuperable averſion to the Calviniſts, in the great church at Leipſick, have drawn the pictures of the Devil, IGNATIUS LOYOLA, and JOHN CALVIN, and hung them up in one frame, with this inſcription, The three great enemies of CHRIST, and of the Chriſtian religion. Nor are the Calviniſts at all behind hand with them in reproachful and reviling expreſſions. At preſent it is computed, that the Calviniſts get ground of the Lutherans in Germany, being ſupported by the Court of Pruſſia, which is zealouſly affected to CALVIN; and the States General encourage no other doctrines but CALVIN's, though they tolerate all religions. In France indeed, neither the one or the other can be profeſſed openly. But to return to Germany: much the greateſt part of this Empire ſtill adhere to the Popiſh religion. However, the doctrines of the reformers have produced this effect, that many biſhopricks have been converted into ſecular principalities, and a new form of church-government ſet up in many places inſtead of the epiſcopal.

CHAP. VII.

Eccleſiaſtical government.

Biſhops.

Thoſe biſhops who are ſtill of the Roman communion exerciſe a greater authority in their dioceſs than any prelates in Europe. They are moſt of them temporal Princes, and have as abſolute a dominion over their ſubjects, ſpiritual and temporal, as the ſecular Electors have of the laity in their territories. Beſides the three eccleſiaſtical Electors, there were formerly five Archbiſhops, and thirty Biſhops, who had voices in the Diet of the Empire: but the archbiſhopricks of Magdeburg, Bremen and Riga, with the biſhopricks of Halberſtat, Minden, and Verden, have ſince the reformation been turned into ſecular principalities: Thoſe of Metz, Toul, Verdun, Beſançon, and Straſburgh, have been cut off from the Empire, and united to France or Lorrain: and thoſe of Valeſia, Loſanna, and Coire, have been aboliſhed by the Switzers. So that except the eccleſiaſtical Electors, there is in the college of the Princes of the Empire only the Archbiſhop of Saltſburgh, and ſeventeen or eighteen Biſhops, who have votes. The loſs of theſe biſhopricks, it is obſerved, is a great diſadvantage to the younger brothers of great houſes, who uſed to get a handſom maintenance by being preferred to them: whereas they enjoy now little more than the title of their elder brother, and are not allowed any part of the inheritance of their anceſtors; the court or the army is their only refuge at preſent. The biſhoprick of Lubec is ſtill an eccleſiaſtical preferment, though it be in the hands of the Lutherans, and is in the gift of the Dukes of Sleſwick and Holſtein. The Archbiſhop of Saltſburgh is the firſt German Prelate, being born legate of the See of Rome, and gives place to none but the Electors in the publick Diets. The other Roman Biſhops, who have ſtill a voice in the Diets of the Empire, are Bamberg, Wirtzburg, Wormes, Spire, Eichſtedt, Augſburg, Conſtance, Hildeſheim, Paderborn, Munſter, Oſnabrug, Paſſau, Friſingen, Liege, Trent, Brix, and Bazil; of which Oſnabrug belongs to the Lutheran Princes by turns, being lately poſſeſſed by his Britiſh Majeſty's uncle, the Duke of York. The late Dukes of Hanover alſo poſſeſſed themſelves of Hildeſheim, but it was reſtored to the Elector of Cologne, to whom it belonged, by the treaty of Brunſwick, anno 1653. Vienna is alſo a biſhoprick, ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Saltſburg.

The Emperor anciently had the election and inveſtiture of all the Biſhops in his dominions; but this afterwards became the ſubject of much contention between the Pope and his Imperial Majeſty, till the council of Trent gave the ſole power of conferring dignities and prelacies to the Pope, not only in Germany, but in all parts of Chriſtendom; and HENRY V. was compelled to yield the inveſtiture, &c. to the Pope, and diveſt himſelf of the right which his anceſtors enjoyed.

Abbots, &c.

There are other eccleſiaſtical Princes, beſides Biſhops, who have voices in the Diets of the Empire; the firſt of whom is the Great Maſter of the Teutonick order, the Abbots of Fulda, Hirſesfield, Murback, Kempten, Corbray, Prum, Stabel, Ludors, the Grand Prior of Malta, the Provoſts of Elvang, and Bereſſolaguden; theſe ſit below the Biſhops. There are alſo three and twenty other Prelates, and fourteen Abbeſſes, who are placed below the ſecular Princes; but theſe have no voices in a full body any more than the Counts. The Abbeſſes ſend their repreſentatives to the Diets of the Empire, being excuſed a perſonal appearance, upon account of their ſex. The three and twenty inferior Prelates have either the title of Provoſt, Abbot, or Bailiff, of ſome particular place, and the revenues annexed to their dignities are frequently equal to thoſe of Princes.

CHAP. VII.

Proteſtants.

The Proteſtants in the German Empire, whether Lutherans or Calviniſts, acknowledge the ſupremacy of the Prince under whom they live, who is appealed to by unanimous conſent, as ſupreme judge in ſpiritual as well as temporal cauſes; but the church-diſcipline of the Calviniſts and Lutherans is very different: the Calviniſts have neither biſhops, or ſuperintendants; whereas the Lutherans have their general and particular ſuperintendants; the general ſuperintendants anſwering to our archbiſhops, and the particular ſuperintendants to biſhops; and in the dominions of every Prince is held a conſiſtory, which anſwers to our convocation. This aſſembly have the power of degrading and puniſhing offenders, and of making rules or canons, for the better government of the clergy. The ſuperintendants viſit their dioceſes once a year, and make a ſtrict enquiry into the doctrine and manners of all the clergy under their care. There are ſome Lutheran Princes that have the title of Biſhops, who are as abſolute in their dioceſes as ſecular monarchs in their temporal dominions; and have an unlimited command over both clergy and laity. The countries in Germany where the Lutheran opinions chiefly prevail, are thoſe of Saxony, Brandenburgh, Brunſwick, Lunenburgh, Holſtein, Mecklenburgh, Wirtemburgh, Darmſtat, Dourlach, Lawenburgh, and Eaſt-Friezland. But there are great numbers of Calviniſts among them, which ſect ſeems to gain ground of the Lutherans.

CHAP. VIII.

Treats of the ſeveral degrees of nobility and gentry in Germany; *and of the Imperial cities and Hans towns.*

CHAP. VIII.

The original of Dukes.

THE ancient Germans, according to Cæſar, had their Duces, or leaders in time of war, by them called Heertzogen, who commanded as abſolutely as our modern Generals, having the power of life and death. And thus we ſee it was in moſt of the countries we have paſſed through; Dux, or Captain, appears to have been the firſt title that ſovereign Princes took upon them, eſpecially in the north of Europe: but ſome writers ſeem very poſitive that theſe German leaders, or Heertzogen, conſtantly laid down their employments, and ſubmitted to a private life ſo ſoon as the ſervice they were choſen for was accompliſhed; for, ſay they, the Germans had ſcarce any ſtanding magiſtracy in time of peace; but when any man had a controverſy with his neighbour, they choſe one out of the villages they lived in to decide the matter in diſpute: and theſe temporary judges were called Graffen, or Graven Graffin, in the old Saxon language, ſignifying a Judge; and Die Graffen, a grey-headed Elder of the people, to whoſe age and experience they paid an uncommon regard.

But the Germans were a very happy people, if they never pitched upon a General who was unwilling to return to his former private ſtate, eſpecially if he had been any time in his command. If ſome of them did ſubmit to a private life, it is as much as can be expected; for men were ſurely capable of ambition, and fond of raiſing their families above the common level in thoſe days, as well as theſe; and indeed, ever ſince the world began: and conſequently ſome of theſe Generals muſt have endeavoured to obtain the dominion of the people they commanded, either by their conſent, or otherwiſe; and that in fact it was ſo, may very well be preſumed from this, that the firſt Princes had the name of Dux or Captain conferred upon them; even in ſcripture we find the Prince ſtiled the Leader, or Captain of his people. Again, if the Germans had no other civil magiſtrates than thoſe of their own chuſing out of the old men of every village, and thoſe but to ſerve a preſent turn; is it to be ſuppoſed, that any offender ſhould voluntarily ſubmit to the ſentence paſſed upon him, eſpecially where it extended to life or limb, where there was no power to enforce the execution of it? or, if there were no ſanguinary puniſhments in thoſe days, who would contentedly part with his lands or goods to make reparation for an injury, if he could avoid it? This muſt have been a golden age indeed, when either there were no injuries done, or there needed no compulſion to oblige an offender to make ſatisfaction. But theſe doctrines are advanced chiefly for the ſake of a people who look upon all government to be unjuſt and tyrannical, which is not derived from the multitude, and may not be ſubverted by them at pleaſure. But to return to Germany; whatever authority the ancient Dukes and Graves had among the Germans, the Dukes and Counts afterwards appointed by the Romans, when they had the poſſeſſion of part of this country, were inveſted with a power not much inferior to that of ſovereign Princes; but the Romans being maſters of little to the eaſtward of the Rhine, theſe parts retained their ancient form of government until the Franks ſubdued them; who, in imitation of the Romans, reduced all Germany into provinces, over which they placed ſo many Dukes, whom they intruſted both with the civil and military power. To theſe Dukes, according to Dr. NICHOLSON, they ſometimes added aſſiſtants or deputies, who from their office were called Counts or *Comites*. The Duke was generally of ſome noble family; and upon his death, if there was no material objection againſt it, his ſon was appointed to ſucceed him; from whence theſe Dukes at length came to inſiſt on a right of ſucceeding their anceſtors, and refuſed to pay homage to the German Emperors, every Duke taking upon him to exerciſe regal power in his province; from whence there has ſprung up ſo many independent Princes in this Empire.

Counts.

Of Counts there are at preſent various kinds, as, 1. The Schlecht Graven, or ſimple Count, ſo ſtiled from ſome ſmall caſtle or territory, of which they are lords. 2. Counts Palatine, called Pfaltz Graven, or Palſgrave, are ſuch as have a certain eminence in their dignity from the relation they bear to the Emperor's court or palace; for Palatinus ſignifies an officer of the houſhold: and this title is either originally feudal, and annexed to the name of ſome territory with ſuch *Jura Imperii & Majeſtatis*, as other Princes of the Empire want, as in the title of the Counts Palatine of the Rhine; or merely perſonal, without the addition of any particular territory appropriated to him that hath the dignity. Of the firſt kind, was that great officer in the kingdom of the Franks (long before it was converted into an Empire) called *Comes Palatii*, or Count Palatine, who was vicegerent to the King, as the *Præfecti Prætorio* were to the old Roman Emperors: and the reaſon the title of Palatine was conferred on the governors of provinces remote from the court ſeems to be, that theſe governors were inveſted with all the royalties, and *Jura Imperii* in their reſpective provinces, as the Counts Palatine enjoyed at court; being ſo many viceroys in their particular territories. 3. Counts of the Empire, which were originally ſo made by patent, as the Lord ARUNDEL of Wardour was in the reign of Queen ELIZABETH by the Emperor RODOLPH II. in conſideration of his ſervices, whereby he obtained a ſeat in the Imperial Diets, the privileges of purchaſing in the Empire, and to be exempt from all judicatures, but that of the Imperial chamber. 4. Marcgraves, or Marquiſſes, Counts of the frontiers; ſo ſtiled from the word Marken, or marſhes, as we ſtile them in England, which ſignifies the utmoſt marks or limits of the Empire, or Kingdom. 5. Landtgraves, or Counts of provinces, who have the ſupreme government of ſome particular diſtrict. And, 6. Burgraves, or Counts of great towns or fortreſſes; Burg in the High-Dutch ſignifying a caſtle or fort.

Marquiſſes.

Barons.

The next degree of nobility to theſe Counts or Earls is that of Freyhern, or Barons. The word Freyhern ſignifies free Lords, ſuch as are not tenants, or hold of any ſuperior Lord: and though ſometimes it ſignifies no more than Laird in Scotland, or Lord of a manor; yet uſually this title is given only to ſuch as hold conſiderable territories and juriſdictions of the Emperor; and ſome German lawyers and heralds maintain, that a Baron or Freyhern, differ only from a Grave or Count in name and title, but is the ſame thing in dignity aud juriſdiction. BESOLDUS, a German writer, ſays, a Baron is equal to a Count, only the former is ceremoniouſly inveſted into his territories, and the other is not.

Knights.

The only Knights of the Empire, beſides thoſe of the Teutonick Order, (of whom mention has been made already, and who are at this day of very little repute) are the dubbed Knights, whom the Emperor, like other Princes, creates by ſtriking them lightly on the ſhoulders with a naked ſword, and ſaying to each of them, *Eſte Miles Dei & Sancti Stephani*. As for the title of *Armiger*, or Eſquire, it is not known in the Empire. A Gentleman in Germany is called *Edel lute*, and ſignifies ſuch as from the blood of their anceſtors, the favour of their Prince, or their own merit are raiſed above the multitude. Some of theſe Gentlemen in Franconia, Suabia, and upon the Rhine, are free from taxes, and ſubject to no other courts but the Emperor's; and have the title of Free Gentlemen, or *Ordo Equeſtris*. I have now paſſed through all the degrees of nobility and honours in the Empire; and ſhall only obſerve further, that though none but the eldeſt ſon of a nobleman can inherit his eſtate and lands, yet all the children are entitled alike to his honour, which occaſions a very neceſſitous nobility.

Gentlemen.

Imperial cities.

As the Princes of the Empire took advantage of the neceſſities, or indulgence of the German Emperors, to erect the governments they held in the capacity of Viceroys, or Governors, into independent principalities; ſo did the cities now called Free and Imperial. The Emperors, frequently wanting ſupplies of money to carry on their wars, or for other occaſions, borrowed large ſums of the wealthy trading towns, and paid them again in munificent grants and privileges; making them Free States, and independent of the governors of the provinces where they ſtood. Accordingly, theſe cities exerciſe all kinds of ſovereign power;

they make laws, conſtitute courts of juſtice, coin money, raiſe forces, and enter into alliances and confederacies for their defence. They have alſo their ſeats in the Diet, as has been obſerved already, only acknowledging the Emperor for their ſupreme Lord, and contributing their ſhare towards the common defence of their country. I ſhall not enumerate the Imperial cities here, becauſe particular notice will be taken of them hereafter in the deſcription of the ſeveral provinces, or circles of the Empire where they ſtand: but proceed now to enquire how thoſe cities which have obtained the name of Hans Towns, came to be diſtinguiſhed from the reſt.

Hans Towns.

The moſt general opinion is, that the word *Hanſe*, or *Anſe*, for it is written both ways, is derived from the Dutch *Am-ſee*, which ſignifies near to, or ſituate on the ſea ſhore, as the firſt Hans Towns were, lying along the ſouthern coaſts of the Baltick, from the gulf of Finland to Lubec, and from thence to the mouth of the Rhine; which towns, ſome time between the years twelve and thirteen hundred, entered into a ſtrict alliance for the advancement of their trade and mutual defence; and for near two hundred years ingroſſed moſt of the trade of Europe. Theſe cities were about fifty in number, and divided into four circles, diſtinguiſhed by the name of their principal cities; namely, Lubec, Collen, Brunſwick and Dantzick. In each of theſe four cities was held an high-court of juſtice, to determine ſuch cauſes as happened within its proper circle; Lubec was the capital of all the Hans Towns; on which account all the other cities make uſe of the ſeal of Lubec in all their publick inſtruments; and this city had an advocate at the Imperial Chamber of Spire to take care of the intereſt of the Hans Towns; and had a power of ſummoning all the members of the Hanſeatick Body to meet there in caſes which concerned their common intereſt: and theſe aſſociated towns became at length ſo conſiderable, as to obtain great privileges from many Princes in Europe. The port-towns they chiefly reſorted to abroad were London, Narva, Bruges, and Bergen in Norway. In London the place where their ware-houſes ſtood was called the Steel-yard, becauſe that was the chief merchandize they dealt in. Theſe merchants did not only apply themſelves to trade, but when they became powerful, intereſted themſelves in moſt of the controverſies, which happened between the northern Powers, and became umpires of their differences, their fleet being ſuperior to that of any Prince in that part of the world: and thus they continued to flouriſh for about two hundred years, till the reſt of the nations of Europe applied themſelves more to navigation, and to import and export merchandize in their own bottoms; and then this ſociety began to decline, and is at preſent diſſolved: but there are however ſeveral of the Hans Towns ſtill conſiderable for their trade, ſuch as Dantzick, Lubec, and Hamburgh, as may be obſerved in the deſcription of thoſe places.

AUSTRIA.

CHAP. IX.

Contains a deſcription of the circle of Auſtria, with the provinces included in it.

CHAP. IX. Auſtria.

Bounds and extent of Auſtria.

WITHIN the circle of Auſtria are contained not only the archdukedom of Auſtria, but the dutchies of Styria, Carinthia, Carniola; the counties of Goreitz, Cilley, and Tyrol; and the biſhopricks of Brixen and Trent, which territories are bounded by Bohemia and Moravia on the north; by the kingdom of Hungary on the eaſt; by the dominions of the republick of Venice towards the ſouth; and by Bavaria towards the weſt; and are in length from eaſt to weſt near three hundred miles, and about two hundred from north to ſouth. It received the name of Auſtria, or Oſtria, on account of its eaſtern ſituation, with regard to other parts of the Empire, and was anciently called Pannonia Superior. After the Romans quitted it, the Boiarii poſſeſſed themſelves of the country, and it became part of the great dukedom of Bavaria. The Emperor OTHO firſt erected it into a ſeparate marquiſate; and the Emperor RODOLPH I. made his ſon ALBERT the firſt Arch-duke of Auſtria, a title which was never given to any other principality, as I can learn. From the time Auſtria was erected into an archdutchy, it increaſed in grandeur every day; for not only the countries of Carinthia, Styria, Tyrol, and Alſatia were added to it, but by the marriage of MAXIMILIAN of Auſtria, with MARY of Burgundy, the ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries, with the Franche Comte were added to his dominions: and by the marriage of PHILIP, ſon of the ſaid MAXIMILIAN, with JANE of Spain, great part of Spain, with Naples, Sicily, and the Spaniſh dominions in America, devolved on the Auſtrian family.

Diviſion.

Auſtria Proper is divided into the Upper and Lower Auſtria. The Lower Auſtria is ſo called from being ſituated lower down the Danube than the other, and is ſeparated from the Higher by the river Ens, which falls into the Danube near a city of the ſame name.

Towns in Lower Auſtria.

Vienna.

The chief towns in Lower Auſtria, are, 1. Vienna, or Wien, the capital of the province, and the metropolis of the Empire, ſituate on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, on a branch of that river, which here divides itſelf into many ſtreams, forming ſeveral ſmall iſlands. The river Wien, which gives its name to the place, flows on the eaſt part of the city, falling into the Danube a little below it. Vienna lies in the latitude of forty-eight degrees twenty minutes, ſixteen degrees odd minutes to the eaſtward of London. The city itſelf within the walls is not three Engliſh miles in circumference. It is divided by twelve baſtions, ten whereof are towards the land, and two on the north-ſide towards the river, and has held out ſeveral ſieges againſt the Turks; the laſt of which was in the year 1683, when the place was reduced to extremity, and relieved in a very critical hour by JOHN SOBIESKI, King of Poland. This town is fortified after the modern way; but there are many ſtronger in the Emperor's dominions, the brave defence it has ſeveral times made againſt the numerous forces of the Turks, may rather be aſcribed to the number and goodneſs of the German troops in the town, and the vigilance of their Generals, both within and without, than to the fineneſs of the fortification; but probably it will not endure a ſiege theſe many years again, now the Germans have extended their frontiers ſo far beyond it, and have ſuch towns as Buda and Belgrade between them and the enemy.

The ſtreets of the town are rather narrow than wide, and the houſes built of ſtone, uſually five or ſix ſtories high, and flat roofed, and they have three or four cellars one under another. The principal publick buildings taken notice of by travellers are,

1. The Imperial palace, conſiſting of two magnificent courts, and a third which is leſs, being the lodgings of the pages, the whole very richly furniſhed. The churches and convents of the Carmelites, Franciſcans, Benedictines, and the church of the Auſtin friars, are much admired, the model of the laſt being taken from that of the holy houſe at Loretto. The Jeſuits colleges particularly are very fine here, as in all other popiſh countries; and before one of them ſtands a column of copper upon a pedeſtal of white ſtone, with the bleſſed Virgin on the top of it. On the pillar are ſeveral inſcriptions, declaring that Auſtria is dedicated to her patronage by his Imperial Majeſty. But among others, here is a convent of Scots, for hither it ſeems thoſe of that nation uſed to reſort in their pilgrimages to Jeruſalem; and one of their ſaints being murdered in this country, obtained the honour of martyrdom. The church of St. Peter is much eſteemed on account of its antiquity, but the Cathedral of St. Stephen is held to be the moſt beautiful and magnificent of any in the city, the ſteeple whereof is 465 foot in height. The church looks dark and gloomy, occaſioned by the painted glaſs in the windows; but this ſome think makes it appear more venerable and proper to inſpire devotion. In this church are ſeveral noble monuments of Princes and great men, and near one of the doors they ſhew a ſtone in the wall, which they relate is one of thoſe with which St. STEPHEN was ſtoned to death, which is worn very ſmooth by the ſuperſtitious people's touching and ſtroaking it.

The univerſity of this city is inferior to few, either on account of its antiquity, the number of its ſtudents, or their accommodations and privileges. ALBERTUS the third founded it about four hundred years ago, diſtinguiſhing the ſtudents into four diviſions; 1. That of Auſtria; 2. that of the Rhine; 3. the claſs of Hungarians; and 4. the Saxons. And under one or other of theſe he comprehended all nations; particularly England, Scotland, and Ireland are ſaid to belong to this of Saxony. And it is obſerved that there are at this day a very great variety of nations in this univerſity, as there are among the inhabitants of the town, where you ſee Greeks, Tranſilvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Polanders, Spaniards, French and Italians in their reſpective habits: and ſurely to reſide in a city which is in a manner the rendezvous of all people, muſt be no inconſiderable advantage to an inquiſitive traveller, who deſires to be acquainted with the ſtate of the world.

The Imperial library at Vienna is in high eſteem, which contains upwards of fourſcore thouſand volumes, it is ſaid; and amongſt the reſt, their manuſcripts in Hebrew, Syriack, Arabick, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptick, and Chineſe, are not to be paralleled in the world: particularly there is a fair Greek manuſcript of the New Teſtament, written fifteen hundred years ago, in gold letters upon purple. Here are alſo many thouſand of Greek, Roman and Gothick coins and medals; beſides which, the Emperor has a collection of numberleſs curioſities in art and nature, the catalogue whereof makes a large folio, to which therefore I muſt refer my reader. The ſuburbs of Vienna, like thoſe of London and other great towns, are larger than the city itſelf; particularly there is a large ſuburb called Leopoldſtat, divided from it by a little plain, and the river Danube, where ſtand the houſes of the nobility and perſons of quality magnificently built. When the city was founded is very uncertain, but the Romans had a fortreſs here, or very near the place where the city nows ſtands, called Vindomina, or Vindobona; and that which inclines people to think Vienna ſtands on the ſame ſpot of ground, are the many Roman antiquities which are found hereabouts. The city did not make any figure till about the year 1192, when it was enlarged and ſurrounded with a wall by the Marquis of Auſtria, which it is ſaid he was enabled to do by the money he received for the ranſom of King RICHARD I. of England; whom he ſurprized, and made priſoner in his return from the Holy Land.

Produce of the country about Vienna.

The country about Vienna is very fruitful, and the city is alſo well ſupplied by the Danube; wine of thirty ſorts imported from Hungary and Italy, or of the growth of Germany, may be drank here; and they have beſides, a good ſort of beer: ſheep and oxen they receive from Hungary and the frontiers of Turky for the ſupply of the city; Auſtria itſelf is not very well ſtocked with cattle. They have not only ſalt enough for their own uſe, but the Emperor draws a good revenue from the ſalt-works of Halſtadt in Auſtria. The fleſh of wild boars is eſteemed a delicious diſh here, their fat being equal to that of our veniſon; and the hunting this animal is one of their chief recreations. They have alſo hares, partridges, pheaſants, and other game in their fields and foreſts, ſome of which we are unacquainted with here. As to fiſh, the Danube furniſhes them in great plenty with the beſt, ſuch as carp, tench, trouts, jacks, eels, lampreys and creviſſes, and there is a fiſh called Scheiden, preferred to Salmon. Their larger fiſh are called Hauſons, being about twenty foot long, and not unlike a ſturgeon in their taſte, ſuppoſed to come up from the Black Sea. From Venice they are furniſhed with oyſters, with ſalted and pickled fiſh and trouts, as well as with oranges, lemons, and other fruits.

The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriouſly, and are pretty much addicted to feaſting and carouſing, dancing and fencing are their ordinary recreation within doors; and in the winter, when the ſeveral branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with ſnow, the ladies take their recreation in ſledges of different ſhapes, ſuch as griffins, tygers, ſwans, ſcollop-ſhells, &c. Here the lady ſits dreſſed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the ſledge is drawn by one horſe, ſet off with plumes of feathers, ribbands, and bells: and as this diverſion is taken chiefly in the night-time, foot-men ride before the ſledge with torches, and a gentleman ſitting on the ſledge behind, guides the horſe. The winters are much ſeverer at Vienna than at London; though the latitude of London is three or four degrees further north; but then the weather is more conſtant and ſevere there: and they cloath themſelves ſo well with furs and warm caps in the day-time, and cover themſelves with feather-beds in the night, that they are not very ſenſible of the difference, eſpecially having ſuch plenty of good wine in their cellars. But it is time to take leave of Vienna; I ſhall only obſerve further, that there are magazines of naval ſtores, and ſhips of war fitted out frequently to ſerve upon the Danube againſt the Turks, which makes it ſometimes have the face of a ſea-port, though it lies at ſo great a diſtance from the ocean.

Baden.

2. Baden, a town in Lower Auſtria, ſo called from the natural baths which riſe here, is ſituate in a plain about eighteen miles to the ſouthward of Vienna; it is a neat little city ſurrounded by a wall, and much reſorted to on account of its waters, which the German phyſicians are of opinion, will cure moſt diſtempers incident to the head, as head-aches, dimneſs of ſight, deafneſs, &c. and it is recommended alſo as a remedy for the gout, if drank in time, as well as for the dropſy, and other chronical diſtempers.

Haynburg.

Tuln.

Krembs.

3. Haynburg, or Haimburg, ſituate on the utmoſt limits of Auſtria towards Hungary, ſouth of the Danube, and about thirty miles to the eaſtward of Vienna, anciently the metropolis of Auſtria, and the ſeat of the Duke, when it had a flouriſhing trade; but by the removal of the court, and the incurſions of the Hungarian malecontents, is now reduced to a declining condition; but ſtill they have plenty of corn and wine, which they tranſport to other countries. 4. Tuln, an ancient town, about twenty miles to the weſtward of Vienna, ſituate on a little river of the ſame name, which falls into the Danube five miles below it. It is ſaid to ſtand in a healthful plentiful country; but travellers relate that it is very ill accommodated with proviſion notwithſtanding. 5. Krembs, *Cremeſia*, ſituate on the river Krembs, on the north ſide of the Danube, forty miles weſt of Vienna, a large well built town, and has a good trade, particularly at the two annual fairs, which laſt fourteen days each, when their ſtreets are crouded with merchants from all parts of Germany, Hungary, and Poland.

Towns in Upper Auſtria. Lintz.

Ens.

The chief towns in Upper Auſtria are, 1. Lintz, or Lyncia, the capital of the province, lying on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, an hundred miles eaſt of Vienna, a place the moſt pleaſantly ſituated in the Emperor's dominions. His Imperial Majeſty hath a palace here, as have moſt of the Auſtrian nobility, on the north ſide of the river, which ſuburb is joined to the city by a bridge: here the nobility uſually ſpend their ſummer, and hither the Emperor retired during the laſt ſiege of Vienna. The town is well built of ſtone, and has a ſpacious market-place. As to publick buildings, the Emperor's palace, the church, and a monaſtery of Capuchins, are all that travellers take notice of; and of theſe they do not think it worth while to be particular. 2. Ens, or Enſium, ſituate on a river of the ſame name, which falls into the Danube two miles below it, and is about fourſcore miles to the weſtward of Vienna. It is ſuppoſed to be built in the place where Laureacum ſtood, ſome time the ſeat of the Roman Emperors; it was formerly governed by it's own Count, till the Emperor RODOLPH I. purchaſed it, and annexed it to the dutchy of Auſtria. There are ſeveral other great towns in Upper and Lower Auſtria, ſuch as Stain, Everding, Freiſtadt, Steyr and Wells, whoſe ſituation will be found in the map annexed to this volume; and ſince travellers have not thought fit to give us any farther deſcription of them, it may be ſufficient to name them.

STYRIA and CILLEY.

Styria, the bounds and extent.

THE dutchy of Styria, or Steymarck, in which I include the county of Cilley, is bounded by Auſtria on the north; by Hungary and Sclavonia on the eaſt; by Carinthia and Carniola on the ſouth; and by Saltſburg on the weſt; extending in length an hundred miles from eaſt to weſt; and in breadth in ſome places eighty, and in others not forty miles from north to ſouth. Styria is divided into the Upper and Lower Styria, in regard to the courſe of the river Muer.

Gratz.

Rakerſburg.

Pettaw.

Markſburg.

In the Lower Styria the chief towns are, 1. Gratz, the capital of the Dukedom, ſituate on the banks of the river Muer, in a pleaſant fruitful country, fourſcore miles ſouth of Vienna. It is a well-built city, regularly fortified, and defended by a caſtle which ſtands on a high hill, and is the Arch-duke's palace. 2. Rakerſburg, a ſtrong fortreſs on the banks of the Muer, twenty-eight miles to the eaſtward of Gratz. 3. Pettaw, *Petovium*, ſituate on the river Drave, thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Gratz. It was anciently a Roman city, and at preſent is a Biſhop's See under the Archbiſhop of Saltſburg, but very much upon the decline. 4. Markſburg, ſituate on the Drave, twenty miles weſt of Pettaw, formerly the capital of a country, till purchaſed by the Auſtrian family.

Cilley.

In the Earldom of Cilley, which lies ſouth of the river Drave, extending to the banks of the Save, the chief town is Cilley, or Celia, an old town of tolerable ſtrength, once the capital of a territory governed by its own Earls, but now under the dominion of the houſe of Auſtria, and united to Styria; it is ſituate on the river Soana, which a little below diſcharges itſelf into the Save. It is ſuppoſed to have been a place of ſome conſideration formerly, on account of the Roman antiquities which are daily found there.

Judenburg.

Iſenartz.

In the Upper Styria the chief towns are, 1. Judenburg, ſituate in a pleaſant fruitful country, on the river Muer, fifty miles weſt of Gratz, a fair well-built town, in which is a palace belonging to the Dukes of Styria. 2. Iſenartz, ſo called from its mines and forges of iron, ſaid by a Styrian writer to afford ſteel enough for all Germany; but the mines are really very conſiderable, and were diſcovered in the year 712, having been wrought in ever ſince without any ſenſible decay. The town is ſituate on the little river Saltza, about twenty four miles to the north-eaſt of Judenburg. The other towns mentioned in Upper Styria by Geographers, are Lewben, Rotenman, Bruck, Seckaw and Knittlefield; but they do not ſeem to think them worth a particular deſcription.

Produce of Styria.

In the Lower Styria there is plenty of corn, wine, fruits, fiſh and veniſon: the Upper Styria is more mountainous, where the natives feed large flocks of ſheep, which afford good wool. Their valleys are rich, and ſtocked with herds of black cattle, and the air much more healthful than in the Lower Styria, where the Hungarian fever and peſtilence are too common. There are no vineyards in this part of the country, but they import the little wine they uſe from abroad. Their uſual drink is poor ſmall beer, and at the tables of the quality they have a ſharp thin wine brought out of the Lower Styria. The natives of this country are frequently troubled with a Struma, or ſwelling on their throats or chins to a monſtrous degree. ORTELIUS relates, that as he travelled from Vienna to Venice, he met one who had ſuch a ſwelling on his chin, that from his ears down to his breaſt was as broad as his ſhoulders; and their poor women are uſually troubled with theſe excreſcences

creſcences to that degree, that they are forced to throw them over their ſhoulders when they ſuckle their children. This epidemical diſtemper is ſuppoſed to proceed from the ſnow water they drink, which falls from the mountains; for the nobility and better ſort of people, who drink wine and other ſtrong liquors, are ſeldom troubled with it.

CARINTHIA.

Extent and bounds of Carinthia.

Chief towns.

THE dukedom of Carinthia is bounded by Styria and Saltſburg on the north, by Styria on the eaſt, by Carniola on the ſouth, and by Tyrol on the weſt; extending an hundred miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about thirty from north to ſouth. The country is mountainous and barren, and the air cold, but plentifully watered with lakes and rivers; the river Drave particularly runs croſs this province, receiving many other leſſer ſtreams into it. The chief towns are St. Veit, Villach, Clagenfurt, Gurck, Lavanmund, St. Andrews, and Freyſac.

St. Veit.

St. Veit, the chief town, (ſo called from a Saint of that name, who is ſaid to have preached the goſpel here during the perſecution of Diocleſian,) ſtands at the confluence of the two rivers, Wilitz and Glac, in a fruitful vale, eight miles ſouthweſt of Gratz, and as many ſouth of Ens. It was anciently a Biſhop's See, but now only venerable for it's antiquity. Not far from it may be ſeen the ruins of the ancient city of Saal, deſtroyed by ATTILA the Hun. 2. Gurk, a Biſhop's See, ſituate on a river of the ſame name, eight miles north of St. Veit. 3. Lavemund, ſituate on the river Lavant, in a pleaſant valley, ten miles eaſt of Styria, is a ſmall city, and a Biſhop's See, ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Saltſburg. 4. Clagenfurt eſteemed the prettieſt town in Carinthia, being of a ſquare form, and ſurrounded by a wall, adorned with a handſom piazza, and a fountain in the centre of it, and is diſtant about ten miles from St. Veit.

CARNIOLA and WINDESMARCH.

Carniola, bounds and extent.

THE dutchy of Carniola with Windeſmarch, or the marquiſate of Windes, is bounded on the north by Carinthia and Cilley, on the eaſt by Croatia, and by a ridge of mountains which ſeparate it from the territories of Venice on the ſouth; extending an hundred and ten miles from eaſt to weſt, and about forty from north to ſouth.

Diviſion.

Chief towns.

This province is divided into the Upper and Lower Carniola, the Windeſmarch, and the county of Goritia. The chief towns of Upper Carniola are Laubach, Crainburg and Biſchoffſlack. In the Lower are Oberlaubach and Zirknitz. In Windeſmarch the chief towns are Metling and Rudolphſworth. And the chief town of Goritia is of the ſame name.

Laubach.

Crainburg.

Lack.

Zirknitz. A remarkable lake.

Oberlaubach.

Metling.

Newſtat.

1. Laubach, or Laybach, the capital of Carniola, is ſituate on the banks of a little river of the ſame name, which diſcharges itſelf into the Save ten miles lower, and lies thirty miles to the northward of Trieſte. It is a Biſhop's See, well built and populous, and defended by a caſtle. 2. Crainburg ſituate on the Save, twenty miles northweſt of Laubach. 3. Lack, or Biſchoffſlack, a well built town, ten miles ſouth of Crainburg. 4. Zirknitz, a town in itſelf not conſiderable, but for the lake to which it communicates it's name, from hence called the Zirknitzer-ſea, or Lacus Circonienſis, which is about ſixteen German miles in length, and eight in breadth, encompaſſed on all ſides with mountains. In the month of June annually, this lake retires under ground, through a great many large holes at the bottom of it, and returns again in September with great violence, ſpouting and throwing up it's waters through the holes and cracks in the earth to the heighth of a pike, till it has covered the whole ſpace it left. When the water retreats, the earth is ſuddenly covered with graſs, yielding paſture for cattle and wild beaſts, which feed on it, and return to the foreſt again when the water begins to riſe. At the retiring of the waters there are found great quantities of fiſh, as carp, tench, eels, &c. which the country people take with their hands in the mud, and yet the lake is as well ſtocked with fiſh the ſucceeding year as it was before. The natives can give no account that this water ever failed to riſe or fall annually as above related; neither do any of them pretend to give any account of the occaſion or original of it. 5. Oberlaubach, a town about ſixteen miles to the weſtward of Laubach, conſiderable for it's trade in Italian goods, which from hence are diſperſed all over Germany. 6. Metling, the chief town in Windeſmarch, ſituate on the frontiers of Croatia, thirty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Cilley, and twenty-five eaſt of the lake of Zirknitz, remarkable for nothing but it's having been plundered ſeveral times by the Turks. 7. Rudolphworth, or Newſtat, ſituate on the river Gurk, twelve miles north-weſt of Metling, an ancient town honoured with great privileges, and famous for the beſt wine in the country.

Goritia.

Goritz.

Goritia is a ſmall diſtrict, part of Friuli, but ſubject to the Emperor, which occaſions it's being introduced here, for the reſt of Friuli is under the Venetians, and will be deſcribed in another place. The chief town of Goritia is Goritz, or Gortz, ſituate on the river Lizono, twenty miles from the gulph of Venice, and fifty weſtward of Laubach, conjectured to be the Roman Noricia. It was taken by the Venetians in 1608, and recovered by the Emperor the year after, in whoſe poſſeſſion it now remains.

Trieſte, a Sea-port.

The Emperor alſo having made himſelf maſter of Trieſte in the province of Karſtia, or as ſome ſay, Friuli, this town alſo muſt be taken notice of here. Trieſte lies at the bottom of a bay in the gulph of Venice, to which it gives name. It is a ſmall town, but has the honour of being a Biſhop's See, under the Patriarch of Aquileia. The Emperor is much ſet upon making it a free port, and turning the trade of the Levant that way, which would be a vaſt detriment to the Venetians; but he does not ſeem to have ſucceeded at all in theſe ſchemes yet. The harbour is large but very unſafe, and perhaps may coſt a great deal of time and labour before it is fit to receive veſſels of any burthen. The Emperor took this place from the Venetians in the year 1507, which he hath poſſeſſed ever ſince.

St. Viet, a Sea-port.

I muſt here alſo take notice of St. Viet am Flaum, though it be ſituate in Iſtria, a province of the Venetians, and accounted part of Italy, becauſe it is at preſent ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, and united to their German dominions. St. Viet is ſituate at the mouth of the river Flaum, which diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Venice, and ſtands thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Metling. It is a place of ſome ſtrength; being ſurrounded by a wall and a ditch, and defended by a caſtle: and this is another port whereby the Imperialiſts propoſe the eſtabliſhing a trade with the countries in the Mediterranean.

Face of the country of Carniola.

The country of Carniola is mountainous, but agreeably diverſified by a mixture of large pleaſant valleys, affording plenty of corn and wine: it is well watered by abundance of good rivers, particularly the Save, the Layback, and the Gurck. The Save riſes in the weſt, and runs the whole length of the province. The ancient inhabitants are held to be the Carni, a Scythian nation, who were ſubdued by the Romans under AUGUSTUS. The marquiſſes of Bavaria afterwards became maſters of this country, being ſtiled Margraves of Crainburg; and having paſſed through ſeveral other hands, it came to OTTAKER King of Bohemia, who being killed in a war againſt the Emperor RODOLPH I. the Emperor ſeized on his territories, and gave them to MAINHART Duke of Carinthia, and Count of Tyrol; upon the death of which Prince, the Emperor LODOWICK the fourth, made Carniola a dukedom, and conferred it on the Dukes of Auſtria Hapſburg, from whom the preſent Emperor derives his right, and ſtiles himſelf Duke of Carniola.

Inhabitants.

The preſent inhabitants of Carniola are a mixture of Germans, Italians and Sclavonians; they generally ſpeak the High-dutch in towns, except Laubach, where the Italian prevails, but neither of them is ſpoken with any purity; and in the villages the peaſants ſpeak a kind of Sclavonian, or Wendiſh; but their acts of ſtate, law proceedings, and inſtruments, are all in the High-Dutch, or German tongue.

As for the country of Windeſmarch, it is mountainous and barren, inhabited by the deſcendants of the ancient Veneti, the moſt conſiderable branch of the Sclavonian nation, who ſtill ſpeak pure Sclavonian, without any mixture of the German Language.

TYROL and BRIXEN.

Tyrol, bounds and extent.

TYROL, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Rhætia Superior, is bounded by Bavaria and part of Suabia to the north, by Carinthia and Friuli towards the eaſt, by the Griſons and Trent towards the ſouth, and by Switzerland on the weſt; extending about an hundred and twenty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and ſixty from north to ſouth. The chief rivers are the Eiſeck, the Inn, and the Etſch or Adige, which laſt river riſes in this province, and flows through the territories of Venice.

Tyrol.

The county of Tyrol is uſually ſubdivided into Tyrol Proper, the biſhoprick of Brixen, and the diſtricts of Meran, Pludentz, Bregentz, Feldkirk and Montfort. The chief towns in Tyrol Proper are,

Inſpruck.

1. Inſpruck, the metropolis and uſual reſidence of the ancient Counts of Tyrol, and of the preſent governor; ſituated in a pleaſant valley, on the banks of the river Inn, from whence it takes it's name; being ſeventy miles north of Trent, and about eighty ſouth-weſt of Saltſburg; in forty-ſeven degrees odd minutes north latitude, and eleven degrees odd minutes of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London. The town is generally well built, eſpecially the ſuburbs, which are ſeparated from the city by a river. The cathedral is a magnificent fabrick of hewn ſtone, built by the Emperor FERDINAND I. on the top whereof ſtands a vaſt portraiture of this Emperor in alabaſter, guarded by twenty-eight brazen ſtatues of other great Heroes and Princeſſes, all of larger dimenſions than the life, and make a majeſtic appearance. The palace is a beautiful ſtructure, and the gardens adjoining admirably fine; and as it is the humour of the German Princes, more than any other nation, to make great collections of rarities both in art and nature, here a curious traveller may meet with a moſt agreeable entertainment. Among other things, here are a vaſt collection of agats, cryſtal, coral, jaſpers, hyacinth, turcois ſtones, lumps of virgin gold and ſilver as dug out of the mines in Germany, ancient coins and medals, and the arms of the houſe of Auſtria exactly repreſented in a coat of diamonds and rubies, &c. About a mile from the town ſtands the ſtrong pleaſant fort of Ombras, built for the Archduke to retire to in the heat of ſummer, where there is another collection of rarities ſo large, that they are the ſubject of a bulky book.

Near the city of Inſpruck ſtands the famous monaſtery of Wiltheim, or Wilden, founded according to their legends by a gigantick Prince named HAYMON, twelve or thirteen foot high, who killed a mighty dragon that infeſted the country. A ſtory of equal credit with a thouſand others of the like nature.

Hall.

2. Hall, called Im'thall, to diſtinguiſh it from Hall in Saxony, &c. has it's name from the ſalt-works here, and is ſituate on the river Inn, ten miles north-eaſt of Inſpruck.

Tyrol caſtle.

3. Tyrol, an ancient caſtle, which gave name to the whole country, but is of no conſequence at preſent.

Brixen.

Brixen, the chief town of the biſhoprick of that name, is ſituate on the river Eyſach, about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Inſpruck. The Biſhop is a Count of the Empire, and inveſted with the temporal juriſdiction, but there lies an appeal from hence to the court of Tyrol. The city is ſmall and not very populous, yet is pretty much reſorted to on account of the mineral waters near it. The dioceſe of this biſhop extends about forty miles in length, and thirty in breadth.

Meran, &c.

The little diſtricts of Meran, Pludentz, Bergentz, Montfort and Feldkirk, have each of them a town, the head of the diſtrict of the ſame name; but travellers have not thought them worth a particular deſcription.

TRENT.

Trent county.

THE territory of Trent is ſometimes eſteemed part of Italy; but the Biſhop being a Prince of the Empire, it is by the Germans accounted part of the circle of Auſtria. The country is ſituate among the Alps, having Tyrol on the north, the territories of the ſtate of Venice on the eaſt and ſouth, and the country of the Griſons on the weſt, and extends ſeventy miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and fifty from north to ſouth, the river Adige running quite croſs it, and receiving ſeveral other ſmall rivers into it which fall from the mountains on each ſide. The chief towns are,

Trent city.

1. Trent, *Tridentium*, ſituate in a pleaſant valley, on the banks of the

Poſen.

the river Adige, but encompaſſed with high mountains on every ſide, and is ſuppoſed to have acquired the ancient name of Tridentium, (from whence the modern name of Trent is derived) from three ſharp piqued hills which hang over the city. It ſtands about ſeventy miles ſouth of Inſpruck: and being thus ſurrounded with mountains, the town is exceſſive hot in ſummer by the reflection of the ſun from the neighbouring rocks; and the cold in winter is ſaid to be equally intolerable, though the town lies in the latitude of forty-ſix degrees. It is a ſmall city, ſurrounded by a ſingle wall, but pretty well built, of a kind of red and white marble, ſuch as the rock is whereon it ſtands. The bridge over the Adige, and the Biſhop's palace are much admired for their ſtructure by the natives, but have nothing extraordinary in them. The cathedral church, dedicated to St. Vigel, is reckoned a good piece of architecture; and the Chapter who elect the Biſhop conſiſt of noblemen; the Biſhop is ſuffragan to the Patriarch of Aquileia, and a Prince of the Empire, as has been obſerved already. But this city is moſt remarkable for the council held here with ſome intermiſſions from the year 1545, to the year 1563; where the Pope procured the doctrines taught by the Roman church to be eſtabliſhed, and his uſurpations, both over the clergy and laity, confirmed: but as for any reformation in the church, which was the pretence of aſſembling the council, little or nothing was done on this head. 2. The ſecond town in the Biſhoprick of Trent is Poſen, or Bolzano, ſituate on the Adige, twenty-five miles north of Trent: a place of good trade, where the German and Italian merchants traffick and exchange their merchandize, eſpecially at the four fairs which are held here every year, on account whereof great privileges have been granted to the place. 3. Noveredo, a little city, famous for it's trade in ſilk. As to the country of Trent in general, it produces good wine and oil, cattle and fruits. Their wine is well taſted and ſtrong; but they have very little corn or grain of any kind.

Obſervations on the circle of Auſtria.

Having taken a view of the ſub-diviſions of the circle of Auſtria, or of the ſeveral countries which are at this day deemed part of it, I ſhall conclude with ſome general obſervations in relation to this circle: and here we find, that though Auſtria be enumerated among the circles of the Empire, it is ſubject only to it's own Prince, and does not come within any of the rules and orders by which the other circles are governed. The general laws of the Empire, or acts of the Diet, do not affect Auſtria, neither is it obliged to contribute to any charge for the defence of the Empire: for the Emperors of this houſe foreſeeing that their male line might fail, or at leaſt another family might be elected to the Imperial dignity, were continually heaping new privileges and favours on this and their other hereditary countries, that if they ſhould ever come to be ſeparated from the Empire, they might be formed into a great body, and be able to ſubſiſt independently of any other power.

The Emperor Charles V. particularly by his grant, reciting, that all men naturally deſired the proſperity of their own houſe, decreed that Auſtria ſhould be a perpetual fee of his family, which no future Emperor ſhould deprive them of: That the Duke of Auſtria for the time being, ſhould be the firſt and moſt intimate counſellor to the Emperor, without whoſe knowledge no matters of ſtate ſhould be tranſacted in the Empire: That the dominions of Auſtria ſhould be exempted from all contributions to the Empire: That the Emperor nevertheleſs ſhould aſſiſt Auſtria againſt it's enemies: That the Archduke ſhould not be obliged to go out of the bounds of his dominions to receive the inveſtiture of them, but it ſhould be offered him in his own territories gratis: He ſhould be at liberty to come to the Diet or not: And the Emperor ſhould have no power to intermeddle in his dominions, or diſpoſe of any fees there: Nor ſhould the ſubjects of Auſtria be drawn from home to anſwer in the courts of the Empire. That from the ſentence of the Archduke there ſhould lie no appeal: and he might tax his ſubjects at pleaſure. That he might create Earls, Barons and Gentlemen. And laſtly, in caſe the male line of his houſe failed, his dominions ſhould go to the females, according to their ſeniority; and if there ſhould be no females, the laſt poſſeſſor might diſpoſe of them by will. Succeeding Emperors have ordered that their hereditary dominions ſhould never be diſmembered or diſunited, but ſhould always be ſubject to one head, and deſcend as the dominions of Auſtria deſcend. Thus the hereditary countries belonging to the houſe of Auſtria will be a noble dominion of themſelves, if another family ſhould happen to be advanced to the Empire. On the contrary, it will be very difficult for any Prince who ſhall be elected Emperor, when the hereditary dominions are ſeparated from the Empire, to maintain that grandeur and ſuperiority over the reſt of the Princes of Europe, and the German Princes in particular, which the Emperors have hitherto done. Inſomuch that ſome apprehend if this ſhould ever happen to be the caſe, the union that has hitherto ſubſiſted amongſt the Princes and States of Germany would be diſſolved, and every power there would endeavour to render itſelf entirely independent.

Vienna, according to Baron Polnitz, is ſituate in a fine fruitful country, on one of the branches of the river Danube, which here divides itſelf, and forms ſeveral iſlands. The city within the walls is not three miles in circumference, but has ſeveral large ſuburbs. The houſes are built of ſtone five or ſix ſtories high, and the ſtreets are narrow. The publick buildings are, firſt the imperial palace, which, baron Polnitz informs us, is large, but has nothing elſe to boaſt of; for the apartments are low, dark, and without ornaments, and the furniture is very ancient, though ſcarce any Princes have a finer treaſure in tapeſtry. The apartments of the Empreſs dowager were the only ones fit to lodge in; for that Princeſs took care to have them not only raiſed higher, but inlaid and wainſcotted, which has given them a certain air of majeſty they had not before. This Princeſs's apartment is hung with black velvet, it being the cuſtom of the Imperial court for the Empreſs dowagers never to quit their mourning.

The palace of La Favourita, in the ſuburb of Vienna, where the Emperor ſpends the ſummer, is even inferior to that of the city. It is a very large houſe, built upon the highway, without any court before it, without ſymetry or architecture, and which, as to the outſide, looks more like a convent than a royal palace. The inſide perfectly anſwers the outſide. There is an aſcent to the apartments by a great ſtair-caſe, all of timber, that leads to a guard chamber, which is a room of no great extent, and without any manner of ornaments; and from thence there's an entrance into other apartments, but half furniſhed, and very low, which in ſhort is the fault of all the apartments. The gardens of the palace are as inconſiderable as the building, they being full of large fruit-trees, but in very bad order; and I ſaw nothing there that can be called a fine proſpect.

Mean time the court nobility are far from being ſo ill lodged as the Emperor; for they have all ſtately houſes both in the city and ſuburbs. Prince EUGENE of Savoy's palace is the moſt magnificent building that one ſhall ſee; for whether you examine the outſide, or the inſide of it, the whole is of the beſt contrivance and the utmoſt magnificence. The hall, which forms the firſt piece of the grand apartment, is all wainſcotted, and adorned with large pictures, repreſenting the chief battles won by Prince EUGENE. From this hall we paſs into a large antichamber, where wee ſee a ſuit of tapeſtry hangings, made by the famous DEVOS of Bruſſels, where that ſkilful artiſt has repreſented the principal tranſactions of the war to as great perfection as poſſible: out of this antichamber we go into the bedchamber; I never ſaw any thing ſo rich as the furniture is there; the tapeſtry is rolled up in pilaſters of green velvet embroidered with gold, with figures in needle work ſo finely drawn, that they ſeem to be miniatures. This piece is intirely furniſhed in all that taſte. The cloſet next to the bedchamber is all over gilt, and every thing in general in this apartment is ſuperb; the paintings, looking-glaſſes, marble tables, the very andirons being of moſt curious workmanſhip.

On the other ſide of the city is another ſuburb, which is very conſiderable, and the walks are fine. The Prat, for inſtance, is a place mightily frequented: it is a wood in an iſland formed by the Danube, where there is ſuch a ſurpriſing concourſe of people in fine weather, that it may well enough be called the Boulogne grove of Vienna.

The court of Vienna, ſays the baron, is in my opinion the plaineſt, and at the ſame time the moſt magnificent in Europe. To explain this ſeeming paradox, I muſt acquaint you, that as to the external appearance of the Emperor's houſhold, nothing is ſo plain, nor indeed ſo diſmal. His liveries are of black cloth, with a lace of yellow and white ſilk: the clothing of his guards is much the ſame; and beſides, they are not many in number. The palace itſelf, as has been intimated, is very inconſiderable; yet taking the court all together, and conſidering the number of great and petty officers, the many rich noblemen that ſpend high, and the ſeveral Princes that are in the ſervice of his Imperial Majeſty, it muſt be confeſſed, that there is not a court in Europe ſo ſplendid as that of Vienna. At the time that I was there, the Emperor had in his ſervice two brothers of a King, two Princes of royal blood, and a great number of Princes of ſovereign or other honourable families: nor is there a court where there is a more ſudden tranſition from the meaneſt to the moſt ſtately external appearance; and in this they commonly run to ſuch an extreme, that they abſolutely renounce elegancy to incumber themſelves with magnificence; for on ſolemn days, as thoſe of births, marriages, &c. one ſees nothing but gold, lace, and diamonds without number: and as ſoon as thoſe holidays, which are called Gala, are expired, they all reſume their former plainneſs.

Upon the days of Gala there are commonly operas and comedies: their Imperial Majeſties ſit in the pit, the Emperor in the chief place, and the Empreſs on his left; and the archdutcheſſes are in the ſame row. All thoſe of the Imperial family have arm-chairs of the ſame ſize and height, with a ſtand behind, upon which is a wax candle. Their operas are magnificent as to the decorations and habits, and good judges have aſſured me that their muſick is excellent.

Vienna is an archbiſhoprick, and the cathedral of St. STEPHEN a magnificent ancient building, but dark. The univerſity in this city is inferior to few, either in point of antiquity, the number of ſtudents, or their accommodations and privileges; and the Imperial library is in high eſteem, containing upwards of fourſcore thouſand volumes, it is ſaid; and among the reſt, the manuſcripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabick, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptick and Chineſe, are not to be paralleled in the world; particularly there is a fair Greek manuſcript of the New Teſtament, written fifteen hundred years ago, in gold letters upon purple. Here are alſo many thouſand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; beſides which the Emperor has a collection of numberleſs curioſities in art and nature, the catalogue whereof makes a large folio.

Baron POLNITZ informs us, that the court of Vienna, when he was there, conſiſted of his Imperial Majeſty CHARLES VI, his Empreſs ELIZABETH CHRISTINA, daughter of LEWIS RODOLPH duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, and the three archdutcheſſes, their daughters; the eldeſt of which is ſince married to the duke of Lorrain, and the third is dead.

The Emperor CHARLES VI. is of a middle ſtature, moderately fat, of a hale, ſwarthy complexion, has a briſk eye, and thick lips; the latter being the diſtinguiſhing mark of the Auſtrian family. It being expected he would have ſucceeded CHARLES II. King of Spain, he had a grave education ſuitable to the people he was to govern, which made him contract an air of ſeriouſneſs, which to thoſe who have not the honour of knowing him, has an appearance of ſeverity; yet however, he is ſaid to be affable, and very humane.

The Empreſs conſort was very handſom when married to the Emperor; and notwithſtanding the pimples in her face, and her preſent corpulency, ſhe may ſtill be reckoned in the number of beautiful Princeſſes. She was educated in the Lutheran religion, but abjured it on her marriage with the Emperor, then King of Spain.

There reſided alſo in the Imperial court at that time, the Empreſs dowager of the late Emperor LEOPOLD, ELEONORA MAGDALINA THERESA of Newburgh, who had iſſue by that Emperor, JOSEPH JACOB the late Emperor, CHARLES VI. the preſent Emperor, and three archdutcheſſes. The eldeſt is the archdutcheſs MARY ELIZABETH, governeſs of the Auſtrian Netherlands. The ſecond MARY ANNE, married to the King of Portugal. And the third, the archdutcheſs MARY MAGDALEN.

The Empreſs dowager of the Emperor JOSEPH, WILHELMINA AMELIA, daughter to the duke of Hanover, uncle to the King of England, alſo reſided there, who had two Princeſſes by the Emperor JOSEPH then living, viz. MARIA JOSEPHA, married to the electoral Prince of Saxony, now King of Poland; and MARY AMELIA, married to the electoral Prince, now Elector of Bavaria.

The German women, the baron obſerves, are rather handſom than pretty; they are tall and well-ſhaped; they walk well, but when they curt'ſy, do it in ſuch an aukward manner, that one would think their backs were in danger of breaking. In their dreſs they affect finery rather than a good fancy. Two or three excepted, there is none that lay on the red, much leſs the white, and patches are very little worn; in a word, they have nothing about them that denotes coquettry. As to their humour, they are reckoned frank, though not eaſily made familiar. They are naturally vain, and, like all our German women, pretty reſerved, and not ſo fond of gallantry, as they are of gaming, luxury, and magnificence. Such is their indolence, that they concern themſelves no more about their houſhold affairs, than if they were ſtrangers. They know no books but their prayer-books, are extremely credulous, and give into all the externals of religion: this makes their converſation ſometimes inſipid; and, unleſs now and then a love-ſtory falls in, rain and fair weather are their general topics. They have at leaſt as great a conceit of Vienna as the Pariſians have of Paris; for out of Vienna they think there is no ſalvation. But all theſe little defects are repaired by an uncommon greatneſs of ſoul and generoſity. They are hearty friends, and warm protectors of thoſe whoſe intereſt they eſpouſe. When they are in love, their paſſion is ſincere; and inſtead of ruining their lovers, there are ſome who have made the fortunes of thoſe to whom they have taken a fancy.

Ladies of the firſt rank at Vienna uſually riſe late. As ſoon as their eyes are open they call for chocolate, and ſend to their huſbands to know who they have invited to dinner, and whether there is room for any more gueſts. If the lady does not like the company, ſhe ſends notice to ſome lady of her acquaintance, that ſhe intends to dine with her; but if there be room at home, as a polite huſband always takes care to leave ſome at the diſpoſal of his wife, ſhe ſends an invitation to whom ſhe pleaſes. After this ſhe dreſſes, and goes to maſs; for here the ladies are all ſo devout that there is none but what hears at leaſt one maſs in the day. There they read in five or ſix different prayer-books, kiſs all the pictures that are at the head of the prayers, and very devoutly toſs their beads. After the office is over, they commonly chat a quarter of an hour in the church; then they go abroad, and make ſome friendly viſits, or elſe go home to receive them. At theſe viſits they hear all the news in Vienna. During this they have all a little box of Indian lack upon their knees, in which they thread gold till dinner-time. When that is over they drink coffee, or play at quinze, till night, when they go to court. From the Empreſs's apartment they adjourn to the aſſembly, where they divert themſelves at piquet or at quadrille; and then retire, undreſs themſelves, go to ſupper, and thence to bed, well pleaſed to think with what indolence and idleneſs they have ſpent the day.

The women of the ſecond claſs, in which I include the gentlewomen that have no titles of honour, viz. the wives of the aſſeſſors, referendaries, and agents of the court, diſcover ſuch an air of plenty and proſperity, as is remarkably ſurpriſing. Their houſes are richly furniſhed, and their tables well ſerved. If a referendary has a mind to a nice bit, no body muſt offer to take it; and the beſt of every thing is what they are ſure to lay hands on. Belly-cheer is one of thoſe things which the Auſtrians think of moſt: they require a great many diſhes, and thoſe well crammed. They are ſo very much accuſtomed to this profuſion of eatables, that I have known ſome young people in Auſtria affirm, they do not know what good eating is in France, becauſe they don't ſerve up a couple of loins of veal in one diſh. Different ſorts of wines are what they are alſo very much uſed to, which certainly is very expenſive, becauſe foreign wines pay conſiderable duties; yet nothing leſs will ſerve them than eight or ten ſorts of wine; and I have been at houſes where there have been no leſs than eighteen. They place a note upon every plate, expreſſing the ſeveral ſorts of wine at the beaufet.

The burghers, and common ſort of people, mimick the nobility as far as their purſes will afford; and it may be ſaid, that no nation in the world is ſo extravagant as this.

The Auſtrians are naturally proud and haughty, and expect all mankind ſhould ſtoop to them: as their Sovereign is the firſt in rank among the chriſtian princes, ſo they think theirs to be the chief nation in the world. Nothing is more vain nor inſupportable than a young Auſtrian, whoſe father is in any rank at court. They are intoxicated with pride and preſumption; and as they know themſelves to be rich, and their fathers to be great lords, they think they may deſpiſe all the world, and lay aſide that courteous and polite behaviour, which would ſo well become their birth. Yet what I here obſerve to you, concerning the young people, is not ſo univerſally true as not to admit of great exceptions, which is the caſe of every thing aſſerted in the general.

The nobility of Auſtria, and of all the Emperor's hereditary dominions, are ſo fond of the title of count, that the gentlemen beg and ſolicit it as eagerly, as if it was a great eſtate. It is well for them, that the diſpatch of their patents does not coſt much; for the greateſt privilege which this brings them is all a chimera. Theſe counts may be ſaid to hold the ſame rank among the ancient counts of the empire, as the King's ſecretaries in France do among the gentlemen of good families.

As for gentlemen, they are ſo common here, that there are ſcarce any others to be ſeen. All the agents of the court, and all the referendaries procure themſelves a title; tho' I know not why, for neither they nor their wives dare to rank themſelves among the prime nobility. This madneſs of theirs, to be ennobled, is ſo common, and ſo eaſy to be gratified, that I have known a man, who was formerly a meſſenger to the Emperor Joſeph, purchaſe the title of baron, and his children begin to mix with the grand monde.

The Emperor ſhews all poſſible marks of gratitude to thoſe Spaniards who adhered to him while he was at Barcelona. He has loaded them with wealth and honours; and, if it is poſſible for one's native country to be forgot, he has put them in a ſituation to forget theirs. This particular goodneſs of the Emperor extends to all that followed his fortunes in Spain, whom he diſtinguiſhes upon all occaſions, and does them good, preferable to his other ſubjects.

The baron has given us a very lively inſtance of the drunken revels of the Germans, in an adventure of his own.

He had the honour, it ſeems, to dine at the table of the Elector Palatine, in his palace of Heidelburg, and was invited by that Prince, after dinner, to ſee the celebrated tun. He went with him thither in the company of the Princeſs of Sultzbach, his daughter, and ſeveral other ladies and gentlemen.

The trumpets led the way, ſays the baron, and the court followed in great ceremony. When we had mounted the platform, which is over the tun, the Elector did me the honour to drink to me out of the Wilhom, which was a ſilver gilt cup of a large dimenſion. He took it off clean at one draught, and having cauſed it to be repleniſhed, ſent it to me by a page. Good manners, and the reſpect I owed to the Elector's commands, not permitting me to refuſe the chalice, I begged heartily that he would ſuffer me to drink it off at ſeveral draughts, which was indulged me; and the Elector, talking in the mean time with the ladies, I took the opportunity of his abſence, and made no ſcruple to deceive him; for I returned great part of the wine to the bottom of the tun, threw a part of it on the ground, and the reſt, which was the leaſt part of it, I drank. I thought myſelf well off, that he did not perceive in what manner I bubbled him; for I ſaw he was very well pleaſed with me. Then ſeveral other great glaſſes went round, and the very ladies wet their lips, which was the thing that effectually contributed to demoliſh us. I was one of the firſt that was over-powered. I perceived thoſe convulſive motions that threatened me if I drank any more; therefore I ſneaked off, and made the beſt of my way down from the platform. I was endeavouring to get out of the vault, but was ſtopped at the door by two life-guard men, who, with their carabines, croſſing each other, cried, Stand, there's no coming this way. I conjured them to let me paſs, and told them, that I had very important reaſons for my departure; but I might as well have talked to the wind. I found myſelf in a terrible quandary. To get up again to the head of the tun was death: what would become of me, I could not tell: in ſhort, I crept under the tun, and there hoped to hide myſelf; but it was a fruitleſs precaution. There is no avoiding a man's deſtiny. It was my fate to be carried out of the vault, and to know nothing of the matter. For the Elector perceived I was a deſerter, and I heard him ſay, Where is he? What is become of him? Let him be looked after, and brought up to me, dead or alive. The guards at the door, being examined, ſaid, that I came that way in order to get out, but that they ſent me back again. All theſe inquiries, which I heard from my hole, made me burrow myſelf the more. I crept under the covert of a couple of boards I met with by chance, where nothing but a cat, devil, or page, could find me out. But a little page, who was indeed both devil and page too, ferretted me, and bauled out like one that was mad; Here he is! here he is! and then I was taken out of my covert. You may imagine what a ſilly figure I made. I was carried before my judge, who was the Elector himſelf; but I took the liberty to challenge both him and all the gentlemen in his retinue, as being parties in the cauſe. Alas, my little gentleman, ſaid the Prince to me, you refuſe us for your judges; I will appoint you others then, and we ſhall ſee, whether you'll come off any better. He nominated the Princeſs, his daughter, and her ladies, to try me, and the Elector was my accuſer. After pleading my own cauſe, they put it to the vote, and I was condemned unanimouſly to drink as long as I could ſwallow. The Elector ſaid, that as he was the Sovereign, he would mitigate my ſentence; that I ſhould that day drink four pint glaſſes of wine, and that for a fortnight running, I ſhould tip off the like glaſs to his health immediately after dinner. Every body admired the Elector's clemency, and whether I did, or not, I was fain to do as they did, and to return him thanks. Then I underwent the heavieſt part of my ſentence. I did not loſe my life indeed; but for ſome hours I loſt both my ſpeech and my reaſon. I was carried to a bed, where when I came to myſelf, I was told that my accuſers were in the ſame pickle as I was, and that none of them went out of the vault in the ſame manner as they entered it. Next day the Elector was ſo good as to mitigate the remaining part of my ſentence, and excuſed me from the penance to which I was condemned, upon my promiſing him that I would make one at his table for a month to come.

The north parts of Germany, and eſpecially thoſe that border on the Baltick, according to the anonymous author of the preſent ſtate of Germany, are rather colder, and have longer winters than the middle counties of England of the ſame northerly ſituation. At Hamburgh, it is conſiderably colder in the winter, and hotter in the ſummer, than at Lincoln, though theſe two cities lie in a line; and the counties of Lincoln, Leiceſter, Huntington, Norfolk, Suffolk, Buckingham, Hertford, Eſſex, and Middleſex, though they lie as far north as the electorate of Hanover, yet are the winters longer and ſharper there than in the Engliſh counties. In the middle and ſouthern provinces of the empire, the climate is much the ſame with the parallel parts of France; only in that tract which runs along the foot of the Alps, there is more ſnow. In the parts about the Danube, the air is as mild as that of Italy about the Po. Though this country ſo much abounds with mines, hot baths, *&c.* yet is there not more thunder here than elſewhere, except what happens to the inhabitants of the Alps.

The weather is more conſtant, and the ſeaſons more regular within land, than in thoſe countries that border on the ocean. In the provinces near the ſea, and which abound with lakes and rivers, there is plenty of rain. In other parts, where the ſurface of the earth is drier, there are ſometimes conſiderable droughts. The north winds from the Baltick, and the bleak mountains of Sweden, bring froſt and ſnow. The eaſt blaſts, coming over a vaſt continent of three or four thouſand miles extent, bring dry and unwholſom weather. The ſouth, in the ſummer, brings refreſhing breezes from the Alps. So that the weſt-wind, as with us, is both the moſt frequent and wholeſom that blows in Germany.

The face of the country is generally even; in ſome places hilly, but no where mountainous, except towards the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, where the Alps, and a few mountains in Alſace, ſerve as boundaries and bulwarks againſt Italy and France. Indeed, a conſiderable part of this country may more properly be ſaid to be low, as Weſtphalia, and the two Saxonies.

CHAP. IX.

Part of the great Hyrcinian foreſt, ſo famous among the ancient Romans, and other writers, is ſtill remaining. It is, however, much diminiſhed to what it was in Cæſar's time; who ſays, it was nine days journey in breadth, and ſixty in length. It is now in ſeveral parts cut down. What remains is branched out into ſeveral foreſts, which have their diſtinct names, ſuch as that called the Black Foreſt, *&c.*

Germany abounds with corn, cattle, ſheep, wool, cloth, horſes, *&c.* things of indiſpenſable uſe in life.

The rivers and lakes abound in fiſh, in greater variety and perfection than any other country perhaps in the world.

The orchards are full of fruit trees, as apples, pears, cherries, nuts, and almonds. And in the ſoutherly provinces, there is plenty of the more delicate fruits; as peaches, apricocks, figs, and olives, in good perfection.

The vines produce variety both of ſmall and ſtrong wines; and the Rheniſh are not only equal to, but preferable to ſome of the wines in Italy.

Nay, the very mountains of the Alps, on the German ſide, in many places, are cultivated to the top, and the vallies abound in paſtures and vines.

The waſtes and foreſts, which ſeem to be of no ſignificancy or value, do yet afford many things, both for the ſuſtenance of the poor, and the delight and luxury of the rich. They yield plenty of wood for fuel and building, and abound with great variety of wild fowl, and all ſorts of good veniſon. They feed vaſt numbers of hogs, and ſome of them, as the foreſt of Ardenne, feed good mutton.

The bowels of the earth are repleniſhed with rich mines of ſilver, lead, copper, ſalt, coal, vitriol, quickſilver, iron, bitumen, nitre, ocre, *&c.* Moſt of which things Germany has in greater plenty than any other country in Europe.

The pooreſt parts of the country have wood, veniſon, hogs, and fiſh.

To all which may be added the many wholſom medical ſprings, and baths, with which this country does abound, beyond all other countries in Europe.

The Emperor's countries abound with moſt neceſſaries and delicacies for human life. Auſtria has enough of corn, wine, and ſalt, and the rivers afford plenty of fiſh: their black cattle they have from Hungary. The mountains of Upper Stiria feed ſuch plenty of ſheep, that the natives trade in them and their wool, and the vallies are covered with black cattle. In Lower Stiria they have ſtore of corn, wine, fruit, fiſh, ſalt, and veniſon. Though the country of Carniola be mountainous, yet it has many vallies, which abound in wine, corn, fiſh, and excellent oil. Friuli is fruitful in corn, oil, and rich cordial wines. Carinthia has enough of corn. Kaſtria is noted for a breed of good horſes, whence many princes and nobles of Italy furniſh their ſtables. The biſhopricks of Trent and Brixen, tho' very mountainous, have plenty of wine, oil, and fruit, in their fields and vineyards; the wine, which is ſtrong, is exported to other countries. Bohemia has enough of black cattle and ſheep for their own conſumption, and their orchards and gardens yield plenty of fruit, ſaffron, liquorice, and hops, for export: their white and brown beer is alſo eſteemed and ſent into other countries, ſo that it may very well ſupply the want of wine; and their horſes are remarkable for their courage and bulk. Moravia has a good breed of horſes, oxen, ſheep, and goats, and corn of all ſorts for their own conſumption, and export. Sileſia has ſeveral good commodities, as madder, ſweet-cane, but eſpecially wool and flax, which they export. Hungary is one of the nobleſt kingdoms in Europe, exceeding fertile in rich wines, corn, and cattle: the two latter are exported in great quantities into the neighbouring provinces of Turky.

The ſtrong Hungarian wines have a great vent in the empire, and Poland, where the King, the nobility, and clergy, have their cellars well ſtocked with them. The circle of Swabia, of which about a fifth part belongs to the Emperor, is one of the moſt fertile in the empire; only it does not abound ſo much with mines as the Emperor's other countries; but in lieu of thoſe, the inhabitants have better vent for their corn, cattle, wine, horſes, *&c.* into Switzerland, a country that does not abound with native commodities.

BAVARIA.

CHAP. X.

Treats of the Circle of Bavaria.

CHAP. X. Bavaria.

THE Circle of Bavaria does not only contain the proper dominions of the Duke of that name, but alſo the territories of the Archbiſhop of Saltzburg, and thoſe of the Biſhops of Paſſau, Ratiſbon, Freiſingen, and the lands of ſeveral abbeys and convents which have little or no dependance on him. This country, according to Dr. Nicholson, includes great part of the ancient Rhætia, Vindelicia and Noricum, and acquired the name of Bavaria, or rather Boiaria, from the Boij, a Gallick Nation who ſettled themſelves here, as has been mentioned already. The modern Bavaria is bounded by Franconia, Voitland and Bohemia on the north; by Bohemia and Auſtria towards the eaſt; by Carinthia, Brixen and Tyrol towards the ſouth; and by Suabia on the weſt; extending about two hundred miles from north to ſouth, and an hundred and twenty from eaſt to weſt.

The circle of Bavaria is uſually divided into three parts, namely, 1. The Upper. 2. The Lower Bavaria. And 3. The Upper Palatinate.

Upper Bavaria.

The Upper Bavaria lies between the country of Tyrol and the Danube, and is generally a mountainous barren ſoil, the chief towns whereof are Munich, Freiſing, Ingolſtat, Donawert, Rain, Landſperg, Oetingen, Tegernſee, Scheyren, Waſſerburg, Hay, Muldorf, Burkhauſen, Branaw and Scharding.

Lower Bavaria.

The Lower Bavaria ſtretches along the Danube to the confines of Auſtria, and is as fruitful a province as moſt in the Empire; the chief towns whereof are Ratiſbon, Straubingen, Landſhut, Paſſau, Moſpurg and Abach.

Upper Palatinate.

The Upper Palatinate of Bavaria, or Nortgow, ſo called from its northern ſituation in reſpect of the Elector's other dominions, is bounded by Voitland on the north; by Bohemia and Auſtria towards the eaſt; on the ſouth by the Danube, which ſeparates it from the dutchy of Bavaria; and on the weſt by Suabia and part of Franconia. This is generally a rocky uneven country, tho' in ſome places there are valleys which afford good corn and paſture. They have alſo a pretty good ſhare of vineyards, but their wine has a ſharp unpleaſant taſte. Their greateſt riches lie in the bowels of the earth, in their mines of copper, ſilver and other metals, eſpecially iron, of which they forge and vend a great deal. This Palatinate was taken from the Elector Palatine, together with his other territories, upon his aſſuming the title of King of Bohemia, in oppoſition to the Emperor, about the year 1620, and tranſferred to the Duke of Bavaria with the title of Elector; and though the reſt of the Elector Palatine's dominions were reſtored to his poſterity with an eighth Electorate by the treaty of Munſter, yet this part called the Upper Palatinate, with the Electoral dignity, was confirmed to the Bavarian family, which they remain poſſeſſed of to this day. The chief towns in the Upper Palatinate of Bavaria, are Amberg, Sulzbtach, Cham, Walſaſſen, Caſtel, Newburg, Luchtenburg and Averbach, the moſt conſiderable whereof will be particularly deſcribed hereafter.

The chief rivers of Bavaria are, 1. The Danube. 2. The Lech. 3. The Inn. 4. The Amber. 5. The Iller. 6. The Saltz. 7. The Nab. And 8. the Iſar; few countries being better watered with navigable rivers. The chief towns are **Munich city.** 1. Munich, or Munchen, the capital of Bavaria, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Iſar, in the latitude of 48 degrees odd minutes, ſixty miles north of Inſpruck, and an hundred weſt of Lintz in Auſtria. The town is large and well built, and the ſtreets ſo broad, that there are canals in many of them filled by the branches of the river Iſar, which here divides it ſelf into ſeveral channels. It is the opinion of ſome travellers, that this is the faireſt, though not the largeſt city in Germany. The ſplendour and beauty of its buildings, both publick and private, ſays Mr. Ray, eſpecially the Electoral palace, which may compare with any in Europe, and the magnificence of their churches and convents are ſuch, that it ſurpaſſes any thing in Germany for its bigneſs. It is walled round and fortified after the modern way, but not capable of maintaining a long ſiege, for we find the Electreſs of Bavaria thought it prudence to ſurrender this capital in the late war, rather than hazard a ſiege. Nor is it a town of any conſiderable trade, but what is occaſioned by their Princes reſidence amongſt them. Miſſon obſerves, that the outſide of the Electoral palace is not anſwerable to the internal beauty, tho' many of the apartments too are irregular; for this vaſt ſtructure being built by ſeveral perſons at different times, the fabrick differs according to the fancy of the perſons who had the management of it. The great hall of the Emperor's apartment is an hundred and eighteen feet long, and fifty two broad. This, ſays my author, is a truly magnificent apartment, eſpecially in reſpect of its curious pictures, which are all hiſtory-pieces, the ſacred on one ſide, and the prophane on the other, every hiſtory having a Latin inſcription in verſe under it, the following diſtich being annexed to that of Suſannah, viz.

Caſta Suſanna placet, Lucretia cede Suſannæ;
Tu poſt, illa mori maluit, ante ſcelus.

In the little chapel belonging to the apartment of the Electreſs, you ſee nothing but gold, pearls and jewels, and among the reliques there is a piece of gold mohair, which, as tradition informs us, was a piece of the Virgin Mary's gown. The parlour of perſpectives, ſays the ſame traveller, is extremely fine; but the hall of antiquities exceeds all the reſt, for we numbred an hundred and ninety-two buſts, and four hundred other pieces, all eſteemed for their exquiſite workmanſhip and antiquity. The furniture of the palace is rich beyond imagination, and in the treaſury there were whole ſervices of gold plate, an incredible number of pearls, diamonds, rubies, and other precious ſtones; but the late Elector in his great neceſſities during the laſt war, was obliged to part with ſome of this treaſure to ſupport himſelf, and a great deal more was ſeized by the Imperialiſts when they were in poſſeſſion of Munich; but theſe were ſtipulated to be reſtored by the laſt treaty, if ſuch a thing was poſſible. The whole palace is lined or incruſted with marble, or a cement ſo like it that it is not to be diſtinguiſhed from it: and Miſſon relates that there are ſubterraneous paſſages from the palace to moſt of the churches and convents in the city: but in this he was probably impoſed upon, we may take it for granted he never ſaw them. **Ingoldſtat.** 2. Ingoldſtat, ſituate on the north ſhore of the Danube, in a plain fruitful country, forty miles to the northward of Munich, and thirty weſt from Ratiſbon. It is eſteemed a town of good ſtrength, and well built, the ſtreets broad and ſtrait, but poor and ill inhabited. In the great church is an image of the Virgin Mary of beaten gold, which with the workmanſhip, jewels and other ornaments, is ſaid to have coſt fifty thouſand crowns: before it kneels a French King of the ſame metal, but not ſo large, clothed in a long purple robe, enamelled with yellow flower de luces, and near to it ſtands another ſmall image of gold, adorned with precious ſtones, and richly enamelled, repreſenting St. Michael with a pair of ſcales in his hand. In this city the famous Cardinal Bellarmine, and Petrus Appianus had their education. **Donawert.** 3. Donawert, or Teonawerd, twenty five miles weſt of Ingoldſtat, and twenty-four north of Augſburg, which takes its name from the river Donaw, or Danube, whereon it ſtands, is of it ſelf a place of no great ſtrength; but the fortreſs of Schellenberg near it had like to have put a ſtop to the progreſs of the allies in the year 1704, when the Duke of Marlborough attacked it with the flower of the confederate army; but it was at length forced by the reſolution of the troops, and ſuperiority of their numbers, and the Elector of Bavaria obliged to retire under the cannon of Augſburg. Donawert is a great thorough-fare, both by land and water, and the entertainment of travellers ſeems to be the moſt beneficial employment of the inhabitants. It was once an Imperial city, and comprehended in the circle of Suabia; but upon declaring for the proteſtant Princes, was proſcribed by the Emperor Ferdinand II. anno 1634, and brought under the dominion of the Elector of Bavaria, who was the Emperor's General in that war. **Amberg.** 4. Amberg, the capital of the Upper, or Bavarian Palatinate, ſituate on the banks of the river Vils, thirty miles to the northward of Ratiſbon, eſteemed a place of conſiderable ſtrength, and endowed with large privileges by the Emperor Rodolph. It was anciently ſubject to the Dukes of Suabia, but by the laſt Prince of that race transferred to the houſe of Bavaria. The iron and other minerals which are dug out of the neighbouring mountains, employ the inhabitants in forging and converting it into utenſils, which they vend in other parts of Germany.

Newmark.

5. Newmark, once an Imperial city, but now ſubject to the Duke of Bavaria, ſtands on the banks of the river Sultz, thirty miles north of Ingoldſtat. The trade of the place conſiſts chiefly in iron-work. The country about it is called the terrritory of Newmark.

Sultzbach.

6. Sultzbach, a ſmall city, ſituate on a hill, five miles north-weſt of Amberg, where a Prince of the houſe of Newberg has a palace, and ſtiles himſelf Duke of Newburg, Bavaria, &c.

Ratiſbon.

7. Ratiſbon, or Regenſburg, ſituate in forty nine degrees north latitude, at the confluence of the Danube and the Regen, about ſixty miles to the northward of Munich, and as many weſt of Paſſau. It is the only free Imperial city within the limits of the Elector's dominions; large, populous, well built and pleaſantly ſituated, fortified with a double wall; but yet ſeems to be a place of no great ſtrength, or it would not ſo eaſily have ſubmitted to the Elector of Bavaria as it did in the laſt war, when the Diet was aſſembled there, without ſtriking a ſtroke. The place where the Diet meet is a large upper room hung with tapeſtry; the Imperial throne and ſeats richly covered with gold and ſilver tiſſues, velvet, &c. ſuitable to the dignity of the illuſtrious members. The cathedral is not admired for its beauty, or any other excellence; but the convent of St. EMERAM is ſaid to be worth the viewing: and the ſtone bridge croſs the Danube is no mean ſtructure, conſiſting of fifteen large arches ſupported by ſquare pillars, and is one thouſand and ninety-one feet in length, and three and twenty broad, having three handſome towers built upon it. This city is governed by it's own magiſtrates, and is not ſubject to the Duke of Bavaria. The Lutheran is the eſtabliſhed religion, only the Biſhop has the liberty of ſaying maſs in the cathedral once a week. The town is plentifully ſupplied with proviſions: wine is made in the neighbourhood, not inferior to Rheniſh: and their fields produce all kinds of corn and grain; nor do they want good paſture for their cattle. The advantage of their ſituation upon and near ſo many navigable rivers creates a briſk trade, and the concourſe of people which the Diet occaſions, is a great addition to it.

Paſſau.

8. Paſſau, ſituated about ſixty miles to the eaſtward of Ratiſbon, and ten to the weſtward of Auſtria, at the confluence of the three rivers, Danube, Inn and Ilts, which divide it into three parts, either of them a town by itſelf, but together form a noble large city: it is naturally ſtrong, being ſurrounded on all ſides either by rocks or rivers; but the fortifications are not anſwerable to the ſituation, or the Biſhop of Paſſau, the ſovereign of the place, had never yielded it up to the Elector of Bavaria the laſt war without attempting to defend it; nor would the Elector have parted with it again without force if he had deemed it tenable. The houſes of the town are of wood, but the publick buildings of ſtone and very magnificent, eſpecially the cathedral dedicated to St. STEPHEN, the Biſhop's palace, and the caſtle which ſtands upon an adjoining hill. In this city it was that the peace was concluded between the Emperor CHARLES V. and the proteſtant Princes in the year 1552; by which the Lutherans were to enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. It is obſervable that the river Inn, which gives name to that diviſion of Paſſau called Innſtat, diſcharges itſelf into the Danube with that violence, that it preſerves it's ſtream unmixed for a great way, being of a different colour from the waters of the Danube: and on the other ſide the Danube, the black muddy ſtreams of the Ilts are diſcernable for ſeveral furlongs, that river running with a furious torrent from the Bohemian foreſts. The Biſhop of Paſſau is ſovereign of the country which lies between the Palatinate and Auſtria, for twenty miles to the northward of Paſſau and the Danube, in which diſtrict ſtand the caſtles of Obernberg and Eberſberg.

Landſhut.

9. Landſhut, the chief town the Elector hath in the Lower Bavaria, where his Lieutenant uſually reſides, ſtands on the river Iſar, thirty miles ſouth of Ratiſbon, in a pleaſant country almoſt in the middle of the Elector's dominions, on which account the ancient Dukes of Bavaria built a palace here, and beautified the city, which is ſtill one of the handſomeſt in the country; and there is a church in Landſhut, the tower whereof travellers take notice is the higheſt in Germany.

Newburg.

10. Newburg, *Novaburgum*, a pretty neat city, the capital of a country of the ſame name, ſubject to it's own Prince the Duke of Newburg, who is alſo Elector Palatine, ſtands on the ſouth bank of the Danube, fifteen miles to the weſtward of Ingoldſtat. The town has a good trade in wines; and the country belonging to it extends itſelf along the Danube near forty miles; but is exceeding narrow. Among other towns in this diſtrict is,

Hochſtet.

11. the town of Hochſtet, about twelve miles to the weſtward of Donawert; rendred famous by the victory the Germans and their allies, the Engliſh and Dutch, gained over the French and Bavarians near this place in the year 1704. In which battle the confederates were commanded by Prince EUGENE of Savoy and the Duke of Marlborough, and the enemy by the Duke of Bavaria, and the Marſhals TALLARD and MARSIN. The Emperor was at this time reduced to the greateſt extremity by the French and Bavarian forces, who would probably have made themſelves entire maſters of Germany, if the Engliſh and Dutch had not ſent a powerful re-inforcement to the Emperor's aſſiſtance. And what would have been the conſequence to the allies if that body had been defeated, heaven only knows. On the contrary, the advantages the Emperor reaped by that ſucceſsful battle were ſo numerous, and ſo important, that the Auſtrian family muſt always gratefully remember the Engliſh nation, who contributed ſo largely to that expedition.

Lawingen.

12. Between the towns of Donawert and Hochſtet, ſtands the little city of Lawingen upon the Danube, ſubject alſo to the Duke of Newburg. The bridge over the Danube, the caſtle, and the great church, are all that travellers mention here to be worth our notice; neither do they give any further deſcription of it, than that the great church is covered with copper.

Nabburg.

13. Nabburg, a pleaſant city in the ſame diſtrict of Newburg, which ſtands upon a hill near the river Nab. And,

Aichſtat.

14. Aichſtat; but of this more in Franconia, of which it is ſometimes reckoned a part.

Freiſingen.

15. Freiſingen, ſituate on the ſide of a hill, in a fruitful country near the river Iſar, ſeventeen or eighteen miles north of Munich. The Biſhop is ſovereign of the place, and of the adjacent country; and there is another ſmall territory belonging to him on the confines of Bavaria and Tyrol, called Werdenfels from it's chief town, which lies near the river Iſar, about forty miles ſouth of Munich.

Saltzburg country.

Munich. And laſtly, I come to deſcribe the country ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Saltzburg, which is accounted part of the circle of Bavaria; being bounded by the dutchy of Bavaria on the north, by Styria and the Upper Auſtria towards the eaſt, by Carinthia and part of Tyrol on the ſouth, and by Tyrol towards the weſt: the chief towns whereof are,

Saltzburg city.

16. Saltzburg, the ancient *Juvavia*, ſituate on the river Saltza, ſixty miles eaſt of Munich, eſteemed one of the fineſt cities of Germany. The cathedral is a modern building, erected in the year 1628, exceeding magnificent; the city having been burnt down a little before. The palace of the Archbiſhop is part of the caſtle of Mirabel, than which nothing can be more delightfully ſituated. The town is well built in general: and the publick inns, travellers relate, are the beſt in Germany. It has a very good trade, eſpecially in ſalt, which the neighbouring pits produce.

Hallen.

17. Hallen, another town in this country, upon the banks of the river Saltza, about eight miles to the ſouthward of Saltzburgh, where the ſalt-pans continually employ great numbers of people. It is reported that in the year 1573, there was found in a ſalt-pit here, ſeveral hundred fathom deep, in the midſt of a hard rock of ſalt, an entire human body, with it's limbs, hair and clothes ſound and uncorrupted, which by it's antique dreſs, was thought to have lain ſome ages in that condition.

The country of Saltzburg, of which the Archbiſhop is ſovereign, extends ſeventy miles from eaſt to weſt, and fifty from north to ſouth: and beſides the abundance of ſalt it affords, it has conſiderable mines of copper and iron, and ſome of ſilver. A little above the city of Saltzburg ſprings the Gaſtein bath, the waters whereof are very hot, and taſte ſtrong of ſeveral minerals; and are ſaid to be a remedy for the ſtone, the pox, the colick, and other malignant diſtempers, by bathing in them only, without drinking the water. There are alſo many excellent quarries, out of which is dug a ſtone little inferior to jaſper.

Lauffen, &c.

Beſides the towns already mentioned in the country of Saltzburgh, are thoſe of Lauffen, Titmoning, Radſtat and Muldorf, of pretty good note; but I do not meet with any particular deſcription of them.

The condition of Bavaria in general.

Notwithſtanding Bavaria in general is a rich plentiful country, and lies exceeding well for trade, the Danube and many other navigable rivers paſſing through it; yet the natives are generally poor, which is ſuppoſed to proceed from the Elector's monopolizing the moſt conſiderable branches of traffick: and firſt, that of ſalt, which he prohibits his ſubjects to import from Auſtria, the Biſhoprick of Saltzburg, or any other Prince's dominions on the ſevereſt penalties, or to buy any that is imported, except of himſelf. The Elector's factors alone are allowed to furniſh Suabia with ſalt, which they dig at the ſalt-pits of Drabeſtein and Obenhall, which being very coarſe, they mix with a purer ſalt brought from Saltzburg. 2. A ſecond monopoly is that of corn; the farmer is obliged to ſell all his grain to the Elector's agents, who retail it out again to the people. 3. This Prince, like the Czar of Muſcovy, is Brewer-General of his dominions: none may brew or ſell ſtrong beer but the Elector's factors. There is only a poor ſort of ſmall beer, which the peaſants and citizens are allowed to brew and ſpend in their own houſes. And the Biſhop of Paſſau, whoſe territories lie within this circle, imitates the Elector in this piece of tyranny. The chief ſubſiſtence of the peaſants of this country is their herds of ſwine, which they feed in the woods; and the wild beaſts and game they meet with there, ſuch as deer, wild hogs, &c. which they make free with, though it be almoſt as penal for a ruſtick to meddle with the game in Bavaria as here: but they are compelled by neceſſity to take what they find; for corn, beer and ſalt are at ſuch exceſſive rates, that a countryman is ſcarce able to purchaſe them. After what has been obſerved in relation to monopolies, it may be needleſs to ſhew that the Elector is abſolute in his dominions; and that the legiſlative and executive power are both veſted in him. There are ſome general laws of the Empire indeed, that all the Princes and States of the Empire ought to be governed by, but they take the liberty to diſobey and break through them too often, when there is not a force to compel the obſervance of them.

Forces and revenues.

What the forces and revenues of the Elector of Bavaria are exactly, I do not find computed by any writer, only in general, that his revenues are very large, ariſing from the monopolies aboveſaid; from tolls on the rivers, cuſtoms on merchandizes, and the rents of his own demeſne lands. And as the country is very populous, there is nothing to reſtrain him from raiſing as many troops as he can pay: like the other German Princes, he is never without a good body of ſtanding forces, even in time of peace. The Elector and the Archbiſhop of Saltzburg are co-directors of this circle.

The Elector's titles.

The Elector of Bavaria ſtiles himſelf Duke of the Upper and Lower Bavaria, and of the Upper Palatinate, Duke and Count Palatine of the Rhine; Elector and Vicar of the Empire, and Grand Maſter of the houſhold.

Arms.

His arms are lozengewiſe Argent and Azure of twenty-one pieces bendwiſe for Bavaria. One and four Sable a lion Or, crowned languid and armed Gules for the Palatinate, with an Imperial globe Or, as Elector and Grand Maſter of the houſhold of the Empire.

Characters of the late Elector.

The late Elector of Bavaria died on the 26th of Feb. 1725-6, in the 64th year of his age. He was a fine gentleman, and a good ſoldier, and had experienced great variety of fortune. In the beginning of his life he commanded the Emperor's forces in Hungary; obtained a glorious victory over the Turks, and took the ſtrong town of Belgrade by ſtorm. He was afterwards Viceroy of the Spaniſh Netherlands, and entered into the Grand Alliance againſt France in the year 1698; being Generaliſſimo of the confederate forces in Flanders in the abſence of King WILLIAM III. In the laſt war he took the part of France, and having loſt the memorable battle of Hochſtet, was driven out of his country in the year 1704, put to the ban of the Empire, and forced to take refuge in France: but by the peace of Radſtat, anno 1714, his dominions were reſtored to him, to the great ſatisfaction of his ſubjects, who were infinitely fond of their Prince, and ventured ſeveral inſurrections in his favour while he was in baniſhment, and the Imperial forces poſſeſſed their country. He lived eleven years in peace after his return to his dominions, endeavouring to repair the damages his country had ſuſtained by the ravages of the enemy, who were ten years in the poſſeſſion of it. He was the third Elector of Bavaria; ſon to the Elector FERDINAND, and grand-ſon to MAXIMILIAN I. Elector of Bavaria, who was advanced to that dignity in the year 1623, by the Emperor FERDINAND II. in the room of FREDERICK Elector Palatine, who was

His marriages and iſſue.

put to the ban of the Empire on the loſs of the battle of Prague in the year 1620. He married **MARIA ANTONIETTA** daughter to the Emperor **LEOPOLD** in the year 1685; by whom he had three children, who are all dead; and the Electreſs their mother dying anno 1692, he married the Princeſs **THERESA CUNIGUNDA**, daughter to **JOHN SOBIESKI**, late King of Poland, in the year 1694, by whom he had iſſue **CHARLES ALBERT CAJETAN**, the preſent Elector, born Auguſt 1697; who married the Archdutcheſs **MARY AMELIA**, daughter to the late Emperor **JOSEPH**. 2. **FERDINAND MARY**, ſecond ſon of the late Elector, born Auguſt 1699, and married to **ANNE CAROLINA** of Newburg. 3. **CLEMENT AUGUSTUS**, the third ſon, Archbiſhop and Elector of Cologne, Biſhop of Munſter and Paderborn, born Auguſt 1700. And 4. **THEODORE**, the fourth ſon of the late Elector, and made Biſhop of Ratiſbon, born anno 1703.

CHARLES ALBERT (the preſent Emperor and Elector of Bavaria) hath iſſue **MARIA ANNA WALPURGE**, born the fifth of July 1724. 2. **THERESA BEN MARY**, born the twenty fourth of November 1725. 3. **MAXIMILIAN JOSEPH**, born in 1727.

His electoral Highneſs is great maſter of the empire. The Counts of Walpurge are his vicars. He is director of the circle of Bavaria jointly with the Archbiſhop of Saltzburg.

Upper and Lower Bavaria (except ſome tracts of land, and places which belong to ſome eccleſiaſticks) is in length about 130, and in breadth about 100 miles.

The Elector of Bavaria is one of the richeſt Princes in the Empire. His country is ſo well peopled, that they reckon in Bavaria, including the Upper Palatinate, 35 great and little cities, 49 towns, above 1000 fiefs noble, and 11,704 villages and hamlets, which bring in a revenue of above half a million of our money: a modern German writer makes it amount to between 8 and 900,000 l. He adds, that the late Elector had ſome years above one million.

This Elector is known to be one of the powerfulleſt Princes in Germany. He has ſeveral towns well fortified, a noble arſenal, and commonly 12,000 men on foot. He can on an emergency march 30,000 men into the field.

The Elector reſides in his capital city of Munich, a fine, wealthy, and populous city. His palace is very noble, and exceeding richly furniſhed. His other ſeats are Dachau, Schleiſheim, Furſtinriet, Starenberg, Oetingen, and above all, the magnificent palace of Nymphenberg, within two miles of the capital: it was built by the late Elector: the gardens are inferior to none but thoſe of Verſailles.

The Elector's titles are, **CHARLES ALBERT**, by the grace of **GOD**, Duke of Upper and Lower Bavaria, and of the Upper Palatinate, Duke and Count Palatine of the Rhine, Elector and grand maſter of the houſhold to the Empire, &c.

This Prince and his ſubjects are generally Roman catholicks.

The Elector of Saxony.

Elector of Saxony.

V. The Elector of Saxony, **FREDERICK AUGUSTUS III.** born the 26th of September 1696, embraced the Roman catholick religion in 1717, and ſucceeded to the electorate in January 1733. He married in 1719, **MARIA JOSEPH**, eldeſt daughter of the late Emperor **JOSEPH**. Their children, beſides three that are dead, are, 1. **FREDERICK CHRISTIAN LEOPOLD**, electoral Prince, born the 23d of Auguſt 1722. 2. **MARIA AMELIA**, born in 1724, (married to the King of Naples.) 3. **MARIA MARGARETTA**, born in 1727. 4. **MARIA ANNA SOPHIA**, born in 1728. 5. **AUGUSTUS LEWIS ALBERT**, born in 1730. 6. **CAROLINA**, born in 1731. 7. **CHARLES JOSEPH FRANCIS XAVIER**, born in 1733. 8. N—— a daughter, born in 1736.

The Elector is great marſhal of the empire; he is alſo vicar during an interregnum, and ſole director of Upper Saxony. The Count of Papenheim is his hereditary vicar.

The Elector of Saxony is rich and powerful: his country is very fruitful and populous, and brings in a revenue of betwixt 7 and 800,000 l. per annum.

The Elector commonly has 20,000 regular troops, and 20,000 militia, without reckoning the ban, and the arriere ban, and the body of miners and hunters, who are obliged in time of war to bear arms.

Dreſden is the capital of the electorate, and the uſual ſeat of the Electors. It is large, populous, and well-built; the fortifications are modern, and very ſtrong. The Elbe runs through the town, and divides it into old and new by a ſtately bridge of 17 arches.

His titles are, **FREDERICK AUGUSTUS III.** by the grace of **GOD**, great Marſhal, and Prince Elector of the holy Roman empire, Duke of Saxony, Cleves, Juliers, &c.

FRANCONIA.

CHAP. XI.

Treats of the circle of Franconia.

Franconia, it's name.

THE circle or dukedom of Franconia received it's name from it's ancient inhabitants the Franks, who were ſo denominated, as ſome relate, from **FRANCUS**, a great commander of that people; but others hold that the Franks were not one particular people, but ſeveral German nations united together againſt the Romans, who took the name of Franken, which in their language ſignified a free people, and this country might be called ſo by way of eminence, as being the firſt or principal promoters of this confederacy.

Bounds and extent.

The modern Franconia is bounded by Heſſe and Thuringia towards the north, by the Palatinate of Bavaria on the eaſt, by Suabia on the ſouth, and by the Palatinate of the Rhine towards the weſt, and extends about 100 and 30 miles from eaſt to weſt, and about 100 and 40 from north to ſouth: the principal rivers whereof are the Maine, the Sala, which waters the country where the famous Salique law was made, which reſtrains the ſucceſſion to the males; the Tauber, the Rednitz, the Altmutz and the Pegnitz. It is prettily diverſified with hills and valleys, foreſts and champaign, and moderately fruitful in corn and wine; and comprehends, 1. The biſhoprick of Wurtzburg, the chief towns whereof are Wurtzburg, Ochſenfurt, Konigſhoven and Biſchoffſheim. 2. The biſhoprick of Bamburg, the chief towns whereof are Bamburg, Cronach, Weiſman and Forcheim. 3. The biſhoprick of

Rivers.

Face of the country.

Diviſion.

Aichſtat. 4. The diſtrict belonging to the maſter of the Teutonick Order, the chief town whereof is Margentheim. 5. The Marquiſates of Cullembach and Obnſpatch, the chief towns whereof are Cullembach, Weiſinſtat, Bertrut, Obnſpatch and Kreyling. 6. The diſtricts of Coburg, Schwartzenburg, Caſſel, Hennerburg, Erpach, Wertheim and Holach, or Hohenloe. 7. The Imperial, or free cities of Francfort, Nuremburg, Rotemburg, Schweinfurt, Weinſheim and Weiſſemburg.

Wurtzburg.

Wurtzburg, or Herbipolis, the capital of Franconia, ſtands on the river Maine, ſixty miles to the eaſtward of Francfort, in forty nine degrees forty five minutes north latitude. The Maine runs through the middle of the town, over which there lies a noble ſtone bridge, three hundred paces long. Other little rivulets run through the principal ſtreets. The Biſhop's palace ſtands upon a hill above the town, from whence there is a glorious proſpect of the neighbouring country, being the richeſt part of the province. The Biſhop has a great extent of country under his juriſdiction, in which it is computed there are not leſs than four hundred towns and villages beſides Wurtzburg. He is as abſolute in his dominions as the French King, and lives in all the ſtate of a ſovereign Prince.

Bamburg.

Bamburg, the capital of the principality of the ſame name, ſtands forty miles north-eaſt of Wurtzburg, of which the Biſhop of Bamburg is ſovereign, his territories extending ſixty miles in length, and forty in breadth. He has alſo ſeveral more caſtles and royalties in Carinthia and other parts of Germany; for the lands and territories of the German Princes are ſo ſtrangely intermixed, that it is difficult often to diſtinguiſh one from another. Nothing is more common than for a great Prince to hold part of his dominions of one much inferior to him; the King of Bohemia, the Electors of Bavaria and Brandenburg, for inſtance, hold ſeveral of their mannors of this Biſhop as lord paramount. The cathedral, the Biſhop's palace, the Jeſuits church, and the caſtle of Bamburg, are the only publick buildings that travellers mention in their way through it, and theſe do not ſeem to deſerve a particular deſcription.

Aichſtat.

Aichſtat is the capital of another biſhoprick, by ſome geographers placed in Bavaria, whoſe Biſhop alſo is a temporal Prince. It ſtands about twelve miles north-weſt of Ingoldſtat, the principality about it extending thirty miles in length, and from eight to ſixteen in breadth. Theſe three biſhops are all Princes of the Empire, and have ſeats in the Diet.

Mariendal.

Maſter of the Teutonick Order.

Margentheim, or Mariendal, is a ſmall city ſituate on the river Tauber, about two and twenty miles weſt of Wurtzburg, where the great Maſter of the Teutonick Order hath his reſidence, and is the capital of the ſmall territory belonging to him, ſince the Order were driven out of Pruſſia. Theſe Knights ſtill poſſeſs eleven commanders in Germany, and have a right to chuſe their great Maſter, who is always a Prince of the Empire, and hath one of the firſt ſeats in the Diet after the Electors. The Knights on their admiſſion are obliged to prove their nobility for ſixteen deſcents, both by father and mother.

Cullembach.

The marquiſate of Cullembach receives it's name from it's capital city, which ſtands on the river Maine, twenty five miles north-eaſt of Bamburg, and is ſubject to the two branches of the houſe of Brandenburg, called Cullembach, and Bareith, who are each of them Princes of the Empire; and the Marquis of Cullembach is joint director of the Circle of Franconia with the Biſhop of Bamburg. The extent of the country of Cullembach Proper, is about thirty four miles from eaſt to weſt, and thirty from north to ſouth.

Bareith.

Bareith, the other ſubdiviſion of this country, has it's name alſo from it's capital Bareith, which ſtands fifteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Cullembach, the country under it's juriſdiction being near forty miles in length, but not a fourth part ſo broad in many places.

Anſpach.

The Marquiſate of Ohnſpach, or Anſpach, is ſubject to another Prince of the houſe of Brandenburgh. It's capital city of the ſame name ſtands twenty five miles ſouth-weſt of Nuremburg, and the country ſubject to it is about fifty miles long, and twenty broad.

Hohenloe.

The county of Holach, or Hohenloe, lies between the territory of Anſpach and Hall, and is about twenty five miles long, and fifteen broad, and takes it's name from an old caſtle, the ſeat of the Count, who is of a very ancient family.

Caſtel.

The county of Caſſel, or Caſtel, lies between the biſhoprick of Wurtzburg and the county of Schwartzenburg, being about twenty fives miles in length, and ſeven in breadth, the chief town whereof is Caſtel.

Schwartzenburg.

The county of Schwartzenburg lies between the Marquiſate of Anſpach and the Biſhoprick of Bamburg, being about twenty miles long, and fifteen broad; the chief town whereof is of the ſame name, and ſituate on the river Lee. The Count to whom it is ſubject is a Prince of the Empire.

Wertheim

The County of Wertheim lies weſt of Wurtzburg, being twenty ſix miles long, and twelve broad: the chief city is of the ſame name; and ſtands at the conflux of the rivers Tauber and Maine, in a healthful country, yielding plenty of corn, wine and cattle.

Erpach.

The county of Erpach lies between the Lower Palatinate and the Archbiſhoprick of Mentz; being about five and twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth; the chief town, of the ſame name, ſtands on a ſmall river, forty three miles weſt of Wurtzburg.

Henneburg.

The county of Henneburg, ſo called from an ancient caſtle, or palace of the Counts, ſituate on the top of an hill near Meiningen; and is bounded on the north by the territories of the abby of Fulda, by Thuringia on the eaſt, by the biſhoprick of Bamburg on the ſouth, and the dioceſe of Wurtzburg on the weſt: a populous, fruitful country; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Meiningen, a beautiful little city, on the river Vera. 2. Shleuſingen, ſituate on the river Shleus; remarkable for the aſſembling the electoral college there by FERDINAND II. 1623; when he deprived the Elector Palatine of his dignity and dominions, and transferred them to the Duke of Bavaria. 3. Coberg, the capital of a county of the ſame name; ſometimes reckoned part of the Circle of Saxony, one of the moſt ancient cities in Germany; tolerably large and well built, and defended by a caſtle which ſtands on an adjoining hill. In this caſtle MARTIN LUTHER was impriſoned ſeveral times for ſpeaking contemptibly of his ſuperiors; and here, during his confinement, he compoſed ſeveral hymns, which are ſung at this day with great devotion by his followers: in one of which he highly commends the happineſs of impriſonment; and might have ſome reaſon for it, if he became more humble after it; for the great turn he had given to eccleſiaſtical affairs, had made him inſufferably inſolent.

Meiningen.

Shleuſingen.

Coberg.

Luther impriſoned here.

Francfort.

The Imperial, or free cities in Franconia are, 1. Francfort, ſaid to be ſo named from a ford over the Maine, where the Franks uſed to paſs that river in their incurſions againſt the Saxons; and afterwards built a fort to ſecure their paſſage. It lies in fifty degrees odd minutes north latitude, twenty miles to the eaſtward of Mentz; being built on each ſide the river, and joined by a handſom ſtone bridge. It is a large populous city, regularly fortified, but not of any great ſtrength, being much more conſiderable for it's trade, which is carried on by the Maine, the Rhine, and other rivers which fall into them. There are two fairs yearly, in March and September, of three weeks continuance each, when the town is crouded with people from all parts; but what they deal moſt in, I perceive, is books and horſes. The ſtreets of the town are broad, and the houſes built either with a red ſtone, or of wood plaiſtered over and painted. St. Bartholomew's church, where the Emperor is uſually elected, is a ſtately fabrick. The other publick buildings travellers take notice of, are the Emperor's palace, the town-houſe, and the caſtle; and there are ſome houſes of the nobility which have a grand appearance. In the town-houſe, or guild-hall, where the Electors aſſemble before they proceed to the choice of an Emperor, is preſerved the original Golden Bull, which contains the rules and orders to be obſerved at an election. This city, with the diſtrict about it, is governed by it's own magiſtrates; which conſiſt of a Prætor, or Mayor, twelve Burgomaſters, fourteen Aldermen, and forty-two Counſellors, in the choice of whom every company of tradeſmen have their votes. They have alſo a ſenate, which is divided into three benches: on the firſt ſit the Aldermen; on the ſecond the Literati, or learned in their laws and cuſtoms; and on the third the tradeſmen. The Roman catholicks in this city are poſſeſſed of the cathedral church, and there are two convents for men, and one of nuns; but the Papiſts are not allowed to make any publick proceſſions through the town, for the magiſtrates and moſt of the inhabitants are Lutherans. There are alſo ſome Calviniſts, who are not ſuffered to have a church in the town, but go to a village near three miles off to their publick worſhip. The Jews are pretty numerous here, as in other parts of Germany, and have a ſynagogue allowed them: they do not however live in that wealth and ſplendor as in England; but are frequently put to the vileſt drudgeries, and particularly are employed to extinguiſh fires, when any happen in the city.

The territory ſubject to the city of Francfort, is bounded by the county of Weteraw on the north, by the county of Hanaw on the eaſt, by the landgravate of Darmſtadt on the ſouth, and by the archbiſhoprick of Mentz on the weſt. There is little good arable or paſture ground in this diſtrict; the country being for the moſt part covered by woods or vineyards: the natives are a laborious people, whoſe employment is chiefly making of wine, which they tranſport to other countries, and drink little themſelves: but this is probably to be underſtood of the lower rank of the people; people of faſhion in Germany do not uſe to have their cellars empty.

To this city of Francfort ſeveral Engliſh Proteſtants retired during the perſecution in Queen Mary's reign, and had a church aſſigned them; ſome of theſe were for retaining the liturgy and ceremonies eſtabliſhed in the reign of King Edward VI. while Knox and others were for reducing the church of England to the plan of Geneva: and not content with this, began to preach up rebellion and diſobedience to governors, and particularly to the Emperor; whereupon the magiſtrates of Francfort compelled Knox and his diſciples to quit the city, and retire to Geneva; and leave the Engliſh Proteſtants, who were for uniformity and the liturgy, and taught obedience to magiſtrates, in poſſeſſion of the church which had been aſſigned them.

Nurenburg.

Nurenburg, or Nurnburg, *Noricorum Mons*, ſituate in forty-nine degrees thirty minutes north latitude, forty miles ſouth of Bamburg, and as many north of Ingoldſtat, in the very heart of Germany, is ſaid to have obtained it's name from the Norici, who built a fort on the hill where the caſtle of Nurenburg now ſtands, to defend themſelves from the Huns, who had driven them out of Auſtria, their former country. This city is ſituate in a plain, being ſeven miles in circumference; and encompaſſed with a wall and towers, after the old way of fortification; and a caſtle ſtanding upon an adjoining hill, but of no great ſtrength at preſent. The ſtreets are large and well paved; the houſes generally built of hewn ſtone, five or ſix ſtories high. Their market-places and ſquares large and ſpacious, and adorned with fountains: the river Pegnits runs through the middle of it, entring the city by twelve large arches under the wall, and iſſuing out on the other ſide of the town in the ſame manner, but is not navigable. It turns however a vaſt variety of mills in the town, for corn, paper, iron, &c. This city is extremely populous, and has the greateſt trade of any in Europe, that does not ſtand near the ſea or ſome navigable river. Their artificers in iron, ſteel, wood, ivory, alabaſter, &c. are ſaid to be inimitable, and afford their goods extremely cheap. It is from this part of Germany that thoſe toys which we call Dutch are imported hither. And no place is more famous for clock-work: a coach was made for the King of Denmark in this city, that would go by ſprings without horſes, and travel three miles an hour. Some private citizens here have as fine collections of rarities, pieces of antiquity and medals, as are to be found in the cabinets of Princes. And it is nothing but the genius and extraordinary diligence of this people, that procures them this flouriſhing trade and plenty; for they live in a barren country, which affords ſcarce any merchandize to triffick with, but what receives the greateſt part of it's value from their labour and ingenuity. Their publick buildings are the Stadt-houſe, or Guild-hall, ſaid to be equal to that of Amſterdam; and the church of St. Sebald is eſteemed as ſtately a fabrick as any in the Empire. In this city are kept the regalia uſed at the Emperor's coronation; as the Imperial crown, with which Charlemain was crowned, his mantle, the golden globe, Charlemain's ſword, the ſceptre, the Imperial cloak, all richly adorned with precious ſtones, with the gloves and buſkins covered with plates of gold. The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Lutheran: the Roman catholicks are only allowed to perform divine ſervice in a church of the Lutherans, when they have done with it. The Calviniſts are not allowed any publick place of worſhip, but are forced to go to a church three miles out of town, and ſuffer the Lutherans to baptize their children.

The governors and principal magiſtrates of the city are elected out of the nobility and gentry. The common-council conſiſts of forty-two members,

bers, of whom thirteen are Burgomaſters, and as many Aldermen, the reſt are ſtiled only Elders, or Sages of the people. One Burgomaſter has the military, and one Alderman the civil government of the city for a month, and are then ſucceeded by two more; ſo that there is a Burgomaſter and an Alderman for every month of the year, in whom the executive power is veſted by turns. The ordinary affairs of the goverment are debated in their common-council: the raiſing of forces, or levying taxes, are uſually referred to a ſelect number of the council, ſtiled by way of eminence, *The Eight:* and upon any extraordinary emergency, the principal burghers elected out of every trade and profeſſion in the town are ſummoned, to the number of four hundred, who have alſo the power of electing the members of the other councils, and of the magiſtrates of the place, which are choſen annually.

Altorf, &c.

The Nurenburghers have a country of about twenty miles extent, and ſeveral towns and villages under their juriſdiction; the chief whereof are, 1. Altorf, a univerſity about twelve miles from Nurenburg. 2. Burthan. And, 3. Herſprach; all which were formerly parts of the Upper Palatinate; and taken by the Nurenburghers in their wars with the Marquis ALBERT, in the year 1504.

Nuremburg.

Nuremburg, according to another writer, is the richeſt and moſt powerful city in Germany next to Hamburgh, and the beſt built. The houſes are all very beautiful, lofty, and perfectly lightſome, and moſt of them are painted on the outſide like thoſe of Auſbourg. The townhouſe, in which the ſenate aſſembles, is a ſtructure remarkably beautiful, is very large, and completely well built: the principal front is adorned by three great portico's with marble pillars; the inſide is every whit anſwerable to the magnificence of the outſide there being very fine rooms in it, adorned with noble paintings.

Nuremburg has ſeven other towns, and 480 villages in it's territories: the government reſembles that of Venice: the eſtabliſhed religion is the Lutheran; the catholicks have a ſmall church in the houſe of the Teutonick order: the Calviniſts go to church in the territory of Anſpach, but the Jews are not tolerated; becauſe, it is ſaid, they formerly poiſoned the wells. They live in a place not far from Nuremburg, but come to town every morning, paying ſomething for their entrance; have an old woman ſet over them, who is commonly both their guard and their guide, and are permitted to trade and trick wherever they can till night, when they are obliged to retire.

In the church of the hoſpital is kept CHARLEMAGNE's crown, ſaid to weigh fourteen pounds; the ſcepter and the globe; in ſhort, all the ornaments of Empire, except CHARLEMAGNE's ſword, ſaid to have been brought from heaven by an angel.

Rotemburg.

Rotemburg, another Imperial city in Franconia, ſituate on the river Tauber, thirty miles to the weſtward of Nurenburg, a pretty compact town, obtained it's freedom of the Emperor FREDERICK I. in the year 1163.

Schweinfurt.

4. Schweinfurt, ſituate on the Maine, twenty-ſix miles north-eaſt of Wurtzburg; a ſmall city, and not very populous; obtained the privilege of a free Imperial city in the year 1388.

Winſcheim.

5. Winſcheim, a little Imperial city, which ſtands on the river Arſch, in the marquiſate of Anſpach, ſixteen miles to the northward of Rotemburg.

Weiſſemburg.

6. Weiſſemburg, ſituate in the biſhoprick of Eichſtat, twenty-eight miles ſouth of Nurenburg. And theſe are all the free cities we meet with in Franconia. I proceed now to the circle of Saxony.

SAXONY.

CHAP. XII.

Treats of Saxony in general.

CHAP. XII. Saxony.

Of Saxony in general.

OF what extent the ancient Saxony was is very uncertain, but it is generally held to have taken up all the northern part of Germany, from Franconia and Bohemia to the Baltick Sea; and to have comprehended not only the Circles of Upper and Lower Saxony, but Weſtphalia, the two Friezlands, good part of Holland, Holſtein, and even Jutland, which is at preſent part of the kingdom of Denmark.

The name.

Nor is the derivation of the name leſs conteſted than the bounds of the country. Mr. CAMDEN follows the opinion of thoſe who derive it from the Sacæ, a Scythian nation, who inhabited a country to the north of Perſia and India, whoſe poſterity he ſuppoſes the Saxons are. But as there is no probability that thoſe eaſtern Scythians ſhould ramble ſo far to the weſtward, nor no foundation in hiſtory to ſupport this ſurmiſe, later writers have taken the liberty to diſſent from Mr. CAMDEN, and to ſuggeſt that the Saxons more probably took their name from a ſhort ſword, or dagger they wore, peculiar to that nation, and called in their language Seax, or Saks. But however they obtained the name of Saxons, or whatever countries they inhabited, no people rendered themſelves more terrible to the Romans and their allies, both by ſea and land; and from their frequent maritime expeditions, I make no queſtion of their poſſeſſing moſt of the ſea-coaſt between Holland and Denmark. It is obſerved, that upon the coaſts of Britain and France, as far as Spain, the Romans were obliged to maintain ſtanding troops to oppoſe the incurſions of this people, under certain great officers, who from their commands were ſtiled, *Comites litoris Saxonici per Britanniam & Galliam.* The character SIDONIUS gave of a Saxon rover, was, That he way an enemy formidable beyond compariſon, one whom frequent ſhipwrecks recreated rather than terrified, as being not only acquainted but grown familiar with the perils of the ocean: which is a character very ſuitable to the natives of Friezland, whoſe anceſtors the Saxons poſſeſſed the ſame ſhores.

There is no doubt but many different nations were united under the general name of Saxons; all who joined them in hopes of plunder, or finding more agreeable ſeats than their own, went under this common appellation; the people they invaded at leaſt made no diſtinction, but as they met with them in the Saxon armies, called them all Saxons, though there might be Jutes, Angles, and twenty other tribes mixed together.

According to our ancient hiſtorians, the Saxons firſt infeſted the Britiſh ſhores about the year 370; but did not obtain any ſettlement here, till they were invited hither by VORTIGERN, a Britiſh King, to defend him againſt the Picts, about the year

447. Theſe Saxons, it is ſaid, were commanded by Hengist and Horsa, two brothers. But Dr. Nicholson, with good reaſon, queſtions whether there ever were two Saxon Generals named Hengist and Horsa; becauſe there never was any family of Saxons, who had theſe names amongſt them, either before or ſince that time: and the occaſion of the miſtake the Doctor ſuppoſes to proceed from the Saxon armies having a horſe in their colours and ſtandards: for the word *Hengiſt* he obſerves, in the old Saxon dialect, ſignifies a Stallion; and that *Horſa* is a word of the ſame ſignification, he thinks is obvious enough to an Engliſh Reader. He looks upon it as highly probable therefore that the Saxon commanders ſhould have the names of Hengist and Horsa given them by the Engliſh, for the ſame reaſon that ſome writers enigmatically call the Emperor the Eagle, the King of France the Lilly, &c. from the arms they bear.

Modern Saxony, the bounds.

The modern Saxony, including both the Circles of Upper and Lower Saxony in their utmoſt extent, is bounded by the Baltick Sea, Denmark, and the German Ocean towards the north; by Poland and Sileſia towards the eaſt; by Bohemia and Franconia towards the ſouth; and by the Circle of Weſtphalia towards the weſt; lying between the fiftieth and the fifty-fifth degrees of north latitude.

UPPER SAXONY.

CHAP. XIII.

Treats of the Circle of Upper Saxony.

CHAP. XIII. Upper Saxony. Diviſion.

IN the Circle of Upper Saxony are included, 1. The duchy of Saxony. 2. The marquiſate of Miſnia and Voigtland. 3. The marquiſate of Luſatia. 4. The duchies of Sax-Merſburg, Sax-Naumburg, and Sax-Altemburg. 5. The principality of Anhalt, and county of Barby. 6. The province of Thuringia; moſt of which provinces are ſubject to the Elector of Saxony. But beſides theſe, there are included in the Circle of Upper Saxony, the marquiſate and electorate of Brandenburg; the duchy of Magdeburg; the principality of Halberſtat, and the duchy of Pomerania; moſt of which are under the dominion of the Elector of Brandenburg, the preſent King of Pruſſia. The chief rivers in the Upper Saxony, are the Elbe, the Sala, the Elſter, the Unſtruck, the Spree, the Havel, and the Neiſſe.

The duchy of Saxony.

1. The Duchy of Saxony, properly ſo called, which gives the Elector the title of Duke, is of no great extent; and bounded by the principality of Anhalt on the north; by Luſatia and part of Brandenburg towards the eaſt; by Miſnia on the ſouth; and by the county of Mansfield, and the landgravate of Thuringia towards the weſt. The air of this country is cold, but healthful; the ſoil yields wheat and ſome wine, though not in great plenty. Here are mines alſo of ſilver and other metals, but they want fuel to refine them. The chief towns of the duchy of Saxony are, firſt,

Wittenburg city.

Wittenburg, ſituate on the river Elbe, forty miles north of Leipſick. The town conſiſts of but one long ſtreet, and has little obſervable in it beſides the univerſity. A merry fellow gives this character of the place, viz.

At Wittenburg a man is ſure to meet
Hogs, ſoldiers, whores, and ſcholars in the ſtreet.

Hall.

2. Hall, ſituate on the river Sala, forty miles ſouth-weſt of Wittenburg, a neat town, ſtanding on the ſide of a pleaſant hill covered with vines; the inhabitants a polite people, and ſpeak the High Dutch in the greateſt purity. It is called *Hall Saxonum*, to diſtinguiſh it from other places of the ſame name in Germany. The ſalt-pits near it yield a good revenue to the ſovereign, who is the Elector of Brandenburg. 3. Quedlinburg, a little city, thirty-five miles north-weſt of Hall, remarkable only for a nunnery there, whoſe Abbeſs is a Lutheran, and ſovereign of the place, and has her deputy, or repreſentative in the general Diet. She is always a Princeſs of the houſe of Saxony, and admits no nuns but of a noble deſcent into the convent. There are alſo in this duchy the towns of Sweinitz, Hertzburg, Torgau, Bitterfield, Weiſſenburgh, &c. but I don't meet with any other deſcription of them than their ſituation, which will be found in the map bound up with this volume.

Quedlinburg.

Torgau, &c.

Miſnia marquiſate.

2. The ſecond diviſion of the Circle of Upper Saxony, is the marquiſate of Miſnia, or Meiſſen, bounded by the duchy of Saxony on the north; by Luſatia on the eaſt; by Bohemia on the ſouth; and by Thuringia on the weſt; and extends about an hundred miles from north to ſouth, and eighty from eaſt to weſt; the diſtrict of Voigtland being the moſt ſoutherly part of Miſnia. The chief rivers in this province are the Elbe, the Mulda, the Pleiſs, and the Black and White Eſter. The Plains of Miſnia yield plenty of all manner of grain, and their hills are rich in minerals. On the banks of the Elbe, near Dreſden and Meiſſen, are large vineyards, which produce indifferent wine. The whole country is very well furniſhed with wood, and their foreſts afford plenty of game and veniſon. The natives of Miſnia are diſtinguiſhed for their hoſpitality and good breeding, their ſhape, make, and the neatneſs of their dreſs, beyond their neighbours; but then there is no province of Germany where they drink harder. The court it ſelf is intolerably addicted to this vice; and how they do to preſerve their chaſtity, which they are ſo much commended for, when they are ſcarce ever ſober four and twenty hours, is a myſtery to me. But by chaſtity I'm apt to think our travellers mean no more than their abſtaining from adultery; for they relate at the ſame time, that this crime is puniſhed with death by the Saxon law; and perhaps they are ſeldom ſo far intoxicated as to venture a halter for another man's wife, when there are females enough to be had without running that hazard.

Rivers.

Dreſden city.

The chief towns of Miſnia are, 1. Dreſden, the uſual reſidence of the Elector of Saxony, a large populous city, ſituate on the river Elbe, in 51 degrees odd minutes north latitude, about forty miles ſouth-eaſt of Leipſick, and twenty north of the confines of Bohemia. It is one of the moſt conſiderable cities of Germany, fortified after the modern way, and the baſtions faced with ſtone; and we have all the reaſon in the world to believe it very ſtrong, becauſe the late King of Sweden, when he was actually in poſſeſſion of all the country for a year together and upwards, never attempted the ſiege of this place. The river Elbe divides the town into two pars, the one called the new, and the other the old city, which are joined together by a noble bridge of ſeventeen arches. The new town, where the Elector's palace ſtands, is beſt built, and very well worth a traveller's attention. The palace is large, and contains many beautiful apartments; the hall eſpecially is admired for the many fine paintings in it, among which we ſee the people of moſt nations drawn in their reſpective habits: but what travellers are moſt taken with is the Kunſt Kamer, or gallery of curioſities, containing ſeveral cabinets, in the firſt of which are all kind of mechanical inſtruments and tools, exquiſitely wrought. In the other, many artificial works of coral, agate, &c. cups made of mother pearl, an oſtrich made out of it's own ſhell, with golden feathers, a purſe of linnen incombuſtible, ſilver ore almoſt pure from the mines of Freiburg, ſeveral unpoliſhed topazes ten inches in diameter, emeralds an inch in diameter as they grow in the rock. There is alſo a great variety of clock-work, as a horſeman riding, a ſhip under ſail, a centaur running and ſhooting, and a crab crawling on the table, &c. The ſtables alſo which are ſhewn to travellers are worth the ſeeing, the fabrick ſtately, and filled with the fineſt horſes in the world; every one of which has an iron rack and a copper manger. Near the ſtables is a long arched walk, with the pictures of ſeveral favourite horſes; and over it a gallery, where all the Dukes and Electors of Saxony are drawn both in their robes and military habits; and among them are ſhewn two pieces, ſaid to be the pictures of thoſe two Saxon Generals, Hengist and Horsa, who firſt obtained a ſettlement in Britain, though, as Dr. Nicholson obſerves, it is probable that neither of theſe names were ever known to the ancient Saxons. In the arſenal there were within theſe few years no leſs than four hundred pieces of braſs cannon, but the number may poſſibly be reduced at preſent, ſince the Swedes ſurprized and took ſo many of them in the laſt war.

Leipſick.

2. Leipſick, one of the moſt populous and well-built cities in Germany, ſituate in a pleaſant fruitful plain, at the meeting of three ſmall rivers, viz. the Elſter, the Pleiſſa, and the Parda, about forty miles north-weſt of Dreſden, a town of great trade, eſpecially at the three annual fairs of Chriſtmas, Eaſter, and Michaelmas, when their ſtreets are crouded with foreign merchants. The town is ſaid to be defended by a ſtrong caſtle, but I find the preſent Elector, King Augustus, did not think it tenable in the year 1706, when the King of Sweden marched into Saxony, for he ordered the governor to ſurrender it without hazarding a ſiege. Beſides the caſtle I don't find any publick buildings mentioned by travellers except the church of St. Nicholas, which is ſaid to be the fineſt Lutheran church in Germany. There is alſo a celebrated univerſity in this city, in which however they have but four colleges, and thoſe inferior to many in Oxford; the reaſon of which may be, that in moſt foreign univerſities the ſtudents lodge in the town, and are not obliged to reſide within the walls of a college, as with us. In this city, it is obſerved, the High Dutch, or German language, is ſpoke with greater purity than in any other in Germany.

Freiburg.

3. Freiburg, which ſtands about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Dreſden, near the river Mulda, being of a circular figure, and encompaſſed with good walls, the ſtreets broad and handſom, and the market-place ſpacious. The publick buildings are the Elector's palace, ſaid to be a noble ſtructure, and the church of St. Peter, where are the monuments of the ducal family; among which that of Maurice, Duke and Elector of Saxony, is accounted the fineſt in Germany, the buſt being of black marble, admirably wrought, with many ſtatues of alabaſter and white marble about it. The ſituation of this place is ſo exceeding pleaſant, that it is a proverbial ſaying, Were I Lord of Leipſick, I would ſpend my fortune at Freiburg. And the riches which are found here more than equal the beauty of the town, which ſtands great part of it on a mine, over vaſt vaults and caverns, which have been ſome ages digging to come at the ſilver ore that is found here.

Mines.

At a little diſtance from the town there are ſeveral other mines, three of which the ingenious Dr. Brown has given us ſome account of. One of them, which goes by the name of the High Hill, he relates, is more than two hundred Engliſh fathom, or twelve hundred feet deep, which exceeded the depth of any mine he ſaw in Hungary. The ſecond is called the Prince of Heaven, which has at ſome times produced an ore ſo rich, that it has afforded ſixty-five pounds weight of ſilver in the hundred weight, though it generally yields but an ounce and a half, and ſometimes but half an ounce of ſilver in the pound; but it is a conſtant obſervation of the miners, that where the veins are richeſt and pureſt they are thinneſt, and generally not above the breadth of two inches. This mine, ſince it was firſt opened, it is reported, has yielded above an hundred millions of ſilver ſterling. However, thus much is certain, that the Elector's annual profit from theſe mines amounts to at leaſt an hundred and thirty thouſand pounds ſterling, clear of all charges. The third mine which Dr. Brown viſited here, was called the Neck-breaker, about eighty fathoms deep, the ore it produced being either copper and ſilver, or ſilver and lead, and ſometimes all three; but they work only for ſilver. There is alſo a rich ſulphur ore, hard and ſtony, with red ſpots, which is eſteemed the beſt, ſome of which yields three pounds of ſulphur out of an hundred weight of ore; and ſome of this ſulphur ore yields ſilver and copper, but in ſmaller quantities.

The divine wand

Among the ſeveral ways they have of diſcovering mines, they tell us of a divine rod which directs them to the ore. It is nothing more than a forked hazel ſtick, the two horns of which the miner holds in his hand, while he walks over the ground, muttering ſome unintelligible words to himſelf, by way of charm; whereupon the forked ſtick turns in his hand, and points to the ground where the veins of ſilver lie. This is related by two authors of the beſt credit who treat of theſe mines, namely Dr. Brown and Dr. Nicholson, who ſeem to have been eye-witneſſes of the experiment; after which perhaps it may be thought impertinent to doubt the virtue of this rod. But however the miners may aſcribe this to a ſupernatural power or impulſe, if the fact be really true, I ſhall be apt to impute it to ſome ſuch cauſe as occaſions the needle pointing to the load-ſtone, rather than to a charm, in which I confeſs I have no great faith. But to proceed; theſe deep mines are very dangerous to the workmen, who frequently meet with damps that prove mortal; and another inconvenience that attends their labour, is the duſt which grates upon and frets their ſkins, lungs and ſtomachs, and brings them into irrecoverable conſumptions; to ſecure themſelves againſt which they frequently wear vizards with glaſs-eyes. The mines are cold as far as the air can penetrate, but afterwards warm enough. There

Coin. Meiſſen. Plawen. Mulberg, &c.

is a mint at Freiburg where rix-dollars are coined, and other money, which is moſt commonly ſterling, and looked upon to be the beſt caſh in Germany; for the general coin of the Empire is a baſe mixed metal. 4. Meiſſen, heretofore the capital of Miſnia, ſituate on the river Meiſſen from whence it takes its name, has little in it now worth a traveller's notice; unleſs a palace of the Elector's, venerable on account of its antiquity. 5. Plawen, the capital of Voigtland, ſituate on the river Elſter, ſixty miles ſouth-weſt of Dreſden. The other principal towns are Pirn, Mulberg, Chemnitz, Frawenſtein, Koningſtein, Mariemburg, Annaburg, Zuickaw, Sneburg, Werda, Weiſſefels, Colditz, Leiſſneick, Lutzen, and Zeitz, of which I meet with nothing remarkable.

Luſatia.

3. The third diviſion of Upper Saxony is the marquiſate of Luſatia, bounded on the north by Brandenburg; on the eaſt by Sileſia; on the ſouth by Bohemia; and by the duchy of Saxony and Miſnia towards the weſt; extending about ninety miles in length from north to ſouth, and ſixty from eaſt to weſt, the principal rivers being the Spree and the Neiſſe. This country was a province of Bohemia until the year 1620, when being engaged in a rebellion againſt the Emperor with the reſt of that kingdom, the Elector of Saxony was commiſſioned by the Emperor to reduce them to his obedience; which having effected, the Emperor transferred this province to the Elector and his ſucceſſors, who ſtill enjoy the ſame, except ſome few places which are ſubject to the Elector of Brandenburg.

Bautzen. Gorlitz. Zittau, &c.

Luſatia is part of it a ſandy barren ſoil, and the remainder of it taken up with bogs and marſhes, there being ſcarce corn enough growing in the province to ſubſiſt the inhabitants. Veniſon and fiſh however are extremely plentiful, and there is no want of wood. The inhabitants are ſuppoſed to be of Sclavonian extraction from their language, which is a mixture of Sclavonian and High-Dutch. They are obſerved to have quick natural parts, but more addicted to covetouſneſs and a ſordid way of living than the reſt of Germany. The chief towns are, 1. Bautzen, or Budiſſina, ſituate on the river Spree, thirty miles north-eaſt of Dreſden. This city ſuffered much in the civil wars of the Empire, and was afterwards almoſt demoliſhed by the Swedes; and is at preſent in no very flouriſhing condition. 2. Gorlitz, ſituate in a marſh, upon the river Neiſſe, about twenty-five miles to the eaſtward of Bautzen; in which are ſeveral handſom churches, and the private buildings are not deſpicable. The chief trade of the citizens lies in linen cloth, which they make and dye; and in beer brewed here and vended abroad. The other towns of any note in Luſatia, are Zittau, Leiba, Luben, Guben, Soraw, Cothus, Comitz, Friedland, Sprehenberg, Konignart, and Zobelitz, of which travellers entertain us with nothing remarkable.

4. The fourth diviſion of Upper Saxony I am to deſcribe, is the duchy of Sax-Merſburg, Sax-Naumburg, and Sax-Altemburg.

Sax-Merſburg.

Sax-Merſburg was a Biſhop's See till the reformation, when the Elector of Saxony ſeized upon the city and territory belonging to it; and now applies the revenues of it to the ſupport of one of his younger ſons, to whom it gives the title of Duke. The town ſtands about eighteen miles north-weſt of Leipſick; there is little worth obſervation in it, except the cathedral.

Sax-Naumburg.

Sax-Naumburg alſo is the capital of a biſhoprick, which the Elector of Saxony ſeized at the reformation; and now gives title to a Prince of Saxony of the Erneſtine line, who is ſtiled Adminiſtrator of the biſhoprick. The town is ſituate on the river Sala, twenty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Leipſick; having a territory belonging to it twenty-five miles in length, and fifteen in breadth.

Sax-Altenburg.

Sax-Altenburg is bounded by Thuringia on the north; by Voigtland towards the eaſt; and by Franconia on the ſouth and weſt. The town of Altenburg, the capital of the territory, was an Imperial city, till Frederick, Marquis of Miſnia, took it, in the year 1308, and united it to that province: it is now ſubject to the Duke of Sax-Gotha.

Anhalt and Barby. Zerbſt. Brenburg. Deſſau.

The fifth diviſion of Upper Saxony is the principality of Anhalt, and the little county of Barby; bounded by the principality of Halberſtat and Magdeburg on the north; by Thuringia on the ſouth; and by Quedlinburg towards the weſt; extending ninety miles from eaſt to weſt; but is not of a proportionable breadth, being mighty narrow. This territory is ſubject to the Prince of Anhalt, one of the moſt ancient families in Germany; from which ſprung the houſes of Saxony and Brandenburg. The chief towns of Anhalt are, 1. Zerbſt, ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the Elbe, about fifty miles north of Leipſick, where the Prince has a palace. 2. Brenburg, ſituate on the river Sala, where the Prince has another palace; but travellers have not thought either of them worth a deſcription. 3. Deſſau, ſituate in a pleaſant fruitful country, at the confluence of the Elbe and the Mulda, eight miles to the ſouthward of Zerbſt, where the Prince alſo reſides ſometimes, the fortifications whereof are ſaid to be very ſtrong.

Thuringia and Manſfield.

6. The ſixth diviſion of Upper Saxony is the landgravate of Thuringia, or Thuringen, in Latin authors *Duringia*, and the county of Mansfeldt; bounded by the Hercynian foreſt towards the north; by the river Sala on the eaſt; and by the woods of Franconia towards the ſouth. The chief rivers are the Sala, the Werra, the Unſtruck, the Jera, and the Leina. The country yields plenty of corn, and ſome wine, more palatable than that of Saxony or Brandenburg; and among that variety of plants and herbs, with which their fields abound, thoſe peculiar to this province, are wild ſaffron, and woad uſed by the dyers in their beſt blues. They have alſo ſome good ſalt-pits; but their mines of ſilver and copper ore, mentioned by ſome travellers, do not turn to any great account. The natives are eſteemed the moſt clowniſh and unhoſpitable people in Germany; naturally ſo ſtupid and brutiſh, that it is with difficulty they are brought acquainted with the common principles of humanity, or to underſtand their duty to their governors. The Thuringians are ſuppoſed to be deſcended from the Goths and Vandals; and were anciently governed by their own Kings, till they were ſubdued by the Franks in the reign of Charlemain, who eſtabliſhed Chriſtianity in this province: great part of it was made ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Mentz, who divided it into ſeveral governments, which afterwards grew up into diſtinct counties and baronies. Afterwards Lodowick, Count of Schomburg, procured the title of Count of Thuringia to be conferred on him by the Emperor Conrad II. and his poſterity afterwards had the title of Landgraves of Thuringia given them by ſucceeding Emperors. In this line it continued till the death of Herman, Landgrave of Thuringia and Heſſe, when Thuringia deſcended to Henry Marquis of Miſnia, from whom the preſent Elector of Saxony claims.

Erfurt.

Weimar.

Jena.

Gotha.

The chief towns whereof are, 1. Erfurt, or Erford, or rather Jeraford, from the river whereon it ſtands, the capital of the province, ſituate in a pleaſant fruitful plain, on the banks of the river Gere, or Jera, ſixty miles to the weſtward of Leipſick, in fifty-one degrees north latitude: it is a conſiderable city, uſually compared to Cologne, for its beauty and dimenſions, and the trade and wealth of the inhabitants. Here are ſeveral noble churches and abbeys, a magnificent caſtle, and a conſiderable univerſity; a large territory alſo belongs to this city, in which are ſeveral baronies, and between three and fourſcore villages, all which were ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Mentz till the reformation; when the citizens embracing the Lutheran religion, put themſelves under the protection of the Elector of Saxony; which occaſioned a war between the Archbiſhop of Mentz and the Elector; but by a treaty between them, it was at length agreed, That ſeventeen villages in this territory ſhould be transferred to the Elector of Saxony; and the city with the reſt of its dependencies ſhould remain ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Mentz, as it is at this day. 2. Weimar, the capital of a duchy, which gives a title to a Prince of the family of Saxony; a large well-built city, ſituate between Erfurt and Jena, and has a great trade in wine. 3. Jena, ſeated in a pleaſant valley, on the river Sala, three and twenty miles to the eaſtward of Erfurt; remarkable chiefly for its univerſity, which has bred ſeveral learned men, particularly the famous J. Lipsius. 4. Gotha, the capital of a duchy, which gives a title to another branch of the houſe of Saxony; where the Duke has a caſtle and palace. The principal employment of the natives is the cultivating and preparing woad for the dyers, of which there are great quantities in the territory belonging to this city. This herb is ſaid to be an excellent balſamick for curing wounds; and the roots enrich and improve the lands where they are planted.

Sax-Gotha Duke.

Frederick III. the preſent Duke of Sax-Gotha, was born in the year 1696. He married in 1729, a daughter of Sax-Meinungen. The Duke's father was,

Frederick II. knight of the order of the elephant, born in 1676, and died in 1732. He married in 1696. Magdalene-Augusta, daughter to Charles-William. Prince of Anhalt Zerbet. This Princeſs has borne ſixteen children; thoſe of them that are alive are,

1. The preſent Duke.
2. William, colonel of a regiment of foot in the ſervice of the Elector of Saxony, born in 1701.
3. John-Augustus, a major-general in the Imperial army, born in 1704.
4. Christian-William, captain in the Emperor's ſervice.
5. Louis-Ernest, captain in the Emperor's ſervice.
6. Maurice, born in 1711.
7. Frederick, born the 4th of July 1715.
8. Augusta, Princeſs of Wales, born the 17th of November 1721.
9. John-Adolph, born in 1721.

Gotha, the capital city of the duchy, ſtands on the Leina, in a fine corn country, about two days journey ſouth from Hanover. The town is large; its chief trade is in woad.

The Duke's caſtle, or palace, ſtands on a hill by itſelf; it was demoliſhed by the Emperor Maximilian II. in 1567, but ſince rebuilt by Duke Ernest. From the apartments there is a vaſt proſpect over a fine fertile plain. In one of theſe chambers is a collection of valuable rarities, and a noble library.

The country of Altenburg, of which the Duke of Sax-Gotha is alſo Sovereign, is very fruitful. The peaſants here are ſaid to be the richeſt in all Germany, ſo that they may almoſt vie for ſubſtance with thoſe of Holland, who are the richeſt in the world; and, like the Dutch too, they do not care to ſpoil the breed, and ſcorn to match their daughters to any but the ſons of wealthy farmers.

At Altenburg, the capital of the country, the Duke has a handſom palace, where the Dutcheſs dowager, with the Princeſſes her daughters, retired on the death of the late Duke.

As of all the Saxon princes of the Erneſtine branch, the Duke of Sax-Gotha is the moſt powerful, ſo of all the courts of Saxony, next to that of Dreſden, his is the moſt numerous and moſt magnificent, according to the author of the preſent ſtate of Germany. The Duke has all the officers of ſtate, that are common to ſovereign princes. By the wiſe management and œconomy of the publick finances, his ſubjects are the leaſt burdened with taxes of any ſtate in Germany; yet the revenues of the late Duke were computed at a million of crowns, or two hundred thouſand pounds a year, with which he kept on foot between two and three thouſand regular troops. His guards were well clothed, his liveries rich, his tables ſerved with more elegance than profuſion. Moreover, the dominions both of Weimar and Eyſenach are ready to fall very ſoon into his family; by reaſon, that the Duke of Sax-Eyſenach who is become next heir to the dominions of the Duke of Weimar, upon the death of his ſon, the young prince, in 1732, has no children, and the Duke of Weimar himſelf is not like to have any more iſſue to ſucceed him, he having abſolutely refuſed the repetition of matrimony, to which he hath been often ſolicited by his ſubjects. This double ſucceſſion, when it falls, will rank the Duke of Sax-Gotha among the moſt conſiderable princes of the empire.

Eiſenach, &c.

Sunderhauſen.

Northauſen.

Stolburg.

The other towns of any note in Thuringia, are Mulhauſen, a ſmall Imperial city; Orlamund or Erlamund, Tonnenburg, Eiſenach the capital of a duchy, which gives a title to another Prince of the houſe of Saxony, and hath a conſiderable trade in iron. Marchful, the uſual reſidence of the Dukes of Saxe-Gotha. Sunderhauſen, the capital of the territory of Schwartzburg, forty miles long, and five and twenty broad. Northauſen, the capital of the territory of Hohenſtein, about twenty-five miles in length, and ten in breadth. Stolburg, the capital of a territory of the ſame name, twenty miles long, and ten broad; the Counts whereof are ſovereign Princes.

Mansfield county.

The laſt territory I ſhall mention here, is the county of Mansfield, by ſome called one of the Hercynian counties, (the other three being Stolburg, Hohenſtein and Regenſtein) ſo denominated from their lying upon the Hercynian foreſt. Mansfield is bounded by the principality of Anhalt on the north; by the river Sala, which divides it from Merſburg, on the eaſt; by Thuringia on the ſouth; and by the territories of Schwartzburg and Stolburgh on the weſt: and about thirty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. This country is rich in minerals, among which there is a black glittering kind of ſlate, which being melted down, yields both copper and ſilver, of which a German writer gives the following account: "The "Counts of Mansfield, ſays he, have in their "territories ſeveral mines of Scheifferſtein, the "like whereof the whole world cannot pretend to; "for out of this ſtone the inhabitants melt a cop"per, each hundred weight whereof contains be"tween ten and twelve ounces of pure ſilver: and "whatever part of the country you dig for this "mineral, you are ſure to ſucceed; I myſelf have "been an eye-witneſs of an extravagant curioſity "of nature in the compoſure of this ſtone: there "is in the neighbourhood of Eiſleben a lake ſe"veral miles in length and breadth, abounding "with ſeveral kinds of fiſh and other animals, "as frogs, water-rats, &c. all which are livelily "repreſented in many of theſe Scheiffer-ſtones, "by fair copper ſtrokes through the very body of "the ſlate."

The Counts of Mansfield are Princes of the Empire, of a very ancient family; but at preſent branched out into four or five diſtinct houſes, which renders them leſs conſiderable than they have been. They pay ſome homage or acknowledgment to the Elector of Saxony, but have no great dependance on him. The chief towns of the county of Mansfield are, 1. Eyſleben, ſo named from the iron ore dug there, called by the natives Eyſen. The famous MARTIN LUTHER was born in this city in the year 1483, and died in the ſame place anno 1564. Over the door of the houſe where he was born, the citizens ſet up his ſtatue in ſtone, with this inſcription, viz.

Eyſleben.

Hoſtis eram papæ, ſociorum peſtis & hujus
Vox mea cum ſcriptis nil niſi Chriſtus erit.

But the Imperialiſts in the civil wars of Germany which followed, demoliſhed the image and defaced the inſcription. The town is but ſmall, and ſtands about fifteen miles north-weſt of Hall: the principal trade whereof is in iron-work. 2. Manſfield, which gives name to the county, and a title to it's Count; ſtands above five miles north-weſt of Eyſleben; an old ruinous town, remarkable for nothing but a caſtle, which ſtands near it on the top of a hill. The other towns of any note in this country are Wipra, Aruſtein and Querfurt, of which travellers afford us no deſcription.

And thus I have gone through all that part of the Upper Saxony that is ſubject to, or any way dependant on the Elector of Saxony. I proceed now to give ſome account of the preſent Elector, the King of Poland, and his family, and of his forces, revenues, and intereſts.

The family of the preſent Elector.

The preſent Elector FREDERICK AUGUSTUS was the younger ſon of JOHN GEORGE III. born May the twelfth, 1670. In 1693, he married CHRISTINA EBERHARDINA, the daughter of CHRISTIAN ERNEST, Margrave of Brandenburg Bareith, and ſucceeded his brother JOHN GEORGE IV. the late Elector, anno 1694, and was elected King of Poland in the year 1697. He has iſſue by the Electreſs a ſon named FREDERICK AUGUSTUS, born October the 17th, 1696, married to the Archdutcheſs MARY, daughter of the late Emperor JOSEPH, in the year 1719. I ſhall not here give a liſt of all the Princes of the houſe of Saxony, but leave that for the appendix, where the pedigree of the other German Princes will be inſerted; only obſerve that the preſent electoral family derive their pedigree from WITTIKIND, the laſt King of the Saxons, who being conquered by CHARLES the Great, about the year 785, was afterwards reſtored to his dominions by the ſame Emperor; and held them of him under the title of Duke. The Princes of this houſe were great encouragers of the reformation; on which account the Elector JOHN FREDERICK was a conſiderable ſufferer, being taken priſoner, and condemned to death by the Emperor CHARLES V. but pardoned afterwards as to his life, on the interceſſion of ſome powerful friends, upon condition he ſhould reſign the electoral dignity and all his dominions to the Emperor: which when he had done, the Emperor reſtored him the caſtle of Gotha, and the town of Weimar, with the territories thereto belonging, which his poſterity ſtill enjoy. But the Emperor, with the general conſent of the Electors, inveſted MAURICE, couſin-german to the deprived Duke, in the electoral dignity, and all the lands, honours, and eſtates, which formerly belonged to the late Duke, the ſigniories of Gotha and Weimar excepted; and the poſterity of Prince MAURICE have enjoyed the electoral dignity and it's dependencies ever ſince, the preſent Elector claiming under him.

Revenues and forces.

The revenue of this Prince is ſuppoſed to exceed that of any of the German powers, except the Emperor; and to amount to at leaſt five hundred thouſand pounds per ann. For he has a tenth of all the corn, fruit, wine, and other produce of the earth in his dominions; beſides a general exciſe upon beer, and almoſt all other kinds of proviſion. There is alſo a particular tax laid on his ſubjects for the maintenance of a war againſt the Turk, at leaſt it was levied at firſt with that deſign, but is now continued in time of peace, upon pretence of the neceſſity of being always in a poſture to oppoſe the enemy. A precedent that the miniſtry in other countries frequently copy after: and indeed, it ſeems to be a ſtanding rule among thoſe gentlemen, that whatever tax you can once wheedle or frighten the people into, is never to be laid down or diminiſhed, notwithſtanding the occaſion of the firſt levying it hath been long ſince removed. But to proceed, there is alſo a vaſt eſtate in demeſn lands, which belong to the Elector; and particularly church and abbey lands, which theſe Princes ſeized at the reformation; and over and above all this, there is a conſiderable revenue ariſes from the ſilver mines in this country, which, together with the other articles, cannot amount to ſo little as half a million of money annually. The Elector of Saxony, like other German Princes, always keeps up a good body of troops both in peace and war; and particularly the preſent Elector, who had never obtained the crown of Poland, or preſerved himſelf on that throne, but by the influence of his Saxon forces. Before he had this occaſion for them, he let out his troops to the allies, or other Princes for hire, as his neighbours conſtantly do, whenever they have an opportunity. And theſe Princes ſeem to have two very ſubſtantial reaſons for keeping up a ſtanding army at all times; the one to ſupport the arbitrary dominion they exerciſe over their ſubjects, and the other to increaſe their revenues; for the Prince has always a profit out of the mercenaries he furniſhes any power with, over and above the pay they receive for their neceſſary ſubſiſtence.

Abſtract of the actions of the preſent Elector.

The preſent Prince entered into the confederacy againſt France, and commanded a body of troops upon the Rhine, ſoon after his acceſſion to the electorate, in the year 1694. He had then the reputation of a gallant man, and was actually ſtronger in his hands than any ſoldier in the army, being able to twiſt a horſe-ſhoe in two with his fingers. He was called from the Rhine in the year 1696; and made General of the Emperor's forces in Hungary, where he gained abundance of honour by a victory he obtained over the infidels near Temeſwaer. About the ſame time he thought fit to quit the Lutheran doctrine, and reconcile himſelf to the church of Rome, in order to qualify himſelf to be elected King of Poland, in which he ſucceeded through the intereſt of the powers in alliance againſt France, and the influence of the Saxon forces he carried with him into Poland on this occaſion; and as he obtained his election by ſurprize and force, he was ſenſible he could not maintain himſelf on the throne of Poland, but by the continuance of the Saxon troops in that kingdom, which was however contrary to the conſtitution of Poland, and to the *Pacta Conventa* he had ſworn to on his acceſſion; and the only expedient he could think of in this caſe to avoid ſending back the Saxons, was to make an offer to the republick of employing them in the recovery of thoſe provinces which had been taken from the republick by the Swedes a century before, and yielded to Sweden by former treaties, which the Poles did not ſeem very averſe to, eſpecially ſince they were not to be at the expence of reducing them to their obedience. For let a Prince or State yield up a part of their territories to an enemy by the moſt ſolemn treaties, they ever pretend there was a force put upon them in the matter, and whenever they have an opportunity, ſeldom fail to renew their pretenſions to the diſmembered country, let the diſtance of time they parted with it be ever ſo great. But to proceed: the King of Poland, before he began this war, thought it prudent to enter into an alliance with Ruſſia and Denmark, who had both of them the ſame antiquated pretenſions to ſome of the provinces in the poſſeſſion of the Swede; and when he had thus ſecured himſelf, as he apprehended, from all poſſibility of a diſaſter, he fell upon the Swediſh dominions in Livonia, without declaring war, or giving the leaſt intimation of his hoſtile intentions, which was looked upon to be the more barbarous and diſhonourable, becauſe the King of Sweden was then a minor. I have already given an account of the progreſs of this war in the modern hiſtory of Poland, I ſhall therefore only remember here, that the King of Sweden, though he was but ſeventeen years of age, aſſembled his forces, and landing in Livonia, defeated both the Muſcovites and Saxons, and never left the purſuit of his enemies till he had ravaged the electorate of Saxony itſelf, obliged King AUGUSTUS to renounce the crown of Poland, and to acknowledge and congratulate STANISLAUS, whom he had ſet up in his room, as ſovereign of that kingdom. But the King of Sweden being afterwards defeated at Pultowa by the Ruſſians, King AUGUSTUS took the opportunity of re-aſcending the throne of Poland again, in the year 1709, where he has maintained himſelf to this time, but in perpetual contentions with his ſubjects, who always inſiſted on the Saxon troops evacuating Poland, and at ſome times actually fell upon them in their quarters, and cut them in pieces; which occaſioned an inteſtine war in that kingdom for many years, the Saxons ſurprizing the Poles, and the Poles the Saxons, as they had an opportunity. And that which alarmed the Poles the more, was a propoſal of his preſent Majeſty to make the crown hereditary, and ſettle it on his family; to which purpoſe the electoral Prince, his eldeſt ſon, after the pattern his father had ſet him, renounced the Proteſtant religion, and became a Papiſt; but the Poles notwithſtanding ſeem determined that he ſhall not ſucceed the preſent King. I muſt not forget here to do that juſtice to the Electreſs of Saxony, conſort to the preſent King of Poland, as to acknowledge, that though the King her huſband, and the electoral Prince her ſon, both apoſtatized from their religion in expectation of a crown, ſhe has always continued firm to her principles, chooſing to remain Electreſs of Saxony, rather than alter her religion to obtain the title of Queen of Poland, and the honours which attend it; for the Poles it ſeems will not ſuffer any Princeſs to be crowned Queen, who is not of the communion of the church of Rome. And this brings me to mention the religion profeſſed in this electorate, which is in general the Lutheran, except in thoſe cities and territories which are ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Mentz, and other popiſh Princes. It is true, the preſent Elector the King of Poland, and the electoral Prince, with ſome other Princes of the electoral family, have of late years been reconciled to the church of Rome; but they have not yet uſed any other means than their own example and perſuaſion to bring over the people to that church. Lutheraniſm is ſtill the eſtabliſhed religion of the country, and when the Duke of Sax-Zeits, who had been ſeduced to turn Papiſt, returned to the boſom of the Lutheran church four or five years ſince, I find they ſung *Te Deum* for it, as if they were under no apprehenſions of the frowns of the court on that occaſion; and perhaps the danger they may apprehend to their religion from the apoſtacy of their Princes, may put them more upon their guard, and induce them to hold their opinions the faſter: for I make no doubt but many of the ſubjects of England, who were very zealous for their religion in the reign of the late King JAMES, having ſince met with no oppoſition on that head, have become very indifferent to it, and ſcarce think any religion worth the contending for; whereas, had the danger continued, their zeal would probably have continued too.

The Elector of Saxony's titles.

The Elector of Saxony and the Elector of Bavaria are Vicars of the Empire, and have the adminiſtration of the government during an Interregnum, (but I think this point is ſcarce ſettled between the Elector Palatine, and the Elector of Bavaria.) The Elector of Saxony is alſo Great Marſhal of the Empire, and by virtue of that office to have the guard of the city where the Diet aſſembles. The titles he aſſumes are Duke of Saxony, Juliers, Cleve, Berg, Engers and Weſtphalia; Arch-Maſter and Elector of the Empire; Landgrave of Thuringia; Margrave of Miſnia, and of the Upper and Lower Luſatia; Count and Prince of Henneberg; Count of La Marck, Ravenſburg and Barby; and Lord of Ravenſtein.

The arms of Saxony.

The arms of the Elector of Saxony, are, Azure, a lion crowned faced Argent and Gules, for Thuringia. Faced Or and Sable with Vert through the whole for Saxony. Or, a lion Sable, for Miſnia. Coupee Sable on Argent two ſwords Gules, for the dignity of Elector and Arch-Marſhal of the Empire. Argent, a beeve Gules, and a wall a wall Or, for Luſatia. The helmets are Or, ſurmounted with two blue wings, for Luſatia. Or, ſurmounted with two horns Argent, for Thuringia. Or, two crowns Azure and Argent, for Saxony. Or, ſurmounted with a demi-man Azure and Argent, for Miſnia.

BRANDENBURG.

CHAP. XIV.

Treats of the north part of the circle of Upper Saxony, viz. the marquiſate of Brandenburg, the dukedom of Magdeburg, the principality of Halberſtat, the duchy of Pomerania, and the iſland of Rugen.

CHAP. XIV. Brandenburg.

THE ſouthern part of the circle of Upper Saxony, ſubject to the Elector, the preſent King of Poland, has been already deſcribed; I come now to the more northern countries comprehended in this circle, which are, the marquiſate of Brandenburg, Magdeburg, Halberſtat, and the dukedom of Pomerania, moſt of them ſubject to the King of Pruſſia, as Elector of Brandenburg.

North part of the circle of Upper Saxony.

This part of the circle of Upper Saxony is bounded by the Baltick ſea towards the north, by the kingdom of Poland on the eaſt, by Sileſia and the other part of the circle of Upper Saxony towards the ſouth, and by the circle of Lower Saxony towards the weſt.

Brandenburg marquiſate, why ſo called.

And firſt of Brandenburg, ſtiled the Margravate, or Marquiſate, by way of eminence, as having been the utmoſt bounds or marches of the German Empire towards the north; the Margraff, or as we call him, Marquis, being properly *Judex*, or *Comes Limitaneus*, Lieutenant of the marches, as this officer was ſtiled anciently in England, and veſted with the civil, as well as the military power in his province.

Situation and extent.

Rivers.

The air.

Soil.

Corn.

Cattle.

Wine.

Salt.

Mines.

Natives, their condition.

Brandenburg is bounded by Pomerania and Mecklenburg on the north, by Poland towards the eaſt, by the other part of Upper Saxony on the ſouth, and by Brunſwick and Lunenburg towards the weſt; extending two hundred miles in length from eaſt to weſt, but of very unequal breadth, in ſome places near an hundred, and in others not fifty miles broad. The chief rivers which water this country are the Elbe, the Oder, the Havel, the Spree and the Wart; beſides ſeveral large lakes, of which the Ukerſee is one of the chief. They have a communication alſo with the Baltick ſea by the river Oder; and there is a canal cut from the Oder to the Elbe, by which they convey their merchandize and produce of the country to the German ocean, and thereby avoid the duties demanded in the Sound of ſuch ſhips as go through the Baltick. The air of this country is cold, and their winters long, continuing ſeven or eight months. The ſoil is ſandy and barren, and over-run with woods and foreſts: they have however corn enough for their uſe for the moſt part, and when they want are ſupplied on eaſy terms from Poland, which lies contiguous to them. They have large flocks of ſheep, and ſtore of deer and other veniſon in their foreſts, but do not abound in black cattle. The wine they make is ſour, as it is in all countries which lie ſo far north, and bad even to a proverb. Salt here is none, but what is imported by their rivers, the Elbe, the Havel or Spree. Here are ſcarce any ſilver mines as in other provinces of Germany, which may be one reaſon their coin is of a much baſer metal than their neighbours; and their mines of copper and iron yield but a very ſmall quantity of either. The natives are a mixture of ſeveral German nations, as is evident from the ſeveral dialects ſpoken by them. They are generally a poor miſerable people, inſomuch that Dr. NICHOLSON obſerves, that to lie on a bed of clean ſtraw is a mark of diſtinction, and the lot only of a man of ſome faſhion.

Religion.

At the reformation the Brandenburghers and their Prince embraced the doctrines of LUTHER, in which they were unanimous, till GEORGE WILLIAM their Elector, about the year 1614, married a ſiſter of FREDERICK Elector Palatine, the head of the Calviniſt party, who brought him over to that ſect, and prevailed upon him to publiſh an edict for ſuppreſſing the Lutheran doctrine, and eſtabliſhing Calviniſm throughout his dominions, in the year 1615; whereupon his ſubjects unanimouſly rebelled againſt their Elector, and had infallibly depoſed him, if he had not ſuddenly revoked his edict, and eſtabliſhed Lutheraniſm again by another act of ſtate, declaring he would confine the Calviniſt worſhip to his own private chapel. Succeeding Electors however have found means to advance the Calviniſt intereſt, which now bears a great ſway in Pruſſia and ſome other territories belonging to the Elector of Brandenburg: in the univerſities of Koningſberg and Francfort upon Oder particularly, the principles of CALVIN only are encouraged; but yet the greateſt part of the people of Brandenburg ſtill remain Lutherans.

Subdiviſion of Brandenburg.

The marquiſate of Brandenburg is uſually divided into three parts, viz. 1. The Alt Marck, or Old Marck. 2. The New Marck. And 3. the Middle Marck.

AltMarck

The Alt Marck is bounded on the north by Mecklenburg, by Middle Marck on the eaſt, by the dukedom of Magdeburg on the ſouth, and by Sax-Lawenburg and Lunenburg towards the weſt: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Stendal. 2. Solt-wedel. 3. Gardeleben. 4. Angermund, or Tangermund. 5. Oſterburg. Here are alſo the towns of Seehuſen, Werben, Havelburg, and Perleburg, but of leſs note.

Stendal.

Soltwedel.

Gardeleben.

Angermund.

1. Stendal, the capital of Alt Marck, is ſituate in a pleaſant plain, on the river Ucht, about five miles from the river Elbe, and as many from Angermund; formerly one of the Hans towns, and is ſtill a place of ſome trade in corn and linen cloth. 2. Soltwedel, or Soltquel, a great town on the banks of the river Jetze, in the midway between Lunenburg and Stendal, the trade whereof conſiſts chiefly in beer, which they export to Lunenburg, and other provinces of Brandenburg. 3. Gardeleben, ſaid to have obtained it's name from the many pleaſant gardens about it. The beer brewed here is in great reputation in the reſt of Germany as well as their hops, which are bought up by the Danes and other foreigners. 4. Angermund, ſituate at the confluence of the Anger and the Elbe, eight miles to the ſouthward of Stendal; and has a great advantage by the navigation of the Elbe, upon which they tranſport their corn and other merchandize as far as Hamburg, and from thence to foreign countries.

New Marck.

2. New Marck, which lies between the river Warta and Pomerania, ſeparated from Middle Marck by the Oder: containing about an hundred miles in circumference; and belonged anciently to the Knights of the Teutonick Order. It is the moſt fruitful

Kuſtrin.

fruitful part of the marquiſate, having plenty of corn and paſture, and in ſome places vines, which yield indifferent wine. The only conſiderable town in this territory is Kuſtrin, ſituate on the river Oder, near the mouth of the Warta, fifty miles eaſt of Berlin: a place of ſuch ſtrength, that GUSTAVUS ADOLHPUS having ſat down before it, was forced to raiſe the ſiege. It is a neat well-built town, and has a ſpacious market-place. Towns of leſs note in this territory are Falkenburg, Dreyſen, Lanſperg, Sunneberg and Sternberg.

Middle Marck.

Brandenburg city.

Berlin city.

Francfort upon Oder.

3. Middle Marck, ſituate in the very heart of Brandenburg, extending in length about an hundred miles between the rivers Elbe and Oder; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Brandenburg. 2. Berlin. And 3. Francfort upon Oder. 1. Brandenburg, ſituate in the midſt of a moraſs, on the river Hamel, which divides it into two parts, twenty-ſix miles weſt of Berlin, gives it's name to the whole marquiſate, and was once the metropolis of it. In the great church are ſeveral monuments of their Princes and Biſhops: but the inhabitants are in ſo wretched a condition at preſent, that was it not for a neighbouring lake which affords them plenty of fiſh, they would find it difficult to ſubſiſt. 2. Berlin, pleaſantly ſituated in a fruitful country on the river Spree; having vineyards on one ſide, meadows on another, and a foreſt on the third, ſtocked with all manner of game; and lies in the latitude of fifty-two degrees thirty minutes, fourteen degrees to the eaſtward of London, and forty-five miles to the weſtward of Francfort upon Oder. It is the capital of the marquiſate, and the uſual reſidence of the Elector, now King of Pruſſia, divided into two parts by the river Spree, the larger towards the north is properly Berlin, the other ſouth of the river is called Coln, where ſtands the Elector's palace, a magnificent ſtructure built of free-ſtone: in which the armory, the chamber of curioſities, the paintings, the library, the gardens, water-works, and ſtables are much admired by travellers. The town is alſo generally well built, the ſtreets wide, and the ſquares and publick places ſpacious, the whole encompaſſed with a wall, and regular fortifications after the modern way; and the canals cut from this city to the river Oder and Elbe, the one falling into the Baltick, and the other into the German Ocean, render it one of the beſt trading towns in Germany. The people of this place we have lately imitated in the faſhion of our chariots, from hence called Berlins, after the name of the city. 3. Francfort upon Oder, uſually ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from Francfort on the Maine, upwards of forty miles to the eaſtward of Berlin, formerly one of the Hans-Towns, and an Imperial city, but now ſubject to the Marquiſſes of Brandenburg, who have erected a univerſity here for the propagation of Calviniſm. The town is divided into two parts by the river Oder, and joined together by a wooden bridge. The ſtreets are wide, and the houſes well built: they have a tolerable good trade, eſpecially at their annual fairs; but the town is not in that flouriſhing condition it has been. The other great towns in this marquiſate, are Spandaw, Oranienburg, Rotenaw, Lebus, Havelburg, Newſtat, Wiſtock, Dalmin, Rupin, Premiſlaw, Potſdam, Straſburg and Templin; but of theſe I find nothing remarkable, unleſs that the King of Pruſſia has a palace at Potſdam, where he ſometimes reſides.

Magdeburg.

City of Magdeburg.

The Duchy of Magdeburg is bounded by Mecklenburg and Brandenburg on the north; by the other part of Brandenburg and Upper Saxony towards the eaſt; by the principality of Anhalt and Halberſtat on the ſouth; and by Brunſwick towards the weſt; extending ſixty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and is about thirty miles broad from north to ſouth; the river Elbe running croſs this territory, that part of it which lies to the eaſtward of the river conſiſts chiefly of foreſts, and has very little corn-ground; but to the weſtward of the river they have plenty of grain, and as great a ſcarcity of wood. The chief city of this territory is Magdeburg, anciently called *Parthenopolis*, ſituate on the banks of the Elbe, in fifty-two degrees odd minutes, ſeventy miles to the weſtward of Berlin. It was not very conſiderable till EDITHA daughter of EDMUND an Engliſh Saxon King, and conſort to the Emperor OTHO the Great, enlarged and beautified it: ſhe alſo prevailed with the Pope to make it an Archbiſhoprick, and independent of any eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction but the See of Rome, whereupon the Archbiſhop was ſtiled Primate of all Germany; and in the cathedral church there ſtill remains the buſt of the Empreſs EDITHA, with the repreſentation of eighteen caſks of gold by her, which the founding the cathedral and embelliſhing the city coſt her, as tradition gives us to underſtand. The ancient city was of a very large circumference; but it is now ſcarce half built, having been deſtroyed by Count Tilly, the Imperial General, after a brave defence, in the year 1631; of forty thouſand inhabitants, which this town then contained, Tilly cauſed them every one to be maſſacred, it is ſaid, except four hundred, on account of their adhering to the Lutheran doctrine; nor did he leave a church or houſe ſtanding, except the cathedral, and ſome few fiſhermen's cottages; but the Lutherans have ſince erected ſome very handſom churches, and the Jeſuits have a very fine one. The cathedral is a magnificent ſtructure, and had in the Popiſh times thirty-two, Dr. NICHOLSON ſays forty-nine, noble altars: the high altar ſtill remains, which is a table of jaſper ſtone, eighteen foot long, about eight in breadth, and two in thickneſs, valued at two tuns of gold: here are alſo ſtatues repreſenting the five wiſe virgins, with ſmiling countenances, and the five fooliſh equally diſconſolate. They ſhew alſo ſeveral reliques, which in the days of Popery were in great veneration, but not much regarded by the preſent inhabitants; namely, a large ſtone ſaid to be a piece of one of the water-pots in which our Saviour turned the water into wine; an old wooden ſlipper of the Virgin MARY's; a piece of wood on which the cock ſtood that crowed on PETER's denying our Saviour; the baſon PILATE waſhed his hands in, &c.

Magdeburg archbiſhoprick converted into a duchy.

Luther educated here.

This city embracing LUTHER's doctrine about the year 1566, JOACHIM FREDERICK, ſon of the then Elector of Brandenburg, was elected adminiſtrator of the revenues of the Archbiſhoprick: and by the treaty of Weſtphalia it was ſtipulated that the Archbiſhoprick of Magdeburg ſhould be for ever annexed to the Electorate of Brandenburg, and converted into a duchy; accordingly one of the titles of the preſent Elector the King of Pruſſia is Duke of Magdeburg, of which city and territory he is abſolute ſovereign: the revenue of which is computed to amount to an hundred thouſand pounds per annum. In this place LUTHER had his education, and they ſtill ſhew the remains of his chamber among the ruins of the cloyſter of the Auſtin friars, with his bedſtead and table, and over the door are certain verſes in High-Dutch, which a modern writer has put into Engliſh rhime as follows:

LUTHER *lodged within this little room*
When firſt he did into the cloyſter come,
In memory whereof we ſtill do keep
The bedſtead upon which he us'd to ſleep.

Tournaments firſt eſtabliſhed here.

Another thing the city of Magdeburg was once famous for, was the tilts and tournaments firſt inſtituted here by the Emperor HENRY ſurnamed the FOWLER, about the year 638, to which none but the ancient nobility were to be admitted, or any uſurper, oppreſſor of widows or orphans, hereticks, murderers, cowards, baſtards, or any who had given a real affront to a lady, and not above one of a family at a time: every Prince who entred the liſts was to be attended by four ſquires; a Count or Baron by three, a Knight by two, and a Gentleman by one. Every one at his entring the liſts appeared at the Preſident's apartment, where his name and quality being regiſtred in the preſence of three Heralds, the Champion delivered in his helmet and ſword, and after confeſſion entered the barrier attended by his Eſquires, where having engaged his antagoniſt at all manner of weapons, the judges gave ſentence, and the conqueror received the prize from the hand of ſome fair lady, or from the Prince who gave it. But after theſe exerciſes had continued ſome ages, they were aboliſhed on account of the deſtructive conſequences; for ſuch an emulation was raiſed between the nobility of ſome provinces, that at one tournament in the year 1473, there were ſeventeen gentlemen of Franconia killed on the ſpot, and nine of Heſſe.

Borch.

2. Borch, the moſt conſiderable place in the duchy next to Magdeburg; beſides which there are twenty-ſeven other towns in this territory, but none of them particularly deſcribed by travellers.

Halberſtat principality.

The principality of Halberſtat is bounded by the duchy of Brunſwick and Magdeburg towards the north; by the duchy of Saxony on the eaſt; by the principality of Anhalt on the ſouth; and by the biſhoprick of Hildeſheim towards the weſt: extending about thirty-ſix miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-five in breadth from north to ſouth:

Halberſtat city.

the chief town, which gives name to the principality, is Halberſtat, ſituate on the little river Hotheim, about thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Magdeburg. It is a neat uniform town travellers tell us in general; but give no account of any particular buildings, except an inn, eſteemed the largeſt, and to have the beſt accommodations of any in Europe. Lutheraniſm was eſtabliſhed here about the year 1591. But their laſt Biſhop LEOPOLD WILLIAM of Auſtria reſtored Popery, till the Swedes taking the town introduced the Lutheran religion again; and by the treaty of Weſtphalia it was made a ſecular principality, and conferred on the Elector of Brandenburg the preſent ſovereign.

Gruningen.

2. Gruningen, remarkable only for a fine chapel and organ, and a tun made in imitation of that of Heidelberg, which will contain near a thouſand hogſheads of wine: for as the Germans pay a more than ordinary reſpect to BACCHUS, they adorn and enlarge the veſſels which contain the generous juice of the grape beyond any thing in their publick or private buildings. In many other German towns beſides this, a traveller is carried to ſee theſe capacious tuns, in the gilding and carving of which no ſmall labour is beſtowed. The other towns mentioned by geographers in this principality are Oſcherſleben and Oſterwick, of which they give no particular deſcription. This territory is generally fruitful in corn, and excels any of the neighbouring countries in the pleaſantneſs of it's foreſts, and plenty of all kinds of Veniſon.

Pomerania dukedom.

The ancient Pomerania, or Pomerland, was of much larger extent than the preſent Pomerania, taking in all Caſubia and Pomerelia to the eaſtward, which now belong to Poland, and part of the marquiſate of Brandenburg on the ſouth; the Baltick ſea alſo, it is ſaid, has broken in and ſwallowed up great part of the ancient Pomerania on the north, together with ſome whole iſlands, and half of the iſle of Rugen.

Situation and extent.

The modern Pomerania is a long narrow tract of land, extending near two hundred miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and fifty or ſixty in breadth from north to ſouth, but the breadth is very unequal. It is bounded by the Baltick ſea on the north; by Poliſh Pomerelia towards the eaſt; by the marquiſate of Brandenburg on the ſouth; and by Mecklenburg towards the weſt: and took the name of Pomeren, from it's lying on the ſea-coaſt; Pomer ſignifying as much both in the Sclavonian and German tongue. The Air is ſeverer here than in any part of Germany, as may well be ſuppoſed from it's northern ſituation.

Rivers and lakes.

It is well watered by lakes and rivers; among the latter are the Oder, the Pen, the Rega, the Perſant, the Wiper, the Stolp, the Rekenitz, and the Barte. The Rekenitz ſeparates Pomerania from the dukedom of Mecklenburg, forming a large lake near Damgarten, and diſcharging it ſelf into the Baltick at Dars. The Barte riſes near Stralſund, and falls into the ſea at Bardt. The Oder ſoon after it's entring Pomerania divides it ſelf into ſeveral branches, incloſing many large iſlands, whereof ſome are two miles over; and having paſſed by Stetin flows into the Damniſh Lake, and then into Damantzke, and at laſt dilates it ſelf into a vaſt freſh-water lake, or ſea, called the great Friſche Haff;

The Friſche Haff lake.

extending ſixteen miles in length, and as many in breadth; which lake falls into the Baltick ſea, by three currents, viz. the Divenow, the Swyn, and the Penemund, through which ſhips paſs to Stetin. Between the Pene and the Swyn lies the iſland of Uſedom: and the territory of the city of Wollin lies encloſed by the Swyn and Divenow. Beſides the rivers above mentioned there are many more in this province which fall into the Baltick. Pomeren alſo contains a vaſt number of ſtanding lakes; the chief whereof are thoſe of new Stetin, Lukow, Sukow, Verſchem, Derſenten and Penkun. Here are ſcarce any mountains, but the country is covered with woods and foreſts, well ſtocked with game and wild beaſts. Their lakes and rivers alſo furniſh them with vaſt plenty of fiſh, particularly ſalmon and lampreys; and land and water-fowl no where abound more: but the ſoil is generally a barren ſand, on which they do not attempt to raiſe vineyards, and have ſcarce corn enough for their own uſe. Mines there are none, except ſome few of iron in the Upper Pomeren.

Subdiviſion of Pomerania.

The country is uſually divided into the eaſtern and weſtern Pomerania. The weſtern, till very lately, was all of it ſubject to the King of Sweden, and ſubdivided into the diſtricts of Stetin, Wolgaſt, Gatſkow and Bardt, lying on the weſt ſide of the Oder, together with the iſlands of Rugen, Uſedom and Wollin. The eaſtern Pomerania is ſubject to the Elector of Brandenburg, and ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the Oder, being ſubdivided into the diſtricts of Pomerania, Caſuben, and Vendoſin or Wenden.

History of Pomerania.

But before I enter into a more particular deſcription of this country, it will be neceſſary to give an abſtract of the hiſtory of it, from the year 1217. This dukedom was divided between **BUGISLAUS** and **OTHO**, two brothers, from whom deſcended the two houſes of Wolgaſt and Stetin, which continued for two hundred years and upwards. The houſe of Stetin failing about the year 1464, by the death of **OTHO III.** that part of the dukedom which belonged to it was conferred on **FREDERICK**, the ſecond Marquis of Brandenburg, by the Emperor **FREDERICK III.** whereupon the Duke of Pomeren Wolgaſt conceiving a great piece of injuſtice to have been done his family, entered into a war with the Elector of Brandenburg, which ended in a treaty of peace, whereby it was concluded, that they ſhould both retain the title and arms of the Dukes of Pomeren, but the Duke of Wolgaſt ſhould remain in poſſeſſion of all the Pomeranian territories, and upon failure of iſſue male, they ſhould deſcend entire to the houſe of Brandenburg. Accordingly in the year 1637, **BUGISLAUS XIV.** dying without iſſue, **GEORGE WILLIAM**, Elector of Brandenburg, laid claim to the whole dukedom; but the Swedes having been allies to the late **BUGISLAUS**, and called in by him and other German Princes to ſupport them againſt the Emperor, and being now in poſſeſſion of the beſt part of Pomeren, and pretending that the late Duke had by his will given the duchy of Pomeren to the Swede, inſiſted at the treaty of Munſter, that all the weſtern Pomeren, with the iſles of Rugen and Wollin, and the town of Stetin, ſhould from thenceforward be annexed to the crown of Sweden, and that part of the country to the eaſtward of the river Oder only ſhould be ſubject to the Elector of Brandenburg, and that no longer than there ſhould be male iſſue of the houſe of Brandenburg; upon failure whereof, it ſhould be added to the Swediſh dominions; and in the mean time both Princes ſhould enjoy the title and arms of the Dukes of Pomeren, and that the Elector ſhould have by way of equivalent for his parting with the weſtern Pomerania, the biſhopricks of Halberſtat and Minden, and the reverſion of the archbiſhoprick of Magdeburg, which he now enjoys. He is alſo allowed one voice in the Diets of the Empire for Pomeren, another for Magdeburg, and a third for Halberſtat and Minden. Notwithſtanding all which advantages, the Elector took the opportunity ſome years afterwards, when the Swede was engaged in a war with the Danes and other powers anno 1678, to ſeize on moſt part of Pomeren allotted to the King of Sweden by the treaty of Munſter, but was forced to relinquiſh it again ſoon after by the treaty of St. Germain, and the Swedes remained in quiet poſſeſſion of the weſtern Pomerania till the late King of Sweden's defeat at Pultowa, when the King of Pruſſia taking advantage of his diſtreſs, ſeized Stetin, the iſlands of Wollin and Uſedom; and the Danes, by the aſſiſtance of the Pruſſians, Poles and Muſcovites, made themſelves maſters of Stralſund, Marſtrand, the iſle of Rugen, &c. But by the treaty of peace which enſued anno 1720, the Danes were obliged to reſtore to Sweden all they had taken during the war, particularly Stralſund, and that part of Pomeren which lies weſt of the river Pene, with the iſle of Rugen, the fortreſs of Marſtrand, and all the other iſlands in their poſſeſſion: but Stetin, and the iſles of Wollin and Uſedom, and the countries contiguous to the Oder, were confirmed to the Elector of Brandenburg, the preſent King of Pruſſia, in whoſe poſſeſſion they then were. So that now he hath a free communication with the Baltick ſea, the thing he hath ſo long aimed at; whereas when the Swedes were poſſeſſed of Stetin, and the iſles of Uſedom and Wollin, no veſſels could come down the Oder into the Baltick ſea without their leave.

Stetin.

The chief towns of weſtern Pomerania are, 1. Stetin, formerly one of the Hans-Towns, and capital of Pomerania, pleaſantly ſituated on a riſing ground upon the river Oder, in fifty three degrees thirty minutes north latitude, forty miles ſouth of the Baltick ſea, and ſeventy north-eaſt of Berlin. It is a large populous city, and had heretofore a very great trade, nor is it inconſiderable at preſent. The caſtle, formerly the palace of the Dukes of Pomeren, is ſaid to be a noble piece of architecture, equal to any in Europe. The town is regularly fortified, and held out a long ſiege of near ſix months againſt the Elector of Brandenburg, in the year 1677, who made himſelf maſter of it at length, but was obliged to reſtore it to the Swedes by the ſubſequent treaty of peace at St. Germains. In the laſt war, about the year 1713, the King of Pruſſia perſuaded the citizens to admit his forces into the town, under pretence of ſecuring it againſt the Muſcovite, and promiſed to hold it by way of ſequeſtration till a peace ſhould be concluded; but never thought fit to part with it again: and at the following treaty between Sweden and Brandenburg, procured a ceſſion to be made him of this city by the Swede, with the territory thereto belonging; and the King of Pruſſia as Elector of Brandenburg now remains ſovereign of it, which is of prodigious advantage to his country, procuring him a free communication with the Baltick, and will probably render the town as conſiderable for trade as ever, the river being navigable for ſmall veſſels many miles above the city, as it is for larger below it.

Stralſund.

2. Stralſund, ſituate on the ſea-coaſt over againſt the iſland of Rugen, from which it is about a mile diſtant, lying in fifty-four degrees thirty minutes north latitude, near eighty miles north-weſt of Stetin. The ſtreets of this city are broad and uniform, and the houſes generally built of ſtone. The place is naturally ſtrong, being ſurrounded almoſt by the ſea and inacceſſible marſhes: it is alſo regularly fortified, and has a good harbour for ſhips of 150 or 200 tons, and has a great trade in corn, which they export to foreign countries. In the civil wars of Germany it put itſelf under the protection of **GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS** King of Sweden, and the Swedes have ever ſince remained maſters of it, except ſome ſhort intervals; as when the Elector of Brandenburg beſieged and took it in the year 1678, and was obliged to reſign it again by the peace of St. Germains anno 1679. This city was alſo taken by the Danes aſſiſted by their allies the Ruſſians, Saxons, &c. in November 1715, after a four months ſiege; but relinquiſhed again to the Swedes by a treaty of peace in the year 1720, who now continue in the poſſeſſion of it.

Gripſwald.

3. Gripſwald, ſituate about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Stralſund, on a bay of the ſea, which forms a harbour for ſmall ſhips: the town is fortified, and has the advantage of an univerſity in it.

Wolgaſt.

4. Wolgaſt, which ſtands on that branch of the Oder called

Bardt.

the Pſin, about five miles from the Baltick ſea, and fifteen to the eaſtward of Gripſwald, the beſt harbour in the country except Stralſund, formerly the capital of a duchy till it came under the dominion of the Swedes. 5. Bardt, twelve miles to the weſtward of Stralſund, ſtanding on a bay of the ſea, but too ſhallow for a harbour. The other towns in Swediſh Pomerania are Auclam, Demmin, Jatenitz, Ukermond, Paſſewalk, Kentzing, Gatzkow, Trebeſis and Damgarten, of which I meet with nothing remarkable.

Rugen.

Bergen.

The iſland of Rugen, taken by the Danes and their confederates at the ſame time with Stralſund, was alſo yielded to the Swedes by the treaty of peace 1720, and they now remain in poſſeſſion of it. This is one of the largeſt iſlands in the Baltick, and of great fame anciently for the valour of its inhabitants, and the impregnable fortreſſes upon it. The iſland was formerly of a much larger extent than it is at preſent, reaching to the ſouth-eaſt as far as Ruden, once a part of this iſland, though now far ſeparated from it. This ſeparation was occaſioned by a great tempeſt in the fourteenth century, when the ſea overflowing its banks drowned a great part of Rugen, and made ſo deep a channel, called by mariners the New Channel, that the greateſt ſhips which ſail on the Baltick may paſs that way. At this day the iſland of Rugen is about thirty miles in length and as much in breadth; but ſo indented by creeks and bays, which run far into the iſland, that ſcarce any part of the land is two miles diſtant from the ſea. The coaſt of Pomeren, and particularly the city of Stralſund, lie about a mile to the ſouth-weſt of the iſland. The chief town of the iſle of Rugen is Bergen, an open town, conſiſting of about four hundred houſes, and not conſiderable for any thing that I can learn: the country about it however affords ſuch plenty of corn, that it is called the granary of Stralſund. It is alſo well ſtocked with ſheep, black cattle, and a good breed of horſes, and their geeſe here are ſaid to be the largeſt in Europe, and their ſeas and lakes abound in fiſh; but the natives have ſuch a dependance on Stralſund, that they trade no where elſe. The inhabitants of this iſland were the laſt converted to Chriſtianity of any of the northern nations. In the ninth century indeed ſome monks ventured to preach amongſt them, and ſucceeded ſo well as to convert many of them, but they ſoon relapſed into idolatry, and inſtead of adoring the true God, paid divine honours to one of the miſſionaries ſent amongſt them, named St. Vite, whom they worſhiped by the name of Swant, and after his death repreſented him by a monſtrous image with four heads, building for him a magnificent temple. To this idol the Rugians repaired as to an oracle, for advice and aſſiſtance in all their undertakings: and here foreign merchants brought their offerings, and implored ſucceſs in their voyages. Three hundred horſes were conſtantly kept for the ſervice of the god Swant, one whereof was a white one, and only rid by the high prieſt, who uſed to ſhew him to the people ſome mornings ſweating and foaming, pretending Swant himſelf had been upon his back on an expedition againſt their enemies, which had put him into ſuch a heat: and the Rhugians have not forſaken theſe idolatrous practices, it is ſaid, much above five hundred years. They were anciently governed by their own Princes, whoſe dominions extended a great way into the continent. Hiſtory gives us a catalogue of eleven of them, of whom the firſt was WITZLAUS, computed to have reigned about the time of the Emperor OTHO I. anno 938. They were conquered by the Danes in the thirteenth century, and by them, converted to Chriſtianity, JARIMAR being the firſt Prince of Rugen who was baptized. WITZLAUS IV. the laſt Prince of Rugen, upon an inſurrection of the inhabitants of Stralſund, who till then were ſubject to him, endeavouring to reduce them to their duty, was killed in the attempt, which put an end to that race of Princes, and the Stralſunders declared themſelves a free people, which happened about the year of our Lord 1325. Afterwards the iſle of Rugen, with the territories belonging to it on the continent, fell into the hands of the Dukes of Pomeren, upon the failure of which line, it was agreed that it ſhould be annexed to the Marquiſate of Brandenburg; but in conſideration of the ſignal ſervices the King of Sweden had done the Proteſtants of the Empire, in ſupporting their intereſt againſt the Emperor and the Roman catholick States, it was agreed by the Elector of Brandenburg and the other powers concerned at the treaty of Weſtphalia, that the Weſtern Pomerania, with the iſle of Rugen, ſhould be poſſeſſed by the King of Sweden; and notwithſtanding the Elector of Brandenburg confirmed this agreement by a ſubſequent treaty at St. Germains, and had received an ample equivalent for his pretenſions, by having the duchy of Magdeburg, the principality of Halberſtat, &c. aſſigned to him, yet we find him as often as he has had an opportunity, reviving his pretenſions to the Weſtern Pomeren, and was not to be ſatisfied till he had poſſeſſed himſelf of Stetin, the iſles of Uſedom and Wollin, and that part of the country between the river Pene and the Oder. Which ſhews that ſome Princes never think themſelves longer bound by their compacts than they have an opportunity of breaking them. But I muſt not forget here, that the Dane alſo by virtue of his ancient conqueſt above mentioned, ſometimes puts in his claim to the iſle of Rugen, and actually made himſelf maſter of it in the year 1678, but was forced to reſtore it again to the Swede by a treaty in the year 1679. I proceed now to that part of Pomeren which lies on the eaſtern ſide of the Oder, and has moſt of it been in the poſſeſſion of the Elector of Brandenburg ever ſince the death of BUGISLAUS the laſt Duke of Pomeren.

Eaſtern-Pomeren.

Cammin.

Colberg.

The Eaſtern Pomerania is uſually divided into three diſtricts, viz. Pomerania Proper, Caſubin and Vendoſin: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Cammin, ſituate on the eaſt branch of the Oder, called Diveno, five miles from the Baltick ſea, and thirty-five north of Stetin; formerly a Biſhop's See, but at the reformation the revenues were ſeized, and the biſhoprick afterwards ſecularized, as our writers term it, by the treaty of Munſter, and conferred on the Elector of Brandenburg, which was the caſe of Magdeburg, and many other Sees. 2. Colberg, ſituate at the mouth of the river Perſant, near the Baltick ſea, about twenty miles north-eaſt of Cammin; remarkable for the ſalt-pits near it, which yield the King of Pruſſia a good revenue. The other towns in Eaſtern Pomerania are Treptow, Coſlin, Stargard, Dam, Buttow, Bublits, Griffenburg, Belgarden, Rugen, Stolpe and Regemorld, of which we meet with nothing particular.

Hiſtory of Brandenburg.

Having taken a ſurvey of thoſe Provinces of the Circle of Upper Saxony, which belong to the Electorate of Brandenburg, it may be proper now to inquire a little into the hiſtory of the country, and the family of the Elector the preſent King of Pruſſia.

The firſt inhabitants of Brandenburg which hiſtory takes notice of, were the Suevi, and after them the Sclaves. The Emperor HENRY I. having made a conqueſt of this country about the year 927, conferred the government of it on SIGEFRIDE Earl of Rengelheim, on condition he ſhould defend theſe marches, or utmoſt limits of the Empire, againſt the Sclaves; from whence SIGEFRIDE acquired the title of Margrave or Marquis of Brandenburg. After SIGEFRIDE eight others enjoyed this marquiſate ſucceſſively, being appointed by the reſpective Emperors only during pleaſure; of whom PRIMISLAUS, King of the Obotriti, the anceſtor of the Dukes of Mecklenburg, was the laſt: after whoſe death the Emperor FREDERICK BARBAROSSA conſtituted ALBERT ſurnamed URSUS, Prince of Anhalt, and Marquis of Soltwedel, the firſt hereditary Marquis of Brandenburg about the year 1162. In whoſe houſe it continued for ſixteen deſcents, when SIGISMUND the laſt of this race, King of Hungary and Bohemia, ſucceeding to the Empire, ſold the Marquiſate of Brandenburg to JODOCUS Duke of Moravia, who mortgaged it to WILLIAM Marquis of Miſnia, of whom the Emperor redeemed it, and conferred the Margravate upon FREDERICK Burgrave of Noremburg, at the council of Conſtance, anno 1417, in conſideration of the ſum of four hundred thouſand crowns: from whom the preſent Elector of Brandenburg, the King of Pruſſia, derives his pedigree. FREDERICK II. who ſucceeded his father, was made Duke of Eaſtern Pomeren alſo by the Emperor FREDERICK III. but his brother and ſucceſſor ALBERT relinquiſhed the whole territory to the Duke of Weſtern Pomeren, except the title and reverſion upon failure of iſſue of the Duke of Weſt Pomeren, as has been obſerved already. JOHN SIGISMUND the ninth Marquis of this houſe, married ANNE the daughter and heireſs of ALBERT FREDERICK Duke of Pruſſia, by whom alſo he acquired a title to part of the duchies of Cleve, Juliers, and Bergen, with the county of Ravenſburg. GEORGE WILLIAM ſon to JOHN SIGISMUND, claimed in his mother's right the three dukedoms aboveſaid, with the barony of Ravenſtein, in which he was oppoſed by the Duke of Newburg, who claimed by another ſiſter; and they came to an agreement to have the joint dominion of thoſe territories: but falling out afterwards, the Duke of Newburg, Count Palatine of the Rhine, called in the Spaniards to his aſſiſtance, as the Elector of Brandenburg did the Dutch; and a treaty enſuing, it was agreed, that Juliers and Berg, with the ſmall territory of Ravenſtein, ſhould fall to the ſhare of the Duke of Newburg; and that the Elector of Brandenburg and his heirs ſhould enjoy the duchy of Cleve and the counties of Marck and Ravenſburg, and ſo they remain at this day; but the King of Pruſſia however thinks fit to retain the titles to the whole. FREDERICK the laſt Elector of Brandenburg in the year 1700, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed and crowned King of Pruſſia; and has ſince been acknowledged in that quality by moſt, if not all the powers in Europe. Upon the death of WILLIAM III. King of England in 1702, he claimed a right of ſucceeding to his paternal eſtate, as being deſcended from Rene of Naſſau Prince of Orange, in which he was oppoſed by the Prince of Naſſau Frieſland, whom King WILLIAM left his heir.

Elector of Brandenburg aſſumes the title of King of Pruſſia.

Family of the King of Pruſſia.

FREDERICK the laſt Elector of Brandenburg, and firſt King of Pruſſia, died on the 25th of February, 1712-13, in the fifty-ſixth year of his age. He was born at Koningſburg the 1ſt of July 1657, and ſucceeded his father FREDERICK-WILLIAM in the year 1688; and in the year 1700, as has been ſaid, took upon him the title of King of Pruſſia. He firſt married the Princeſs ELIZABETH HENRIETTA, daughter of the Landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, in the year 1679, who died in 1683, leaving only one daughter, ſince dead without iſſue. His ſecond wife was SOPHIA CHARLOTTE, ſiſter to the late King GEORGE I. of England, by whom he had iſſue FREDERICK-WILLIAM, the preſent King of Pruſſia, born the 4th of Auguſt, 1688; and this Princeſs dying in the year 1705, his late Pruſſian Majeſty married a third wife in the year 1708, who died a little before him, leaving no iſſue.

The preſent King of Pruſſia, FREDERICK-WILLIAM II. only ſon of FREDERICK I. married SOPHIA-CHARLOTTE, daughter of the late King GEORGE I. on the 28th of November 1706, by whom he hath had ſeveral children, of which FREDERICA-AUGUSTA-SOPHIA, born in the year 1709, CHARLES-FREDERICK Prince of Pruſſia and Orange, born January 24, 1712, and LOUISA, born anno 1714, were lately alive.

Territories yielded to Pruſſia by the laſt peace.

By the treaty of peace concluded at Utrecht between France and Pruſſia the 11th of April 1713, it was ſtipulated, that the part of the Upper Guelderland, called the Spaniſh Guelderland, which the ſaid King of Pruſſia then poſſeſſed, namely, the town of Guelder, and territory thereto belonging, the bailliage of Kriekenbeck and the country of Keſſel, with all their rights, appurtenances and dependencies, ſhould be yielded up to and poſſeſſed by the King of Pruſſia, his heirs and ſucceſſors of either ſex, in full ſovereignty and propriety. France alſo acknowledged the King of Pruſſia ſovereign Lord of the Principality of Neufchatel and Valengin, promiſing not to diſturb the ſaid King of Pruſſia, his heirs or ſucceſſors in the enjoyment of them. On the other hand, the King of Pruſſia renounced for himſelf his heirs and ſucceſſors in favour of France, all right to the Principality of Orange, and to the lordſhips and places of the ſucceſſion of Chaalons and Chaſtelbelin, ſituate in France and in the county of Burgundy, transferring the whole to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors: and to render the ſaid renunciation the more valid, the King of Pruſſia engaged and promiſed on the faith and word of a King, to ſatisfy the Prince of Naſſau-Frieſland as to his pretenſions to the ſaid Principality, and to the other Eſtates abovementioned, by an equivalent; but the ſaid King of Pruſſia is ſtill allowed to retain the title of Prince of Orange.

The titles of the Elector of Brandenburg, the preſent King of Pruſſia.

In the preamble of the aboveſaid treaty of peace his Pruſſian Majeſty is ſtiled King of Pruſſia, Margrave of Brandenburg, Arch-chamberlain and Prince Elector of the holy Roman Empire; ſovereign Prince of Orange, Neufchatel and Valengin; Duke of Magdeburg, Cleves, Juliers, Bergſtein, Pomerania, Caſſubia, the Vandals, Mecklenburg in Sileſia and Croſſen; Burgrave of Nuremburg; Prince of Halberſtat, Minden, Cammin, Swerin, Ratzemburg and Meurs; Count of Hohenzollern, Ruppin, Marck, Ravenſburg, henſtein, Tecklemburg, Lingen and Buren; Marquis of Veer and Fluſhing; Lord of Ravenſtein, Roſtock, Stargard, Lawenburg, Butow, Breda, &c.

Arms of the King of Pruſſia.

The arms of his Pruſſian Majeſty are, Argent, an Eagle ſpread Sable crowned with a Royal Crown, for Pruſſia. Gules 1, 4, faced Or 2, 3, with a Cornet Azure, the whole ſurmounted with an Eſcutcheon Checkee Or and Azure, for Orange. Azure a Sceptre Or, for the dignity of Elector. Argent an Eagle Gules for Brandenburg. Or, a Lion Sable for Juliers. Argent, a Lion Gules crowned Or, for Berg. Coupe Argent and Gules, for Magdeburg. Gules, an Eſcutcheon Argent in form of a heart with rays of a carbuncle knotted and flowered Or, illuminated with Vert, for Cleves. Or, a Lion Sable with a border Compone, Gules and Argent, for Nuremburg. Argent, a Griphin Gules for Pomerania.

The principal branches of this family are thoſe of Bareith, Cullembach and Anſpach, both deſcending from the Elector JOHN GEORGE, who died in 1598. As to the whole pedigree of the Margraves of Brandenburg, this is reſerved for the appendix, and where will be found the pedigrees of the reſt of the German Princes.

Preſent ſtate of the King of Pruſſia's dominions.

The dominions of the King of Pruſſia are the largeſt of any of the German powers, except thoſe of the houſe of Auſtria; and though they are not the moſt populous and fruitful, yet their late Princes have given ſuch encouragement to foreign trade, ſet up ſo many profitable manufactures, and invited ſo many mechanicks and artiſts from all parts to ſettle in the country; that it ſeems now to be the moſt flouriſhing province in Germany. They already furniſh the large Empire of Ruſſia with woollen cloth, (which was formerly done by the Engliſh merchants) and with many other valuable commodities: and we may expect to ſee them e'er long one of the moſt formidable naval powers of the Baltick, ſince they have ſo much enlarged their ſea-coaſts, and ſecured the navigation of the river Oder entirely to themſelves.

Forces.

That vaſt body of troops, amounting to near eighty thouſand regular forces, which the Kings of Pruſſia have of late years maintained in their dominions, has amazed all people who are not in the ſecret; for it is obvious to every one, that how much ſoever the country may be improved, it is far from being able to maintain ſo great a force. Some have ſuggeſted, that ſince Sweden hath ſo much declined, France makes the ſame uſe of Pruſſia ſhe did formerly of the Swede, and pays part of the forces of this crown, in order to balance the power of the Emperor, if ever ſhe ſhould happen to have a quarrel with him; and that other powers having the ſame view, contribute alſo to the charge of the Pruſſian ſtanding army. On the other hand, it is ſaid, both the German and the Ruſſian Emperors obſerving of what conſequence it might be to have Pruſſia for their ally in caſe of a rupture, have offered very advantageous conditions to the preſent King, to bring him over to their intereſts. So that his Pruſſian Majeſty's affairs ſeem to be in a very deſirable ſituation, he is courted and preſented on all hands; and hath it in his power in ſome meaſure to turn the balance, if ever the powers of Europe ſhould be again engaged in a war: and 'tis no improbable ſurmiſe, that he will at length take that ſide which offers the beſt terms. Some people are under diſmal apprehenſions for the liberties of the King of Pruſſia's ſubjects, while he keeps ſuch great armies on foot; but theſe have been long ſince loſt. This Prince is already abſolute in his dominions, and can lay what charges he pleaſes upon his people: but as he takes care to pay his troops at the expence of other powers, and ſeems to have ſet his heart on advancing trade and manufactures, and putting his territories into a flouriſhing condition; the people may enjoy as tolerable a ſhare of happineſs under his government, as they might under the dominion of any Monarch who has no other ends in view: but the miſchief of it is, Princes are generally taught that they have ſomething divine in their conſtitution; and that their ſubjects are made only to promote their glory or pleaſure, to eſteem the enlarging their dominions and making foreign conqueſts as the nobleſt purſuits; though theſe can only be done at the expence of the blood and treaſure of their people; and in ſhort, that it is more eligible to be Sovereign of a company of fawning indigent ſlaves, than to be King of a free wealthy people, who while he conſults his own and their welfare, may command all that they are maſters of, and will ſeldom meet with oppoſition but when he is hurried into ſchemes deſtructive to his country. It is not ſo much the form of government we live under, as the diſpoſition of our governors which renders us happy or miſerable: the beſt conſtituted government in the world may be perverted to the vileſt purpoſes by artful men.

Elector of Brandenburg.

FREDERICK WILLIAM II. the late Elector of Brandenburg and King of Pruſſia, died on the day of 1740, leaving iſſue by the Princeſs SOSPHIA DOROTHY, daughter of GEORGE I. King of Great Britain.

1. FREDERICA SOPHIA WILHELMINA, born in 1709; married in 1731 to FREDERICK, hereditary Prince of Brandenburg Bareith, and now, on the death of his father in 1735, Duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle. They have two children, viz. 1. CHARLES WILLIAM FERDINAND, born in September 1735. 2. GEORGE FRANCIS, born in September 1736.

2. FREDERICK, Prince Royal, at preſent King of Pruſſia, born the 12th of January 1712, married at Saltzdahl in June 1733, ELIZABETH CHRISTIANA, ſiſter to the Duke of Brunſwick-Wolfenbuttle: ſhe was born in 1715.

3. FREDERICK LOUISA, born in 1714; married in 1719 to CHARLES FREDERICK, Margrave of Brandenburg-Anſpach. They have one ſon, born in 1736.

4. PHILIPPINA CHARLOTTA, born 1716, and married in 1734, to Prince CHARLES of Brunſwick-Beveren.

5. SOPHIA DOROTHEA MARIA, born in 1719; married in 1734, to the Margrave of Brandenburg-Schwedt. They have one daughter, born in 1736.

6. SOPHIA ULRICA, born in 1720.

7. AUGUSTUS WILLIAM, born in 1722.

8. ANNA AMELIA, born in 1723.

9. FREDERICK HENRY LEWIS, born in 1726.

10. AUGUSTUS FERDINANDUS, born in 1730.

The Electors of Brandenburg are great chamberlains of the Empire. The Prince of Hohenzolern is the vicar. The Elector preſides in the circle of Lower Saxony, jointly with the Duke of Bremen (now the Elector of Hanover;) and in the circle of Weſtphalia, he and the Elector Palatine are the two directors, as Dukes of Cleves and Juliers. At the diet he has ſeven votes; the firſt as Elector, and the reſt as Prince of Magdeburg, Cleves, Lower Pomerania, Halberſtat, Minden, and Camin; to which an eighth is added, for the county of Maurs, lately erected into a principality.

Theſe countries are become rich and powerful ſince Frederick William the Great gave ſo kind a reception to the French proteſtants, who were obliged to leave their country in 1685, and the following years. Above 100,000 of that induſtrious and active people having been ſettled in the moſt conſiderable places of his large dominions, but particularly at Berlin, have made trade and manufactures to flouriſh there, where formerly there were none. By theſe wiſe methods, that Prince, and his ſucceſſor, Frederick I. who trod in his ſteps, ſaw the revenues almoſt doubled to what they had been but a few years before; for in 1680 they were reckoned to amount to only betwixt 6 and 700,000 l. but in 1690, they were thought to exceed 1,000,000 l. per annum. His preſent Majeſty, by almoſt every year inviting and ſettling new colonies of that people, has advanced his revenue to one million and a half of our money. There are ſome, who conſidering the many and great taxes that have been laid on all commodities, wearing apparel and victuals not excepted, have made the annual revenue of this Prince to amount to near two millions of pounds ſterling.

The Pruſſian forces, now eſteemed the beſt in Europe, and much the moſt numerous in proportion to the territories of the Prince they ſerve, are thus deſcribed by Baron Polnitz, viz. Theſe troops are new clothed every year; their pay is good and regular; the ſoldier is compelled to do his duty, but when he does it, enjoys more liberty than in the ſervice of any other nation: ſo that were I to carry a muſket, I fancy it would be in the ſervice of Pruſſia, where ſuch a ſtrict diſcipline is obſerved, that the ſoldier is no ſwearer, and is not allowed to game; and where, in a word, he does not abandon himſelf to licentiouſneſs. On Sundays and ſaints days, they are required to go twice a-day to hear a ſermon. The catholicks have the liberty of going to maſs. In ſhort, good manners are introduced and obſerved in thoſe troops to ſuch a nicety, that you would wonder at it.

All the infantry is clothed in blue. It depends on the colonel of every regiment to order what waiſtcoats and trimmings he pleaſes for the clothes. The horſe and dragoons wear white; but the houſhold troops blue, with campaign coats of gold lace. The Huſſars clothing is red; but the garbs of the officers, both of foot and horſe, are plain, and only differ from the apparel of the ſoldiers in the fineneſs of the cloth; though there are ſome regiments, whoſe waiſtcoats are bedaubed all over with gold or ſilver lace,

The colours, which are uniform in all the regiments, are white, with the King's device, repreſenting an eagle flying towards the ſun, with this motto, *Nec ſoli cedit*. There is ſuch a uniformity obſerved in all things throughout the army, even in their guns, ſwords, bayonets, &c. that in every regiment they wear the very ſame, even to their ſhoe-buckles.

The ſame regularity is obſerved in the horſe and dragoons, which ride both upon black horſes; and, indeed, they are not permitted to have any others; the officers themſelves being not exempt from this rule, when they are at the head of their ſquadrons or companies. The houſings and equipage of the latter are of the ſame pattern, and extremely rich. All the horſe wear buff-coats, and underneath cuiraſſes. They perform their exerciſe on foot like the infantry, and with the ſame exactneſs. The kettle-drums and trumpets of all the horſe are ſilver.

There is not a captain in all the Pruſſian army but has at leaſt ten ſupernumerary men; ſo that theſe included, the King's forces amount to near 100,000, all picked men. You could not but admire, if you were to ſee how they behave: inſomuch, that whenever they take the field, it is pity but fortune ſhould favour them.

The tall grenadiers exceed the common report, being the completeſt, the fineſt, and beſt diſciplined body that can be imagined. The men are of all nations, there being ſcarce a Prince in Europe, but takes a pleaſure in ſending recruits to it. Some of theſe grenadiers have had fifteen hundred crowns liſt money; and ſeveral receive two florins per diem. Some of them are very rich; others there are who trade, and have good houſes at Potſdam. The talleſt and beſt man among them all was one called Jonas, (lately dead) who worked heretofore in the mines of Norway. The famous Huguetan, whom Frederick IV. King of Denmark created Count of Guldenſtein, took him from the mines, and preſented him to the King; he then ſtooped in the ſhoulders, and hobbled in walking; but by tricking him up, they gave him that good air which he wanted.

It is certain there are no troops in the world where the peaſant ſooner ſhakes off the clowniſh air, and more eaſily aſſumes the military one. This gigantic regiment has required great pains, and conſiderable ſums, to eſtabliſh it; and I am ſure it has coſt the King more than ſix other regiments.

The Princes of the royal family are not exempt from paſſing through the degrees of military ſervice; and it is not here as in other places, where they have regiments and military governments as ſoon as they are born. The King will have them to know how to obey, before they come to command; and it is an encouragement to the officers, to find themſelves ſo far honoured as to be on a par in the ſervice with thoſe who are born to be their Sovereigns.

There are academies of cadets in Berlin, Magdeburg, and other towns, where they are taught the rudiments of war; ſo that it is a nurſery from whence the King makes a draught of good officers. His Majeſty has moreover ordered his generals of foot, to take each a young gentleman, whoſe fortune does not happen to be equal to his birth, to keep them as pages, and to make them learn their exerciſes, and every thing that an officer ought to know.

The King's prime miniſter is the King himſelf, who is informed of every thing, and deſires to know every thing. He gives great application to buſineſs, but does it with extraordinary eaſe; and nothing eſcapes his penetration, nor his memory, which is a very happy one. No body knows better than he where his government is ſtrong, and where it is weak; and no Sovereign in the world is of more eaſy acceſs, his ſubjects being actually permitted to write to him without any other formality than ſuperſcribing the letter, To the King. By writing underneath, To be delivered into his Majeſty's own hands, one may be ſure that the King receives and reads it, and that the next poſt he will anſwer it, either with his own hand, or by his ſecretary: theſe anſwers are ſhort but peremptory, and they prevent a tedious painful attendance. The King, who is an enemy to vain pomp and pageantry, always goes abroad without any guards, with only a ſmall retinue, and ſometimes too walks on foot: he makes his greatneſs to conſiſt in ſolid power; in the having his troops well diſciplined, his places kept up in good order, his arſenals well provided, and his treaſury full enough to enable him to oppoſe his enemy in caſe he be attacked. He never aims ſo much as to diſturb his neighbours, much leſs to rob them. I heard him ſay one day, that he had no intention of attacking any body, nor of beginning a war; but if he was attacked, he would defend himſelf the beſt he could; a conduct which he has religiouſly obſerved ever ſince he has been placed upon the throne, even towards CHARLES XII. King of Sweden, notwithſtanding what is ſaid of him by a certain author, who has wrote that Prince's life. But I will not deviate from my ſubject.

There is no town in all the King of Pruſſia's dominions, except Neufchatel, where he has not been; no province which he does not know full well; not a noble family but he can tell their revenues, nor a court of juſtice but he is well acquainted with their chief members. His behaviour is plain; he knows no gallantry, and does not eaſily pardon it in his officers. He is ſo true to his conſort the Queen, that he wiſhes all men would follow his example, and that every huſband would live only with the woman whom GOD has allotted him. His diverſion is hunting, and for this reaſon he reſides commonly at Potſdam or Wuſterhauſen, which are pleaſure-houſes four miles from Berlin. Yet he generally goes on Saturdays into his capital, where he holds a council on Sunday, and returns on Monday. In the winter he makes a longer ſtay at Berlin; but let him be either here or there, he is on the parade every day at ten o'clock, when his ſoldiers mount the guard; after which he gives audience to his miniſters, and holds a council, or goes abroad for the air. At noon the King appears in a great ſaloon, where are all the generals and officers, the foreign miniſters, and all the court in general. There he converſes a few moments, and then goes into another room, where he dines with the Queen, the Princes and Princeſſes of his family, and any other perſons whom he has cauſed to be invited. His table is commonly ſpread for eighteen gueſts. After he has ſat about an hour and an half at table, he retires to his cloſet till ſix at night, when he appears again in the room where he held his levee. There his Majeſty gives orders to the marſhal WARTENSLEBEN, governor of Berlin, and to the marſhal NATZMER, commandant of the gendarmery. After this he talks a while with thoſe that are preſent, and then paſſes into a room at ſome diſtance from his apartment, to which the Queen repairs ſometimes with one or two ladies in company. There are ten or a dozen officers whom the King honours with his confidence, who play here at picquet, ombre, and back-gammon. Here they alſo ſmoke, and to this place the King ſends for ſuch as he has a mind to talk with about ſpecial affairs. I have been there twice upon ſuch an account. Here there is no manner of reſtraint, but every body ſits down, the King diſpenſing with all the reſpect that is due to him; and at eleven o'clock he diſmiſſes the company, and retires.

The King hunts when he is at Potſdam and Wuſterhauſen; but in other reſpects, he leads the ſame life there as he does at Berlin. At Potſdam he hunts the ſtag, having for that end cauſed a great foreſt to be paled in, where he has made noble roads.

Berlin, if we regard the largeneſs of the ſtreets, the regular architecture of the houſes, and the many works of magnificence and ornament, which, during the preſent, and the two preceding reigns, have been erected there, is the fineſt city of the empire. His preſent Majeſty has been ſo intent, not only on fortifying, but likewiſe beautifying this capital, that he has made his courtiers, and other great men, build ſtately houſes for themſelves. The city is pleaſantly ſeated on the banks of the Spree; which, with ſeveral canals to the Oder and Elbe, do, moreover, render it one of the beſt trading towns in Germany. The King's palace, which FREDERICK I. began in 1699, is a ſumptuous and vaſt ſtructure, and very richly furniſhed: it is not, however, quite finiſhed.

The King's ſeats in the country are Potſdam, Oranienbourg, Fredericksfield, Charlottenbourg, and Wuſterhauſen.

The King and his whole court are Calviniſts; but the religion of the country is Lutheran. The Elector, GEORGE-WILLIAM, the preſent King's great grandfather, having married a Calviniſt Lady of the Palatine family, daughter to FREDERICK V. King of Bohemia, turned Calviniſt too. Since that time, thoſe of that perſuaſion have increaſed in the country, to which they are encouraged by the court. There is free exerciſe of religion in the duchies of Cleves, Halberſtat, and Minden, for Roman catholicks, Lutherans, and Calviniſts.

There may be about three millions of ſouls in this Prince's German dominions, without reckoning thoſe of Brandenburg-Pruſſia.

LOWER SAXONY.

CHAP. XV.

Treats of the Circle of Lower Saxony; and herein of the Duchies of Mecklenburg, Lawenburg, Holſtein, Hanover, Brunkſwick-Lunenburg, Bremen and Verden.

CHAP. XV. Lower Saxony.

Provinces of Lower Saxony.

WITHIN the Circle of Lower Saxony are comprehended the duchies of Mecklenburg, Lawenburg, Holſtein, Brunſwick-Lunenburg, Bremen, the principality of Verden and the biſhoprick of Hildeſheim. As to the duchy of Magdeburg and the principality of Halberſtat, which are uſually reckoned part of the Lower-Saxony, I choſe to deſcribe them in treating of Upper Saxony, becauſe they lie contiguous to, and are incorporated with the other dominions of the Elector of Brandenburg, which lie within that circle, and therefore ſhall not conſider them here.

Bounds and extent of Lower Saxony.

The circle of Lower Saxony then, is bounded by the German Ocean, Denmark and the Baltick ſea towards the north; by Pomerania and the

Rivers. Air and ſoil.

the Marquiſate of Brandenburg towards the eaſt; by the territories of the Landgrave of Heſſe on the ſouth, and by the circle of Weſtphalia towards the weſt: extending in length from eaſt to weſt two hundred miles, and about as far in breadth from north to ſouth. The chief rivers which run through this country are the Elbe, the Weſer, the Alter, the Hamma, the Hemon, the Leme, the Ocker and the Eldt. The winters here are long, and air exceeding cold; but the country however produces good corn in many places, and does not want rich paſtures, as will appear in the deſcription of the ſeveral countries it contains.

Mecklenburg. Situation. Name. Seas, lakes, rivers and air. Corn, fruits, and other produce.

The duchy of Mecklenburg is bounded by the Baltick ſea on the north; by Pomerania on the eaſt; by Brandenburg on the ſouth; and by the duchies of Lunenburg and Sax-Lawenburg towards the weſt. It is ſaid to derive it's name from the High-dutch word Mecklen, which ſignifies a broker or dealer in merchandize, from the great reſort of merchants to this country anciently, and particularly to a city of the ſame name ſituate on the coaſt; which was the occaſion of adding *burg* to the word *Mecklen*, *burg* ſignifying a town, and *Mecklenburg* a town of merchants or brokers; and there is now a ſmall village not far from Wiſmar, according to ſome German writers, which goes by the ſame name, and is ſuppoſed to be the remains of the once famous city of Mecklenburg. This country has the advantage of the Baltick ſea for many miles, beſides a great number of rivers and large lakes, which may be one reaſon that the air is unhealthful in ſummer, and it's northern ſituation renders it intolerably cold in the winter. It produces however great plenty of corn and fruits, particularly apples; and their lakes and rivers furniſh them with fiſh and water-fowl in abundance.

Diviſion of the provinces and chief towns.

Mecklenburg is uſually divided by geographers into ſix parts, viz. 1. The dukedom of Mecklenburg, properly ſo called. 2. The dukedom of Vandalia. 3. The earldom of Swerin. 4. The barony of Roſtock. 5. The barony of Stargard. And, 6. The biſhoprick of Batzow. In the dukedom of Mecklenburg Proper are the cities and towns of Wiſmar, Tempſin, Gades, Rhena, and Bucow. In the dukedom of Vandalia; Guſtrow, Sterneburg, Malchin, Stavenhagen, Ivenack, New Calven, Warin, Peutzlin, Rebell, Wredenhagen, Malchau, Tetrou, Goltburg, Parchum, Plage, Lupſian, Grabou, Domitz, Newſtat, Eldenau, and Gorloſen. In the barony of Roſtock; the cities and towns of Roſtock, Ribnitz, Gnoien. Teſſen, Laga, Schwan, Salines, and Morlou. In the barony of Stargard; Brandenburg, Stargard, Furſtenburg, Strelitz, Mirow, Fredland, and Weſenburg. And in the biſhoprick of Butzow, the city of Butzow. the chief whereof I ſhall endeavour to deſcribe.

Roſtock.

1. Roſtock, an Imperial city, and one of the Hans-Towns, under the protection of the Duke of Mecklenburg, ſituate in fifty-four degrees twenty minutes north latitude, on a bay of the ſea at the mouth of the river Warna; is a tolerable harbour, forty miles to the eaſtward of Wiſmar, ſuppoſed to take it's name from Rotzſtock, or a red pillar, anciently worſhiped here by the pagan inhabitants. It is divided into three parts, viz. the old, the new, and the middle city, which united make a large town, containing many thouſands of lofty well-built houſes. Travellers obſerve, that here are ſeven large ſtreets leading to a ſpacious market place, ſeven handſome gates towards the land, ſeven bridges over the Warna, which runs through ſeveral parts of the towns, ſeven great doors to the cathedral church, ſeven towers on the town-hall, and two or three other ſevens ſtill leſs worth our obſervation; and perhaps the reader will ſcarce forgive me for taking up his time with theſe. The univerſity here is ſaid to contain as many ſtudents as moſt in Germany; and was founded by JOHN and ALBERT, two contemporary Dukes of Mecklenburg and couſins, in the year 1419. Half the charges whereof being borne by the corporation and magiſtracy of the city, half the profeſſors are choſen by the Duke of Mecklenburg, and the other half by the town; and the Rector is choſen alternately every half year, as in moſt other German univerſities. Amongſt other learned men that have been educated here, are ALBERT CRANTZIUS, JOHN POSSELIUS, and NATHAN CHYTRÆUS, three celebrated hiſtorians.

Warnemund. Wiſmar. Swerin. Guſtrow.

The government of the city is in the hands of twenty-four Aldermen, elected out of the nobility, ſcholars, and principal merchants; of whom four are Burgomaſters, two Chamberlains, two Stewards for the river, and two Judges of civil and criminal matters. Theſe twenty-four may be ſtiled the upper houſe, and have in a manner the whole executive power lodged in them, with the power of coining money, and electing officers. There is alſo a common-council of an hundred inferior citizens, who are ſummoned to give their advice upon extraordinary emergencies relating to the whole community. 2. Warnemund, a ſmall town ſituate on the ſea, ſeven miles below Roſtock, being the port-town to that city; for large veſſels cannot come up ſo high as Roſtock. 3. Wiſmar, which ſtands between thirty and forty miles to the weſtward of Roſtock, and as many to the eaſtward of Lubeck, by ſome eſteemed the capital of Mecklenburg, ſaid to obtain it's name from the conveniency of it's ſituation, *Wiſmeer* ſignifying a ſecure harbour, as the town of Wiſmar is. It is ſaid to have been built out of the ruins of the ancient town of Mecklenburg, about the year 1250. In the year 1266 it was enlarged and beautified, and from that time became extremely populous, and was reckoned one of the chief of the Hans-Towns, for this was the harbour where all the men of war belonging to that body were laid up. The Swedes having poſſeſſed themſelves of this city, during the civil wars of Germany, inſiſted on it's being confirmed to them by the treaty of Munſter, as it was; and the Swede has ſince ſtiled himſelf Lord of Wiſmar. It has however ſeveral times been taken by the Danes, and reſtored to the Swedes again by ſubſequent treaties; particularly in the laſt war it was taken by the Danes and their allies, the Hanoverians, Bandenburgers and Saxons, but reſtored to the Swedes by a treaty made in the year 1720; wherein it was ſtipulated however, that the walls and fortifications ſhould be demoliſhed, in which ſtate it remains at preſent. 4. Swerin, ſituate upon the great lake called the Swerin-ſea, to which it communicates it's name, about fifteen miles ſouth of Wiſmar, and forty ſouth-weſt of Roſtock, formerly a Biſhop's See; but by an article in the treaty of Munſter, converted into a temporal principality, and conferred on ADOLPH FREDERICK, Duke of Mecklenburg. 5. Guſtrow, a well-fortified town, formerly the ſeat of the Duke of Mecklenburg-Guſtrow, whoſe line became extinct in the year 1688.

The Vandals inhabited Mecklenburg.

The preſent Duke.

This country was anciently inhabited by the Vandals, and govern'd by their own Princes. ALBERT and JOHN, joint Dukes of Mecklenburg, were by the Emperor CHARLES IV. firſt admitted Princes of the Empire in the year 1349, upon condition of being ſubject to its laws. Lutheraniſm was eſtabliſhed in this country about the year 1550, by Duke JOHN ALBERT, who demoliſhed the abbeys and religious places, and converted their revenues to other uſes. In the civil wars of Germany this country was miſerably haraſſed by the Imperial army, probably upon account of their deſerting the Roman communion, and embracing Lutheraniſm. CHARLES LEOPOLD, the preſent Duke of Mecklenburg, was born the 6th of November, 1679; and married to SOPHIA EDWIGE of Naſſau-Dietz, anno 1698. This Princeſs being wantonly diſpoſed, the Duke began a proceſs againſt her in the Imperial court, in order to obtain a divorce; where meeting with more than ordinarily delays, he ventured to marry the Ducheſs Dowager of Courland, niece to the late Czar, in the year 1716, before there was any deciſion of the cauſe; and it ſeems to be no extraordinary thing with the German Princes to divorce themſelves, and take another woman to their bed in the life-time of the former.

His ſecond marriage in the life of his firſt wife.

Decree againſt the Duke of Mecklenburg for oppreſſing his ſubjects.

This was but the beginning of troubles to the unhappy Duke of Mecklenburg, whoſe country was the following year almoſt ruined by the Muſcovite forces, which were brought into the Empire to aſſiſt the Danes and Saxons againſt the Swedes; and at the ſame time the Duke laying heavy taxes upon his nobility, they applied to the Emperor for redreſs; ſetting forth that the Ruſſian army having committed great ravages upon their eſtates, when they thought fit at laſt to leave their country, the Duke retained in his ſervice a body of three thouſand of them; which, together with his own troops, he was continually augmenting by new levies, he quartered on the nobility, and exacted extravagant contributions from them, under pretence of providing for the ſecurity of the country againſt foreign invaſions; pretending that he was ſole judge what was neceſſary for the defence of his ſubjects, who were to bear the expence. But the nobility denied this prerogative, alledging that a convention had been made with his predeceſſor in the year 1701, to pay annually the ſum of an hundred and twenty thouſand crowns, in lieu of all taxes and duties, ordinary or extraordinary; and thereupon the Duke renounced all further pretenſions of laying any taxes upon them, except the uſual land-taxes. II. They alledge, that the monthly contribution of ſixty thouſand crowns demanded of them, exceeded the produce of their eſtates, and was more than neceſſary to pay the troops. That at the ſame time all the peaſants, who were not ſubjects of the nobility, were exempted from theſe contributions; which made it evident, that the Duke deſigned the ruin of the nobility, whoſe eſtates were ſeized and ſequeſtered for not paying the ſums demanded, and ſome of them compelled to fly their country, &c.

After this cauſe had depended before the Imperial tribunal for ſome years, it was decreed about the year 1722, That the Duke ſhould pay to his nobility one million of crowns, for repairing the damages they had ſuſtained; and on his not complying with this edict, a body of troops were ordered to quarter upon the Duke's demeſn lands, and ſeize his revenues; which was executed accordingly, and the Duke thought fit to retire out of the country for ſome time; but is returning to his dominions again now the decree is ſatisfied, and the nobility begin to be reconciled to him.

From this inſtance it appears, that the Princes of the empire are ſubject to the general laws of the empire, and that their nobility and gentry, between whom there is little difference, can appeal for redreſs to the Imperial courts, when they are oppreſſed by their reſpective Sovereigns. But it is not ſo with the peaſants or huſbandmen, and other inferior people; theſe are ſubjects and vaſſals to their ſeveral Lords, and do not hold their farms by leaſe, as our farmers do, but at will; and are obliged to do ſuch ſervices, and pay ſuch rents in kind or money, as their Lords require of them; and if they are ordered to arm and march into the field againſt an enemy, they dare not refuſe it. Thus it was lately among the Clans in Scotland, where a Lord with his Clan would fall upon a neighbour in a hoſtile manner, and endeavour to do himſelf juſtice, if he apprehended himſelf injured, as if there were no civil courts of judicature in the kingdom; and as for controverſies among the tenants themſelves, theſe were determined in the courts of their reſpective Lords.

CHARLES LEOPOLD, Duke of Mecklenburg, born in 1679. and ſucceeded his brother FREDERICK WILLIAM in 1713. He has been twice married; firſt to SOPHIA HEDGWICK, aunt on the father's ſide to the Prince of Orange; but they were parted in 1710. His ſecond wife was CATHARINE, daughter to the unfortunate IVAN ALEXIEWITZ, Czar of Ruſſia, and ſiſter to the reigning Empreſs of Ruſſia, who died in 1733, leaving one only daughter, ELIZABETH CATHARINE, born in 1718, and educated at the court of Peterſburg, having made publick profeſſion of the Greek faith in 1733, in view of ſucceeding her aunt in the throne of Ruſſia, in caſe ſhe died without iſſue.

Duke CHARLES having formed a reſolution of augmenting his forces, and of incorporating two regiments of Muſcovites, of 1500 men each, which the Czar had made him a preſent of, among the troops of the country, began to raiſe unuſual contributions on his ſubjects; and on their refuſal quartered ſoldiers on his nobility, and confiſcated the eſtates of thoſe of them who had made the greateſt oppoſition. He proceeded to augment his troops to the number of eleven thouſand men; but the aulick council being applied to for redreſs of thoſe grievances, by the eſtates and nobility, who had the laws of the country on their ſide, the Emperor, in 1718, cauſed a body of troops of the circle to march into the duchy; which being encountered by the Duke's forces, great diſorders enſued, till at laſt, his Highneſs being defeated, retreated to Dantzick; and in 1728, the Emperor ſent commiſſioners to Mecklenburg, who declared the Duke fallen from the government of the country, and put the adminiſtration into the hands of his brother. The degraded Prince ſhewed no regard to this Imperial deciſion, but appealed to the diet of Ratiſbon, for redreſs. The Emperor, on his part, laid before the ſame ſovereign tribunal, by the Prince of Furſtenburg, his firſt commiſſary, a bill of grievances againſt the Duke, importing, that his Highneſs had made many changes and alterations tending to the deſtruction of the rights of the country, and the privileges of his vaſſals: that he had erected a ſanguinary tribunal, or inquiſition, and for ſeveral years ſtopt the courſe of juſtice, to the great prejudice and ruin of many of his ſubjects: that he had ſpoken diſreſpectfully of the Imperial commiſſion and reſcript of the 11th of May 1728, and done many unjuſtifiable things to hinder the execution of them: that for theſe and other reaſons, his Imperial Majeſty had removed him from the government of the country, and placed his brother Christian in his room, till he the Duke ſhould ſubmit himſelf to his Imperial Majeſty, and return to a better mind.

In 1730, the Duke leaving Dantzick, returned to Swerin, his capital, and tried all manner of ways to diſturb his brother's adminiſtration, and elude the Imperial decree, which was renewed in 1732, with this additional clauſe: "That the regent, for the further ſecurity of his perſon and government, might take into his ſervice a certain number of troops of ſome neutral Prince, and then call the annual diet of the ſtates, in order to reſtore the publick tranquillity." This Imperial mandate did moreover ordain, "That the degraded Prince ſhould have a yearly ſalary of about ten thouſand pounds, beſides the revenues of Domitz and Swerin; and his brother, the regent, ſix thouſand pounds." On the receipt of this writ, 400 horſe of Hanover, and 200 foot of Wolfenbuttle, were taken into pay, and things continued pretty calm in the country; the unhappy Prince ſeemingly acquieſcing in this new regulation. He hoped his ſiſter-in-law, the Czarina, might be wrought upon to interpoſe in his favour. At laſt, finding he had nothing to expect from her, he went to Weimar; where committing ſome diſorders in November 1735, the Magiſtrates began a proſecution againſt him, with intention to puniſh him for breaking the peace of their little territory. But he will probably be reſtored by the interpoſition of the Czarina, one time or other.

Lawenburg duchy.

The duchy of Sax-Lawenburg is ſituate on both ſides of the Elbe; being bounded by Holſtein on the weſt and north; by Mecklenburg on the eaſt; and the duchy of Lunenburg towards the ſouth: the chief town whereof is Lawenburg, ſituate at the conflux of the Elbe and the Stegnitz, in the latitude of fifty-three degrees forty minutes, about thirty miles ſouth of Lubeck, and near forty ſouth-eaſt of Hamburg. It is a ſmall, but populous town, and has a pretty good trade. The other towns of any note in this duchy are Mollen, Wittenburg, and Ratzeburg; but of theſe I meet with nothing particular. The laſt Duke of Sax-Lawenburg was Julius-Francis, who dying without male iſſue, in the year 1689, the Elector of Saxony, the Prince of Anhalt, and the Duke of Lunenburg-Zell all laid claim to it; but the Duke of Lunenburg taking poſſeſſion of it, this duchy on his death devolved on the Elector of Hanover, with his other territories; the other pretenders relinquiſhing their claim in conſideration of a ſum of money, or ſome other equivalent given them by the Elector of Hanover.

Lawenburg city.

Holſtein duchy.

As to the province of Holſtein, it hath already been deſcribed in treating of the King of Denmark's dominions, except the cities of Hamburg and Lubeck, which ſome reckon to be out of the bounds of Holſtein; perhaps becauſe they have freed themſelves from the Daniſh yoke, tho' that Prince frequently revives his pretenſions to thoſe places, and exacts large ſums from them; and were it not that they are under the Emperor's protection, and deemed free Imperial cities, the Dane would no doubt long ſince have reduced them to his obedience again.

Hamburgh.

Hamburgh, one of the moſt conſiderable of the Hans-Towns, is built partly on iſlands, and partly on the continent, on the north ſide of the river Elbe, in the latitude of fifty-three degrees fifty minutes, ten degrees to the eaſtward of London, forty miles ſouth-weſt of Lubeck, and ſixty north-eaſt of Bremen; being about ſeventy-five miles diſtant from the ſea. Its name is ſuppoſed to be derived from the foreſt of Ham, which ſtood near it, and gave title to the ancient Lords of Ham; who building a caſtle where the city now ſtands, called it *Hamburgh*, or *Ham Caſtle*. It is generally held to be within the limits of Stormaria, a province of the duchy of Holſtein: and however this is diſputed by ſome, it is agreed, that the territories belonging to this city, and adjoining to it, lie in Stormaria. They contain but a ſmall circuit, wherein are ſeveral large villages and noblemen's palaces. There are alſo ſeveral little iſlands in the Elbe under the government of the Hamburghers.

The city of Hamburgh, ſays a late writer, conſiſts of a great many little iſlands in the rivers Elbe and Altſter, which, like Venice, have a communication with each other by bridges. The tide flows through the canals which ſeparate the iſlands; and it lies ſo low, that in ſpring-tides houſes have been carried away and damaged by inundations, as it happened in the year 1651. As the place appears to be naturally ſtrong by this account, the inhabitants have added to it good walls, and regular fortifications after the modern way, eſpecially towards the land. It is divided by a wall into two parts, called the Old and New Town. The ſtreets are wide, but not ſtraight; and the buildings generally of brick, very high, which make a grand appearance. The town is exceeding populous, occaſioned by a flouriſhing foreign trade. Ships from all parts of Europe reſort hither, and from hence their merchandize is diſtributed through the Empire. But the moſt conſiderable manufacture of the Hamburghers, if we may call it ſuch, is their beer, in brewing of which great numbers of people are employed, and it is tranſported into all the neighbouring countries, being valued equally with wine. The peaſants of Holſtein, it is ſaid, have ſuch an opinion of its virtues, that they apprehend it impoſſible to live without it. They have alſo plenty of all proviſions at Hamburgh, which are either brought down their rivers from the inland parts of Germany, or imported from abroad; but their markets are with nothing better ſtored than with ſea and river-fiſh and garden-ſtuff. Their gardens, which lie contiguous to the town-walls, do not only afford plenty of fruit, herbs, and roots, but being regularly planted, and extending a great way into the country, yield an inexpreſſible delight to the citizens, who have their country-ſeats in the middle of them. On the other ſide, ſhips of good burthen may come up to the very walls, to take in and diſcharge their lading; the largeſt indeed are forced to come to an anchor at New Mills, four miles below it, and unlade their merchandize into ſmaller veſſels. The tide flows ſixteen miles higher up the river than Hamburgh, which is about ninety miles from the Ocean, and thought to be a longer courſe than the tide takes in any other European river.

The publick buildings in this city mentioned by travellers, are, the church of St. Peter, formerly a cathedral, while the town remained an archbiſhoprick, and the reſidentiaries of this church ſtill compoſe a chapter, who have cognizance of eccleſiaſtical cauſes, from whom there lies no appeal, but to the Imperial Chamber at Spire. The other moſt conſiderable churches are thoſe of St. Nicholas, St. Jacob, St. Catharine, and St. Michael, where regiſters of the poor of the reſpective pariſhes are kept, who have money weekly diſtributed amongſt them, and a yearly allowance of clothes and fuel: nor is there any city can boaſt of more well-endowed hoſpitals and charitable foundations in proportion to it's bigneſs, for cripples, aged people, orphans, diſabled ſeamen and their families, with free-ſchools for the education of the children of poor citizens, who are furniſhed with clothes as well as good inſtruction, till they are capable of being put out to trades, or ſent to the univerſity.

The city of Hamburgh is a free Imperial city, independent of any other power except the Emperor, to whom they pay homage, and ſome other ſmall acknowledgments for the protection they receive from the Empire, as other Imperial cities do, who have both the legiſlative and executive power lodged in them. The magiſtrates are four Burgomaſters; twenty Schepins or Aldermen, choſen out of the moſt conſiderable merchants or tradeſmen; twelve Common-Council Men or Senators, who conſtantly attend the ſervice of the city, who upon extraordianary occaſions aſſemble ſixty more of the principal citizens, called *Burger Alten*, or Elders of the city; and if the caſe be of the utmoſt importance, the whole body of freemen are aſſembled, in whom ſeems to be the laſt reſort. But this power has been frequently diſputed of late years; the ſenate pretending that though they are called to adviſe with upon extraordinary occaſions, their ſuperiors only have the power of determining what ought to be done: and theſe controverſies have ſometimes riſen to that height, that the Emperor has been obliged to take cognizance of them, and command the forces of the Circle to march into the city to keep the peace, as will appear hereafter. But before I proceed further, it may be convenient to enquire here the foundation of that claim the Dane frequently makes to the dominion of this city. And it ſeems Woldemar, Duke of Sleſwick, by the aſſiſtance of Canutus the VIth, King of Denmark, his brother, took this city from the Emperor Otho IV. and Woldemar being afterwards advanced to the Daniſh throne, tranſferred the ſovereignty of Hamburgh to Albrecht, Earl of Orlemund, who aſſigned his right to the citizens in conſideration of fifteen hundred marks of ſilver; and thus this city became a free and independent State: and Adolph IV. Earl of Holſtein, confirmed their rights and privileges, as his ſucceſſors alſo did down to Adolph XIV. the laſt Earl of Holſtein and Scawenburg of that family, who died anno 1459: upon whoſe death the province of Holſtein put themſelves under the protection of Christian I. King of Denmark, whom they elected their Sovereign, under the title of Duke of Holſtein; and the citizens of Hamburgh entered into an alliance with the King of Denmark, engaging to maintain the ſame friendſhip and correſpondence with him, they had done with the Earls of Holſtein and Schawenburg his predeceſſors, if he would confirm their rights and privileges, which he did accordingly. His ſucceſſors, however, were perpetually reviving their claim to the ſovereignty of this city; and ſome of them compelled the citizens to pay large ſums to purchaſe a confirmation of their liberties: but in all their treaties with that crown, they concluded, *Salvo jure Cæſaris & Imperii, & ſalvis libertatibus civitatis ab Imperiali culmine obtentis.* And in a Diet, held at Augſburg anno 1510, the Emperor Maximilian I. with the States of the Empire, declared Hamburgh a free Imperial city, and ſummoned the Duke of Holſtein to appear before the Imperial Chamber at Spire, to make good or renounce his pretenſions to the ſaid city. But the Kings of Denmark, as Dukes of Holſtein, have nevertheleſs ſeveral times ſince extorted large ſums of money from this city; ſometimes appearing before it with a numerous army, and at other times blocking up the mouth of the river Elbe, taking their ſhips, and obſtructing their traffick; but the powers intereſted in preſerving the liberties of this city, have hitherto interpoſed, and preſerved them from being ſwallowed up by the Dane. The liberties of Hamburgh have alſo been ſeveral times endangered by religious diſputes with ſome of the neighbouring Princes, and by their own inteſtine diviſions, as has been hinted already, particularly in the year 1708; when thoſe diſputes aroſe ſo high, that a body of troops was ſent to take poſſeſſion of the town, by the directors of the Circle of Lower Saxony, in order to preſerve the peace of the city.

The eſtabliſhed religion of Hamburgh is Lutheraniſm; and ſo bigotted are they to their particular opinions in religion, that they will tolerate no other ſect, whether popiſh or proteſtant, except in the chapels of foreign miniſters: nor will they ſuffer any ſubject of Hamburgh to reſort even thither, inſomuch, that they proſecuted very ſeverely ſome citizens who were ſeen at the Dutch chapel, notwithſtanding the repreſentations of the King of Pruſſia and the States-General in behalf of their brethren, the diſciples of Calvin, in the year 1719. And in anſwer to his Pruſſian Majeſty's memorial on this ſubject, they acquainted him that the Calviniſts in affairs relating to trade, enjoyed the ſame privileges as the Lutherans; but that at the time of the eſtabliſhing the Lutheran religion in that city, neither the Calviniſts, the Roman Catholick inhabitants, or the Jews were allowed the publick exerciſe of their worſhip, but were content with domeſtick ſervice; and as for ſermons and the adminiſtration of the ſacraments, they were obliged to repair to neighbouring towns: which ſtate of things was confirmed by the treaty of Weſtphalia, and their magiſtrates obliged by a very binding oath to obſerve that treaty. Notwithſtanding which, both the Calviniſts and Roman Catholicks were increaſed in their city of late years to an inſufferable degree, and openly aſſumed to themſelves an exerciſe of their worſhip, aſſembling in divers parts of the town, and particularly at the Dutch reſident's houſe, to the number of ſome hundreds, with ſeveral coaches, and by preaching ſermons, ſinging aloud, and adminiſtring the ſacraments, gave reaſon to ſuſpect they would in time claim a right to their publick worſhip; and that this, with the repeated encroachments and uſurpations of the Roman Catholicks, had put the magiſtrates upon iſſuing an edict to prohibit ſuch unlawful worſhip, and reduce the ſame within the bounds preſcribed by the treaty of Weſtphalia.

The ſame year, 1719, I find the Roman Catholicks alſo complaining of their being inſulted by the inhabitants of Hamburgh on account of their religion. The Imperial miniſter reſiding in this city, it ſeems, had cauſed a new chapel to be built, and the prieſts having laid the firſt ſtone with unuſual ceremonies, and attempted openly to make proſelytes to their religion, gave great offence to the Lutheran clergy, who incited both magiſtrates and people to oppoſe the finiſhing this popiſh temple; whereupon a mob was ſpirited up on Sunday the 15th of September, who firſt plundered the chapel of the plate and ornaments, and afterwards demoliſhed it. They alſo proceeded to ſtorm the houſe of Count Metſch the Imperial miniſter, ſtripping it of the furniture, and carrying off ſeven thouſand crowns in money, abuſing M. LEMBKE, Imperial counſellor and ſecretary of the embaſſy; the tumult laſting from nine of the clock in the morning until midnight before it was ſuppreſſed: Of which the Imperial reſident immediately ſent an expreſs to court. The Emperor was ſo exaſperated at this outragious riot againſt his miniſters and thoſe of his communion, that he threatned the city with military execution if they did not forthwith pay a fine of two hundred thouſand crowns, rebuild the houſe and chapel at their own expence, and make good the loſs of the furniture, ornaments, and all other damages ſuſtained; and laſtly, that two members of the ſenate and two of the common-council ſhould come to Vienna, and beg his Imperial Majeſty's pardon. With which the Hamburghers were obliged to comply, except that they got ſome part of the fine abated. But the Emperor has ſince taken them into his ſpecial protection, and eſpouſes their cauſe heartily againſt the antiquated pretenſions of the Dane: for in November, 1724, the magiſtrates publiſhed an Imperial mandate, importing, That whereas it had been repreſented to his Imperial Majeſty, that the King of Denmark and his officers, eſpecially the Count de Calenburg, High-Bailiff of the county of Pinneburg, had for ſome time paſt pretended to exerciſe an independent juriſdiction within the diſtrict of the Daniſh hotels (palaces) called the Schawenburg and Muhlen in the city of Hamburgh, and to exempt the inhabitants thereof, and all the houſes within that verge, though ſworn Burghers of the city, from all civil power, allegiance, and obedience to the government, as alſo from all taxes and contributions; and had made uſe of threats to deter the ſaid city from maintaining her rights, which they had poſſeſſed for many centuries; his Imperial Majeſty annulled and vacated all the ordinances hitherto iſſued againſt the city by his Daniſh Majeſty and his officers, eſpecially by Count Calenburg, and the Daniſh Reſidents Hagendorn and Hohenmhul, and all the inhabitants of the ſaid diſtricts were by the ſaid mandate ſtrictly enjoined not only to be faithful and obedient, like other Burghers, to the magiſtrates of Hamburgh, according to the ancient conſtitution of the city, but likewiſe to pay without reſiſtance the arrears of the taxes, and bear their ſhare of all contributions, charges, and offices for the future, on pain of being puniſhed corporally, and even with death, according to the nature of the crime.

The Miniſters of Denmark on the contrary publiſhed an order of the King of Denmark's, requiring the inhabitants of the diſtrict of Schawenburg not to pay the leaſt contribution or tax to the magiſtrates of Hamburgh on pain of death, wherein his Daniſh Majeſty alſo revives his claim to that his hereditary city, as he calls it; and threatens the citizens that one time or other they ſhould feel the effects of his reſentment. In the year 1726, the King of Denmark proceeded to prohibit the currency of the Hamburgh coin in his dominions, (as the Hamburghers had before the currency of the Daniſh coin in their territories.) He alſo required his ſubjects not to buy of the Hamburghers any goods of the growth or manufacture of England, France, Holland, Italy, Germany, or any other foreign country; and the Daniſh merchants were required to purchaſe them in the reſpective countries where they are produced or manufactured; which is a very great loſs to the Hamburghers, who uſed to furniſh the dominions of Denmark with moſt of their foreign goods. The Engliſh Hamburgh merchants are ſaid to be more favoured in this city than thoſe of any other nation, on account of the extraordinary trade they occaſion here; their factors and agents being exempted from the juriſdiction of the city courts, and all civil and criminal matters relating only to their people, determined by the Engliſh reſident. They are alſo indulged in the publick exerciſe of their religious worſhip, a privilege ſaid to be denied to moſt other nations who are not of the Lutheran perſuaſion; but I perceive the Dutch and other foreigners have now the ſame liberty, though the natives are not allowed to reſort to their chapels.

Hamburgh, (according to another writer) is one of the beſt towns in Germany, being ſituate on the Elbe, twenty-five leagues from the mouth of it: it has noble ramparts, and very ſtrong outworks; and it alſo takes care to be well provided with artillery, and a good gariſon. Moreover, it is always ſure of the protection of the families of Brandenburg and Brunſwick, it being ſo advantageouſly ſituated, that it is the intereſt of both, that no power whatſoever ſhould take it.

Hamburgh is alſo very conſiderable, on account of the wealth of it's inhabitants, who are almoſt all merchants, and much of the temper of the Dutch merchants, very greedy of gain, and thrifty. Their greateſt delight is to have gardens at the city gates, pretty much in the taſte of thoſe of Holland. The wives of the great merchants are as much confined at Hamburgh, as the women of quality are at Venice; but I obſerved, they were only pent up from foreigners. A man may paſs his time very well in this city, where there are ſeveral perſons of quality to ſee, who make their viſitors perfectly welcome. The walks, in and about this city, are charming, and eſpecially that on the ramparts is a noble one; there being a double row of trees, which forms an agreeable covert, and from whence there is a proſpect finely diverſified by noble houſes, gardens, woods, meadows, &c. in the midſt of which one ſees the rivers Elbe and Alſter, which both together yield a charming view. The river of Alſter comes into the town, and forms a baſin very like a great pond, which has a fine key on the ſides of it, planted with ſeveral rows of lime-trees, between which there is a very fine walk.

It depends ſolely upon it's magiſtrates, who are choſe by the Burghers themſelves. It's liberty has been often conteſted by the Kings of Denmark; who, as Dukes of Holſtein, pretend, that Hamburgh is built upon their territory, and that therefore they ought to be ſovereigns of it.

Moſt of the European Princes have reſidents here; for which reaſon, here are ſeveral chapels of the Roman catholicks, who, otherwiſe, would be obliged to go to the church at Altena, as the Calviniſts are forced to do; the Lutheran being the religion that is uppermoſt at Hamburgh; but the Jews have their ſynagogues here.

Lubeck.

Lubeck, the chief of the Hans-Towns, and an Imperial city, is ſituated in the province of Wagerland in the duchy of Holſtein, though ſome have placed it in the duchy of Mecklenburg, from which indeed it is not far diſtant. It is ſaid to have derived the name from it's ſituation on a corner or point of land; the word *Lubeck*, or rather *Lobeck*, in High-Dutch, ſignifying as much. This city ſtands on the river Trave, ten miles from the Baltick ſea, in fifty-four degrees odd minutes north latitude, upwards of forty miles north-eaſt of Hamburgh, about as many to the weſtward of Wiſmar, and twenty-five miles north of Lawenburg. Travemund, at the mouth of the river Trave, is the port-town to Lubeck, and eſteemed a very good harbour. There is not any city in the north of Germany, according to Dr. Nicholson, which exceeds Lubeck in the beauty and uniformity of it's buildings, or the pleaſantneſs of the groves and gardens about it. The ſtreets are broad and ſtrait, and the houſes built of brick; and from a publick reſervoir water is laid into every citizen's houſe, and ſeveral of the ſtreets are planted with rows of trees. The churches are generally well built, adorned with high ſpire ſteeples, being about twenty in number; and the cathedral, dedicated to St. Mary, eſteemed a fine piece of architecture. Lubeck was an inconſiderable borough till inlarged and beautified by Adolph, the ſecond Earl of Holſtein, anno 1140, from whom Henry Duke of Saxony and Bavaria, ſurnamed the Lion, took it. Woldemar Duke of Sleſwick, brother and heir to Canutus King of Denmark, afterwards made himſelf maſter of it; but the citizens being unkindly treated by the Danes, put themſelves under the protection of the Emperor Frederick II. who confirmed their ancient privileges and immunities, and enlarged them; ſince which, Lubeck has continued a free Imperial city, and was the metropolis of the Hans-Towns, as has been intimated already. The biſhoprick of this city has been enjoyed by Proteſtant Princes ever ſince the year 1561, when the Lutheran religion was introduced here, and devolves as an appennage, or inheritance, on the younger ſons of the Duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, who are ſtiled Dukes of Eutin, from a town where the palace of this prelate ſtands, about four miles from the city. This is the only Proteſtant biſhoprick in Germany, it is ſaid, which has not been ſtripped of the revenues and privileges belonging to it; the other Lutheran Biſhops are rather ſuperintendants, having little to diſtinguiſh them from the inferior clergy, but the point of precedence.

The preſent government is in the hands of twelve Burgomaſters elected out of the nobility and civil lawyers, and the ſenate or council conſiſts of ſixteen members, half noblemen and lawyers, and the other half merchants. Two brothers, or father and ſon, cannot be admitted at the ſame time into the ſenate, nor any handicraft or mechanick is ſuffered to ſit amongſt them. Their territories are about ſixty miles in circumference, and contain ſeveral ſmall towns and villages. Happy were the northern Princes who could make Lubeck their friend, while ſhe was capital of the Hans-Towns, for they are ſaid to have been able at ſome times to have fitted out upwards of two hundred ſhips of war, and to have had the power of turning the ſcale to whichever ſide they inclined in the wars among the northern powers: but the reader has already met with an account of the Hans-Towns, and therefore I forbear to ſay more of them here.

LUNENBURG.

Lunenburg.

Lunenburg city.

Zell.

Bardewick.

Ultzen.

Harburg.

The dukedom of Lunenburg, in which Zell is comprehended, is bounded by the river Elbe, which ſeparates it from Lawenburg and Holſtein on the north, by Brandenburg and Magdeburg on the eaſt, by the Dukedom of Brunſwick on the ſouth, and by Bremen and part of Weſtphalia towards the weſt. The air of this country is cold, and a barren ſandy deſert takes up a great part of it: the reſt is covered with woods and foreſts, and the people who inhabit them the moſt clowniſh, and unpoliſhed of any in Germany: but their foreſts abounding in wild hog, deer and other veniſon, the neighbouring Princes and nobility annually aſſemble here to take the diverſion of hunting. The principal rivers are the Elbe, the Illmenow or Awe, and the Jetze. The chief towns are, 1. Lunenburg, or Luneburg, ſaid to derive it's name from *Luna*, the moon, on account of that planet's being adored by the ancient Pagan inhabitants: but how the moon came to have a Latin name in this part of the world before the Romans arrived here, is a difficulty that is not eaſily got over. It ſtands on the river Illmenow, in the latitude of fifty-three degrees thirty minutes; about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Hamburgh, and near forty ſouth of Lubeck, being of an oblong figure, and about two miles in circumference; the ſtreets broad, and moſt of the houſes tolerably well built. The publick buildings mentioned by travellers are, the town-hall or ſtadt-houſe, and the palace belonging to the late Duke of Zell, of which I do not meet with any thing remarkable; but the bridge over the river is ſaid to be a very fine one. From the ſalt-ſprings near this town are made great quantities of ſalt, in which the trade of the inhabitants chiefly conſiſts, and they afford a good revenue to the ſovereign. 2. Zell, the uſual reſidence of the late Dukes of Lunenburg, ſituate in a ſandy plain at the confluence of the two little rivers Aller and Fuhſe, about forty miles ſouth of Lunenburg, and thirty north of Hanover. The Duke's palace is a ſquare building, moated round, and encompaſſed with pleaſant gardens; but I do not find the architecture of this palace much admired. The courts of juſtice for the duchy of Lunenburg are held in it. 3. Bardewick, five miles north of Lunenburg, anciently a conſiderable city, of which little remains at preſent but the cathedral church and a convent. 4. Ultzen, a compact uniform little town in the midway between Lunenburg and Zell, the inhabitants of which place have a tradition, that the firſt Saxons who ſettled in England came from hence. 5. Harburg, a ſtrong little town upon the Elbe, thirty miles to the weſtward of Lunenburg, not very conſiderable at preſent, but capable, it is ſaid, of being made equal to Hamburgh, ſtanding on the oppoſite ſide of the Elbe, full as conveniently for a foreign trade as the other; and ſince the duchy of Lunenburg has at preſent the King of Great

Walſtrode

Britain for it's ſovereign, it is expected that a trade will ſooner or later be eſtabliſhed between his Britiſh Majeſty's Engliſh and German dominions, and that this town of Harburg will be the mart for the merchants of both countries to reſort to, from it's convenient ſituation on the banks of the Elbe; but what England would get by diſcontinuing the trade to Hamburgh, and endeavouring to divert it into another channel, may deſerve conſideration. 6. Walſtrode, ſituate in a pleaſant valley, encompaſſed with hills and foreſts, near the confines of Verden; the trade whereof conſiſts in wool, beer and wax.

The duchy of Lunenburg deſcended to King George.

The dominions of Lunenburg and Zell on the death of George-William the late Duke, anno 1705, devolved on the Elector of Brunſwick, the late King of Great Britain, in right of the Electoreſs his conſort, who was the only daughter and heireſs of the ſaid Duke of Lunenburg, and are now deſcended to his preſent Majeſty King George II. the eldeſt ſon of the ſaid King and Princeſs.

The Prince arbitrary.

As to the conſtitution of the government, it is almoſt unneceſſary to inform the reader that the Prince is as arbitrary as the King of France, in this, as well as the reſt of the dominions of the houſe of Brunſwick; except in ſome few Imperial cities which ſtill retain their liberties.

Eccleſiaſtical government.

The church-government in the dominions of Brunſwick is much the ſame as in other parts of Germany where Lutheraniſm is profeſſed. In each dukedom there is a *Superintendens Generaliſſimus*, who has the ſupreme inſpection of the church, and reſembles an Engliſh Archbiſhop; to whom are ſubject the ſeveral Superintendants General, or Biſhops, who preſide over the Superintendants Special, who have much the ſame office as our Archdeacons. In ſome provinces they have no other diſtinction of Superintendants but General and Special, as where the province is not of ſo large extent as to require more than one ſingle Biſhop: and their eccleſiaſtical courts are as liable to the control of the Prince as the civil: neither the one or the other have any laws but what the Prince can repeal or alter at his pleaſure; and we ſee the Electors of Brandenburg have actually altered the eſtabliſhed religion in part of their dominions from Lutheraniſm to Calviniſm: though I find where any German Prince attempts this, he is obliged to have a great deal of patience, and to do it by degrees, or he hazards an inſurrection of his ſubjects.

BRUNSWICK and HANOVER.

Brunſwick and Hanover.

THE dukedom of Brunſwick, properly ſo called, contains only the territories of Brunſwick and Hanover or Calenburg: as for the principality of Grubenhagen, the counties of Blackenburg and Reinſtein, though they are contiguous thereto, and ſubject to the ſame Princes, yet are no part of the dukedom of Brunſwick; but as they are uſually thrown together, I ſhall follow the method of thoſe who have gone before me in deſcribing the boundaries of the whole.

Bounds.

Nature of the ſoil.

Mountains.

Mines.

Their perſons and food.

Rivers.

Manners.

Brunſwick then including the duchy of Hanover, Grubenhagen, Blackenburg and Reinſtein, is bounded by Lunenburg on the north, by Magdeburg and Halberſtat towards the eaſt, by Heſſe Caſſel on the ſouth, and by the river Weſer towards the weſt. This country was part of the great Hercynian foreſt, and is ſtill pretty much over-run with woods, which yield more pine and fir-trees than any other ſort of timber: part of it, eſpecially the county of Blackenburg, is mountainous, cold and barren, their hills being covered with ſnow till midſummer; but even here are ſome fruitful valleys abounding in herds of cattle, and their mountains are richly furniſhed with mines of ſilver, copper, lead, vitriol, brimſtone, quickſilver and copperas. The country is alſo generally healthful, and the people of as large a ſize as any in Germany, uſed to coarſe fare and hard lodging, and naturally well fitted and prepared for the drudgeries they are put to. Dried hogs fleſh and a black coarſe ſort of rye-bread fitter for horſes than men, as the French traveller expreſſed himſelf, is their common food; the reſt of the Germans, from their living ſo much on ſwines fleſh, call them Bacon-guts. The principal rivers are, the Weſer, the Leina, the Innerſte and the Ocker. Upon the top of every high hill almoſt are ſeen the ruins of old fortreſſes, ſuppoſed by ſome to have been erected by the Romans; but by others to have been built during the wars of the Saxons with Charles the Great. The preſent generation are allowed to be ſincere and hoſpitable, as the generality of the Germans are; but a little rough and unpoliſhed. The chief towns are,

Brunſwick city.

1. Brunſwick, *Brunopolis*, from it's founder Bruno, one of the ſons of Ludolph Duke of Saxony, ſituate in a plain on the river Ocker, in the latitude of fifty-two degrees twenty-five minutes, ten miles north of Wolfembuttle, and between fifty and ſixty ſouth of Lunenburg. It was formerly a free Imperial city, and one of the Hans-Towns; but after many ſtruggles for their liberties, they were forced to yield to the ſuperior force of the Dukes of Brunſwick, who keep a ſtrong gariſon in the place, and have enlarged the fortifications; whereupon the merchants and trading men have forſaken it, and it is now in a declining condition, mum and butter being almoſt the only commodities they deal in. The town is of a ſquare form, and about two miles in circumference, divided in the middle by the river Ocker. The private houſes are tolerably well built, and the town-houſe and Prince's palace are ſaid to be magnificent ſtructures. The mum made here is of two ſorts, the one thin and weak, the ordinary drink of the inhabitants; and the other called ſhip-mum, ſuch as is imported into England and other parts of Europe. This Dr. Nicholson obſerves is ſcarce fit to drink till it has purged itſelf at ſea, and is made of barley with a ſmall mixture of wheat, well hopped. The town was formerly governed by it's own magiſtrates; but as the Dukes of Brunſwick obtained it by conqueſt, they take the liberty of preſcribing what laws and regimen they think propereſt for the city at preſent, and are at this day as abſolute here as in the reſt of their dominions.

Wolfembuttle.

2. Wolfembuttle, which ſtands alſo on the river Ocker, ten miles to the ſouthward of Brunſwick, in a watery country, as the name ſignifies, and ſurrounded by marſhes. It was the ſeat of the ancient Dukes of Brunſwick; and ſtrong both by art and nature, conſiſting of two parts, the one called *Arx Guelpica*, where the palace ſtands, having obtained it's name from the founder, who was of the Guelphian family; the other called *Henrickſtat*,

Henrickſtat, from Duke Henry the younger, who laid the foundation of it. The publick buildings taken notice of by travellers, are the new church, an elegant building, where lie interred more than twenty Dukes and Ducheſſes of Brunſwick; and the palace, the reſidence of the preſent Duke of Brunſwick-Wolfembuttle, with the library belonging to it, containing an hundred and twenty four thouſand volumes, according to Hanisius, one of the librarians; but Dr. Nicholson looks upon this as incredible, the books being contained in two ſmall rooms, both of them not ſo large as a third part of the Bodleian library. It is, however, allowed to be one of the beſt collections of printed books in Germany. This library was founded by Augustus the famous Duke of Brunſwick-Wolfembuttle, a Prince, ſays Dr. Nicholson, who infinitely ſurpaſſed all his predeceſſors in learning and knowledge, who in four large volumes gave an account of the moſt conſiderable authors in his library, and compoſed many other excellent treatiſes; he died in the year 1666, leaving two ſons, viz. Rodolphus Augustus, and Anthony Ulrick, who governed jointly the dominions of Wolfembuttle, of whom I ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak further hereafter.

Hanover. 3. Hanover, the capital of the dukedom of Calenburg, ſituate on the river Leina, ſo named from a ferry on that river; Hanover in the old Saxon dialect ſignifying as much as *Have-over* in Engliſh, according to Dr. Nicholson. It ſtands between forty and fifty miles to the weſtward of Brunſwick, and thirty ſouth of Zell, and is ſaid to be a handſom well-built city; but except ſome few houſes of ſtone, I perceive timber and clay are the chief materials in their buildings. The Elector's palace is in the caſtle, which ſtands on one ſide of the town near the walls, being a large building of free ſtone, containing ſeveral ſquare courts; but I do not meet with any traveller that has enlarged upon the beauties of it. The principal churches of the city are thoſe dedicated to St. James and the Holy Croſs, which are built of ſtone, and have ſome good paintings in them. This town being the reſidence of the Electoral family, is tolerably populous, and well fortified. It was once a free Imperial city and a Hans-Town, when their trade was in a flouriſhing condition; but the only merchandize I can learn they export at preſent is a kind of ſweet muddy beer, which goes by the name of Bruhane, which the neighbouring villages take off their hands.

Helmſtat. 4. Helmſtat, which ſtands twenty-four miles to the eaſtward of Wolfembuttle, remarkable for its univerſity founded and endowed with large privileges by Julius Duke of Brunſwick-Wolfembuttle anno 1576, the rector whereof has the title and dignity of a Count Palatine.

Hamelin. 5. Hamelin, ſituate at the confluence of the rivers Weſer and Hamel, eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in the Duke of Brunſwick's dominions; but more famous for a ſtory related by Dr. Nicholson and other grave writers, and believed by the credulous people of this place, though nothing ſurely ever had more the air of a fable; I ſhall recite it in the doctor's words without any manner of alteration.

The ſtory of the piper. ‘The records of this city, (ſays that reverend Gentleman) relate a notable accident which happened among the burghers on the 26th of June 1284, viz. The citizens being ſtrangely infeſted by rats, and having tried all imaginable expedients, but in vain, to rid themſelves of thoſe troubleſom gueſts, at laſt met with a ſtranger who undertook for a certain reward to do the feat. The burghers agreed to his propoſals, and the ſtrange gentleman immediately with his tabret and pipe draws after him all the rats in the town, like ſo many morris-dancers, to the river, and there drowned them. Returning for his reward it was denied him, as being judged too great a recompence for ſo ſmall a performance. However, leſs he could not be perſuaded to take, but left the town in a rage, threatening in a ſhort time to be revenged. Accordingly about a year after he came again, and played the ſecond part of the ſame tune, but with another train after him: for now he went attended with a great number of children, who followed him in at the mouth of a great cave on the top of a neighbouring hill, called by the burghers *Koppelberg*, and were never after heard of. In remembrance of this ſad accident the citizens were wont for many years after, as appears by ſeveral old deeds and other records in that city, to date all their indentures and contracts, ſuch a year *ſince the departure of our children*. The ſtreet through which they paſſed is to this day called *Bungloeſe Straſs*, or Tabret Street; and on the top of the mountain near the cave's mouth, is ſtill to be ſeen a monument of ſtone with an inſcription giving an account of the loſs of an hundred and thirty children in the manner above related’.

Grubenhagen county. I come now to give a more particular deſcription of the principality of Grubenhagen, which in the High-Dutch ſignifies a grove or foreſt; this being part of the Hartz, or *Sylva Hercynia*, mentioned by Julius Cæsar in his commentaries.

The Hercynian foreſt. The German word Hartz, out of which Dr. Nicholson ſuppoſes the Latins formed their Hercynia, ſignifying properly roſin or pitch, which is the liquor extracted from the pine and fir-trees the only timber with which this foreſt abounds; and though part of this foreſt hath ſince the times of the Romans been converted into towns and villages, and corn-fields, yet it is ſtill eaſy to diſcern the traces of it quite croſs the country.

Grubenhagen lies on the ſouth-weſt part of the dukedom of Brunſwick, and is moſt conſiderable for the mines of ſilver, copper and lead that are found here; beſides a great many other minerals, as, 1. Grey vitriol, 2. Atramenſtein, or inkſtone, out of which two beaten and boiled together the ordinary green vitriol is made. 3. Gedien vitriol, which grows like icicles out of the rocks, and may be uſed without cleanſing or purifying. 4. Blue vitriol, commonly made out of the copper ore. 5. White vitriol, made of lead-ore. 6. Miſy, a mineral of the ſame colour and nature as the ordinary yellow brimſtone. 7. Brimſtone, made out of a peculiar ſort of ore, from whence drop the *Flores Sulphuris*, which uſually coagulate like icicles.

Mines. The chief mines of this country are, 1. Rammelſburg, in an high mountain near the city of Goſlen, diſcovered by a huntſman named Ramme (from whence it had its name) in the year 972. Another great vein of ore was diſcovered in the year 1045, where Wildman now ſtands; and a third at Zellerfield in the year 1070. This laſt is the chief of all the mine-towns belonging to the Princes of Brunſwick: here the overſeer of the mines keeps his court every Saturday, and pays off the workmen. The capital city of Grubenhagen

Eimbeck city.

benhagen is Eimbeck, ſo called from a number of ſmall rivulets which unite their ſtreams near this place; the word *Beck*, or *Backe*, in the old Saxon dialect ſignifying a rivulet. The other towns in this principality are Clonſthall, Altenan, Andreaſburg, and Oſterrode, all inhabited by miners, who being bred up, ſays my author, in caves and the bowels of the earth, do not trouble themſelves with erecting very fair ſtructures above ground.

Blankenburg and Reinſtein.

The little counties of Blankenburg and Reinſtein are uſually conſidered together as one province, lying between the territories of Halberſtat and Anhalt. The caſtle of Blankenburg, which gives name to the province, is ſituated about forty miles to the ſouthward of Wolfembuttle. This country was anciently called Hartingow, or the Hercynian county. The Roman writers who deſcribe it, ſay the inhabitants live in an intolerable ſharp air, and have a continual winter, which modern authors obſerve may more juſtly be applied to this than any other territory in Germany, it being expoſed to the north, and receiving the cold blaſts from the top of Bructeras (one of the higheſt hills in Europe) and the neighbouring mountains, which are uſually covered with ſnow till midſummer. The air however is ſo healthful, that the inhabitants frequently live to upwards of an hundred. The ſoil produces little corn, but the valleys are well ſtocked with cattle, and their mountains afford abundance of iron ore. Among the curioſities which travellers take notice of in this country, is an unfathomable cave, called Buman's hole, which ſeems to reſemble the Peak of Derbyſhire, of which they relate abundance of extravagant ſtories; as of a ſhepherd's loſing himſelf, and wandring eight days about it, after which he returned, and gave a monſtrous account of the ſubterranean inhabitants. The bones of men of an uncommon ſize, much beyond the preſent generation, alſo are ſaid to have been found here. Near the monaſtery of Michaelſtein are two large craggy rocks oppoſite to each other, which naturally repreſent two monks in their habits, as exactly as if they had been carved by the beſt artiſts. And all over this cold barren country are forts and caſtles, on the top of every craggy inacceſſible rock, built by the ancients, as if they had ſomething better worth the defending than ſuch a deſert as the Hercynian foreſt, the only one whereof that is thought habitable by the preſent generation is the palace of Blankenburg, where the Duke of Wolfembuttle uſually reſides in the hunting ſeaſon; the reſt are only ſo many venerable remains of antiquity, as the old caſtle of Reinſtein, ſo called from being hewn out of one entire rock or ſtone, Heimburg, Hartingow, Gerſderf, Lawenburg, Homburg, and many more. With this country of Blankenburg geographers uſually deſcribe the Imperial city of Goſlar, though independent of the Dukes of Brunſwick, becauſe it is ſurrounded by their territories. It was built by the Emperor HENRY I. on the river Goſe, from whence it takes it's name. The citizens enjoy large privileges, and in all Imperial mandates and letters directed to them, are ſtiled *Nobile Membrum Imperii*. The inhabitants are all miners, and their employment is either in digging, cleanſing, tempering, or vending of metals and minerals.

Goſlar city.

Family of Brunſwick.

As to the pedigree of the Dukes of Brunſwick, it will be found in the appendix to this work with thoſe of the other German Princes; I ſhall go no higher here than their marrying into the Palatine family, only obſerve that they are ſaid to be deſcended from the family of the Guelphs or Whelps, who were anciently Dukes both of Bavaria and Saxony, of whoſe original the following relation is given us by Dr. NICHOLSON, and almoſt every other writer that has treatd of Germany, as follows: "JERMINTRUDIS, Counteſs of Altorf in Suabia, having accuſed a poor woman of adultery, and cauſed her to be ſeverely puniſhed for having had twelve children at a birth, was not long after delivered of the ſame number her ſelf, and all of them ſons: her huſband Count ISENBRED being abſent at that time, ſhe commanded the nurſe to kill eleven of them, fearing ſhe might undergo the ſame ſcandal ſhe had thrown on the poor woman above mentioned. But the nurſe, as ſhe was going out to execute the Lady's order, was met by the Count returning home, who enquiring what ſhe carried in her apron, anſwered, Woelpen (Whelps), and the Count opening her apron to ſee them, ſhe confeſſed the whole matter; whereupon he took them from her, and obliging the woman to be ſecret, put them all out to nurſe. At the end of ſix years the Count invited his friends to an entertainment, when he took an opportunity of introducing his eleven ſons to their mother, cloathed all alike; who being conſcious of what ſhe had done, confeſſed her fault, and was reſtored to her huſband's favour." And from the eldeſt of theſe Whelps, for ſo the Count ordered them to be named, in memory of the nurſe's anſwer to him, deſcended HENRY GUELPH, Earl of Altorf, whom the Emperor CONRADE II. made Duke of Bavaria; and the dominions of this family were afterwards much enlarged by the acceſſion of Lower Saxony. I do not, I muſt confeſs, give much credit to this account of the Counteſs of Altorf's being delivered of twelve children at a birth, but as it is in the mouth of every traveller who has viſited this country, there was no avoiding the mentioning of it.

The Duke of Brunſwick, his immediate anceſtors.

The preſent Elector of Brunſwick, GEORGE II. King of Great Britain, is grandſon of Duke ERNEST AUGUSTUS, who ſucceeded his brother JOHN FREDERICK, Biſhop of Oſnabrug, in this duchy anno 1679. By the Princeſs SOPHIA, daughter of FREDERICK V, Elector Palatine, and of the Princeſs ELIZABETH, daughter to JAMES I, King of Great Britain; Duke ERNEST had iſſue, GEORGE LEWIS, the late Elector and King of Great Britain, born anno 1660, who ſucceeded his father in the duchy of Brunſwick anno 1698, and having married SOPHIA DOROTHY, the only daughter of his uncle GEORGE WILLIAM Duke of Lunenburg Zell, that duchy devolved upon him anno 1705.

Duke Erneſt made the firſt Elector, anno 1692.

In the year 1692, the Emperor LEOPOLD created Duke ERNEST, grandfather of his preſent Britiſh Majeſty, the ninth Elector, and Archſtandard-bearer of the Empire; but the Duke of Wirtemburg laying claim to the office of Standard-bearer, the Emperor JOSEPH afterwards conferred the title of Arch-treaſurer on the Elector of Brunſwick. The college of Princes at firſt proteſted againſt the Duke of Brunſwick's being made a ninth Elector, and it was the 30th of June 1708, before the Diet agreed to the eſtabliſhment of this ninth electorate, in the perſon of GEORGE LEWIS late King of Great Britain, and ſon of Duke ERNEST, the firſt Elector of this houſe.

The laſt Elector, his conſort and iſſue.

His Majeſty the preſent Elector's Queen and iſſue.

Queen of Pruſſia's iſſue.

Brothers of his late Majeſty.

His late Majeſty GEORGE Elector of Brunſwick, died at Oſnabrug, in the night of the 10th of June 1727, leaving iſſue only GEORGE AUGUSTUS, the preſent Elector and King of Great Britain, and SOPHIA DOROTHY, the preſent Queen of Pruſſia, whom he had by the Princeſs SOPHIA DOROTHY, daughter and heireſs to the Duke of Zell, above mentioned. This marriage however, Monſieur PASCHOUD Chaplain to the Earl of Albemarle, in his Geographical Treatiſe, pag. 86, informs us, was diſannulled by the conſiſtory of Hanover, December 28, 1694; and the Electreſs afterwards reſided at the caſtle of Alen, ſeparate from his late Majeſty, till her death. His preſent Majeſty GEORGE AUGUSTUS was born October 30, 1683; and on September 2, 1705, was married to the preſent Queen CAROLINE, daughter of JOHN-FREDERICK, Margave of Anſpach. This Princeſs was born March 1, 1683, by whom his Majeſty hath iſſue now living, 1. Prince FREDERICK-LEWIS, born the 19th of January, 1706. 2. The Princeſs ANNE, born 22 Octob. 1709. 3. The Princeſs AMELIA-SOPHIA-ELEONORA, born the 30th of May, 1711. 4. The Princeſs CAROLINA-ELIZABETH, born the 30th of May, 1713. And, 5. Prince WILLIAM-AUGUSTUS, born at Leiceſter-Houſe on the 15th of April, 1721. The Princeſs SOPHIA-DOROTHY, the preſent Queen of Pruſſia, was born the 16th of March, 1687, and married to FREDERICK II, King of Pruſſia, the 28th of November 1706, by whom ſhe hath had iſſue, 1. The Princeſs FREDERICA-AUGUSTA-SOPHIA, born anno 1709. 2. CHARLES-FREDERICK, Prince of Pruſſia and Orange, born anno 1712. 3. The Princeſs LOUISA, born anno 1714. His late Majeſty King GEORGE had alſo ſeveral brothers, moſt of whom died in the bed of honour in defence of the Empire; but ERNEST-AUGUSTUS, the preſent Duke of York, and Biſhop of Oſnabrug, born the 17th of September 1674, is ſtill living.

Arms of the Duke of Brunſwick.

The arms of the Duke of Brunſwick are, Gules, two leopards, Or, languid, for Brunſwick; Gules, a horſe Argent, for Lower Saxony; Or, a lion rampant Azure, ſtrewed with hearts Gules, for Lunenburg; Argent, a branch of deers horns, for Reinſtein; and the like Sable, for Blankenburg: and for Bremen, the arms are in a field Gules, a key Argent, to ſhew, ſays my author, that they can open or ſhut the paſſage of the river Weſer as they ſee fit.

Three branches of the houſe of Brunſwick, Zell, Hanover and Wolfembuttle.

Duke Ulrick of Wolfembuttle turns Papiſt.

As does the preſent Empreſs his grand-daughter.

The houſe of Brunſwick was till lately divided into three branches, viz. thoſe of Zell, Wolfembuttle and Hanover; Zell and Hanover we have ſeen united in the perſon of his late Majeſty King GEORGE, but that of Wolfembuttle ſtill remains ſeparate and diſtinct, and is frequently of a different intereſt from that of Hanover; particularly at the breaking out of the war in the year 1702, we find the two Dukes of Wolfembuttle, RODOLPHUS and ANTHONY ULRICK (being brothers, and governing that duchy jointly) to take the part of France againſt the confederates; whereupon the Dukes of Zell and Hanover marched againſt them, and excluded Duke ULRICK, who refuſed to abandon the French, from his ſhare of the regency, and brought over Duke RODOLPH to the allies, leaving him in the ſole poſſeſſion of the territories of Wolfembuttle. But RODOLPH dying two or three years after, Duke ANTHONY ULRICK was reſtored to the whole dominions of Wolfembuttle; and in the year 1709. he renounced the Proteſtant religion, and was reconciled to the church of Rome, though he was before eſteemed the moſt ſteady to his principles of all the Lutheran Princes, and the moſt learned amongſt them. It was by his influence alſo that his grand-daughter, the preſent Empreſs, daughter to Prince LEWIS of Wolfembuttle, his ſecond ſon, was prevailed on to turn Roman Catholick.

But as Duke ULRICK wanted neither ſenſe, learning, or experience, and was exceedingly well verſed in the controverſial points between the Lutherans and the church of Rome, I am very far from thinking he was brought over to the Roman communion by the ſtrength of their arguments. It is certain there were other very ſtrong inducements to draw him to that ſide, namely, intereſt and ambition. He had formerly been depoſed by a powerful relation, and ſeems to have been apprehenſive of the like treatment again, which he could not take a more effectual way to prevent than by marrying his grand-daughter to the then King of Spain, brother and heir to the Emperor JOSEPH; he might expect alſo by this means, his poſterity would one day ſucceed to the Imperial throne. The court of Wolfembuttle have indeed this laſt year entered into an alliance with that of Britain, a penſion of twenty-five thouſand pounds per annum muſt have a mighty influence on a little German Prince; but can it be ſuppoſed however he will totally abandon the Emperor's intereſt, if things ſhould be brought to an extremity? Britain has better friends ſurely than thoſe ſhe purchaſes, or it would be eaſy to foretel her fate.

The Elector of Hanover, King of Great Britain.

Elector of Hanover.

VIII. GEORGE-AUGUSTUS, born the 30th of October 1683, was created Prince of Wales in 1714. Elector of Hanover and King of Great-Britain, the 11th of June 1727. The 22d of Auguſt 1705, he married CAROLINA-WILHELMINA-DOROTHEA, born the firſt of March 1683, daughter to JOHN-FREDERICK, Margrave of Brandenburg-Anſpach, and ERDMUTH-LOUISA, daughter to GEORGE, Duke of Sax-Eiſenach, and of JANETT, Counteſs of Sayn. Their children are:

1. FREDERICK-LOUIS, born the 19th of January 1707, came to England in December 1728. On April the 27th 1736, he married Auguſta, who was born the 17th of November 1719. She is ſiſter to the reigning Duke of Sax-Gotha.

2. ANNE, born the 22d of October 1709, married the 14th of March 1734, WILLIAM-CHARLES-FRIZO, Prince of Naſſau-Dietz, or Orange. December 7, 1736, ſhe was delivered of a Princeſs who died in the birth.

AMELIA-SOPHIA-LEONORA, born the 30th of June 1711.

4. CAROLINE-ELIZABETH, born the 13th of May 1713.

5. A Prince born the 8th of November 1716. He died ſoon after.

6. GEORGE-WILLIAM, born the 2d of November 1717. He died the 5th of February the year following.

7. WILLIAM-AUGUSTUS, Duke of Cumberland, was born the 14th of April 1721.

8. MARY, born the 27th of February 1723.

9. LOUISA, born the 4th of December 1724.

At the coronation of the Emperor, this Elector carries the ſtandard: he is arch-treaſurer of the empire, a tutelar honour. The electorate is attached to the duchies of Hanover and Zell, which, by the King's mother, are both united in his perſon.

His revenue may amount to about 400,000 l. per annum, a ſum far exceeding the current charges of ſtate; eſpecially now that there is no court kept at Hanover.

In the year 1692, the King's grandfather had fourteen thouſand regular troops on foot. Now, that the eſtates of the electorate are larger by more than one half, by the addition of Lunenburg and Bremen, his Majeſty may raiſe here an army of betwixt thirty and forty thouſand men, without greatly burdening the ſubject. In the year 1729, he paſſed in review a body of nineteen thouſand eight hundred and ninety men, and in September 1735, that number was augmented to twenty-two thouſand regular troops.

The town of Hanover further deſcribed, by baron Pöllnitz.

Hanover.

Hanover is ſituated in 52 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and 9 degrees 40 minutes eaſt longitude. The river Leine divides it into the old and new towns, which are both encompaſſed with ramparts that ſcarce deſerve the name. There is nothing very extraordinary in the palace, or caſtle, which is rather commodious than magnificent; and the town of Hanover, generally ſpeaking, is but ill-built. The moſt remarkable ſtructure in it is the Roman catholick church, which was granted to thoſe of that communion by ERNEST-AUGUSTUS of Brunſwick-Lunenburg-Hanover; that being one of the conditions, which the Emperor LEOPOLD demanded of him, when he honoured him with the electoral dignity. That Prince, moreover, engaged to admit of an apoſtolical vicar in his dominions, and to give him leave to reſide at Hanover; as SPIGA, who lately died at Francfort, did for many years. Divine ſervice is performed in this church as regularly as in a cathedral, and they who officiate in it are miſſionaries. The number of catholicks is very conſiderable, but few perſons of quality are of that communion, the nobility being all Lutherans.

When his Majeſty King GEORGE II. ſent for the Prince of Wales to England, he ordered the courtiers to continue their aſſemblies at the caſtle, and that his table ſhould always be ſerved in the ſame manner, as if he himſelf was at Hanover. His Majeſty keeps up the ſame number of gentlemen, pages, domeſticks, and guards, and the ſame of horſes, grooms, &c. in his ſtables. There is a French comedy acted three times a week at the palace, to which all people are admitted gratis; and there are frequently concerts, balls and aſſemblies.

Though the ſovereign is abſent, yet here are not wanting amuſements, there being many good families, and a number of amiable perſons.

The lovely counteſs of Delitz, niece to the Ducheſs of Kendal, could not fail of adorers, even in the moſt barbarous countries; for the charms of her mind are not inferior to the beauty, ſweetneſs, and gracefulneſs of her perſon.

No lady can have a better temper or behaviour than the baroneſs DE BULAU, daughter-in-law to the marſhal, and daughter to the late counteſs of Platen: her huſband is a worthy gentleman, and keeps a very good houſe.

The count de Platen, hereditary poſt-maſter general, is one of the richeſt ſubjects in the electorate, and one that ſpends the moſt money.

The ſituation of Hanover is very agreeable, and in its neighbourhood are ſeveral pretty ſeats. Among theſe, Herenhauſen (the houſe of the lord, or the maſter) is a caſtle, which was built by order of the Elector ERNEST-AUGUSTUS, the King's grandfather. This houſe, to which a ſtrait walk leads, bears no proportion to the magnificence of its gardens, which are undeniably ſome of the fineſt in all Europe; being particularly adorned with water-works, that throw the water up much higher than the famous fountain at St. Cloud, which was always looked upon as the moſt conſiderable of the kind.

Between Hanover and Herenhauſen there are two fine ſeats, of which one is called Fantaſie, i. e. the Whim; and the other Monbrillant, or Mount-pleaſant. They were built by two ſiſters-in-law, viz. madam DE KILMANSECK (who after her huſband's death, was by King GEORGE I. created counteſs of Arlington) and the counteſs of Platen. Theſe two houſes are a proof of the good taſte of thoſe ladies, who were really an honour to Germany for their beauty, good ſenſe, manners, and genius. They both died in their prime, a little time after one another; my lady Arlington in England, and the counteſs of Platen at Hanover, to which ſhe was not only an ornament, but a luſtre, according to the baron's notions.

BREMEN and VERDEN.

Bremen and Verden

THE duchy of Bremen is bounded by the river Elbe towards the north; by the territories of Lunenburgh towards the eaſt; by the river Weſer on the ſouth-weſt; and by the German Ocean towards the weſt; and is uſually ſubdivided into, 1. Verden, ſituate on the confines of Lunenburg. 2. Bremen Proper, containing the territories of the city of Bremen. 3. Wurſtland, ſituate on the ſea-coaſt from the Weſer to the mouth of the Elbe. 4. Hadelia, near the mouth of the Elbe, where ſtand the forts of Ritzenbuttle and New Werck, ſubject to the city of Hamburgh: another part of it, in which is the caſtle and town of Atterndorf, belongs to the duchy of Sax-Lawenburg. 5. Kedingerland, in which ſtands the town of Slade: and laſtly, Altland or Oldland. The country of Bremen in general is either a barren ſand, or a moraſs; though there are ſome fruitful meadows upon the banks of the Weſer and the Elbe. It was anciently ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Bremen; but being conquered by the Swede in his German wars, was confirmed to him by the treaty of Weſtphalia anno 1648, and the archbiſhoprick converted into a dukedom. Theſe territories the Danes acquired the poſſeſſion of in the late war; and by a treaty between Denmark and Brunſwick, transferred them to that Elector in conſideration of a ſum of money: they were afterwards confirmed to the houſe of Brunſwick by Sweden in the year 1720, (as hath been already related in the hiſtory of Denmark) Sweden being then under the utmoſt conſternation from the invaſion and ravages of the

The nature of the ſoil.

Muſcovites, and could only be relieved by the Britiſh fleet, which induced them to conſent to the diſmembring this duchy from their other dominions. Whether they will ever revive their claim to Bremen, time muſt ſhew; but I am ſorry to obſerve we are already obliged to purchaſe their friendſhip at a very high rate.

Bremen city.

Verden.

Stade.

Buxtchude

Rottenburg.

The chief towns of this duchy are, 1. Bremen, ſituate in a plain on the river Weſer, ſeventy miles north-weſt of Zell, and as many ſouth-weſt of Hamburgh, in the latitude of fifty-three degrees twenty minutes: it is ſtrong by nature as well as art, the whole country round it being eaſily laid under water by cutting the banks of the Weſer, which annually, like the Nile, it is ſaid, overflows it's banks, and enriches the ſandy ſoil about it. The harbour is not fit to receive large veſſels, the floods throwing up great banks of ſand, which render the navigation to Bremen very dangerous; for which reaſon the city hath a cuſtom-houſe ſix miles below it, where ſhips are unloaded, and the merchandize brought up in flat-bottomed veſſels. Before the Swedes took poſſeſſion of the country, Bremen was a free Imperial city, and one of the chief of the Hans-Towns, being very conſiderable for it's trade; but the Swedes beſieged it, and deprived them of many of their ancient privileges, which has probably occaſioned their trade to decline. The citizens are generally Calviniſts, but the Swedes reſerved the cathedral church for the Lutheran worſhip when they were in poſſeſſion of it. In it's flouriſhing ſtate it was governed by it's own magiſtrates, viz. four Burgomaſters, and twenty-four Ratſhera, or Senators, who were divided into four claſſes, one Burgomaſter and ſix Ratſhera being appointed to govern each quarter of the city. And here was one of the moſt celebrated univerſities in Germany. The commodities exported from Bremen are timber, wool and minerals; they have alſo an excellent way of dreſſing leather and cloth, which are therefore ſent from other countries to be manufactured here. The exporting fiſh caught in the ſea and Weſer, is another branch of their trade: within the very walls of the town, it is ſaid, many thouſands of ſalmon and lampreys are caught; and being ſmoke-dried or pickled, are exported abroad. 2. Verden, formerly a Biſhop's See, but ſecularized by the treaty of Weſtphalia, and made part of the new duchy of Bremen, ſtands about thirty miles to the eaſtward of Bremen, upon the river Aller, which falls into the Weſer. It has had the misfortune to ſuffer pretty much in the German wars; and is not at preſent thought conſiderable enough by travellers to deſerve a particular deſcription, though it be the capital of a ſmall territory which lies round about it. 3. Stade, anciently one of the Hans-Towns, ſituate on the river Zwinga near the Elbe, in a good air, about fifty miles north-eaſt of Bremen, and twenty-four weſt of Hamburgh: formerly reckoned a very ſtrong place, but was notwithſtanding taken by the Swedes in one day, anno 1645. It has a fort at the conjunction of the two rivers Zwinga and Elbe, which form a good harbour, and will admit of larger ſhips than that of Hamburgh; and therefore, according to ſome, ſtands more convenient for the German trade; and ſince Britain and Bremen are under one ſovereign, ſome projectors have propoſed the eſtabliſhing a trade between them, which would certainly be an advantage to his Majeſty's German dominions, if it could be effected, whatever it may be to Britain. But Harburg in Lunenburg, which ſtands cloſe to the Elbe over againſt Hamburgh, others have thought would make a more convenient mart: however, unleſs other nations could be brought into this project, it might be difficult to turn the current of trade from Hamburgh; and the Engliſh would give an advantage to their rivals in commerce by attempting it, if they ſhould not ſucceed. 4. Buxtchude, ſituate on the river Eſſe near the Elbe, fifteen miles weſt of Hamburgh, and as many eaſt from Stade, in one of the moſt pleaſant and fruitful countries in Germany, ſupplying Hamburgh with great part of it's proviſions. 5. Rottenburg, a little city on the river Wien, fifteen miles north of Verden; a place of ſome trade, and well inhabited. 6. Otterſburg, a little fortreſs, where the Archbiſhop had a palace, ſixteen miles eaſt of Bremen. 7. Rutzenbuttle, a ſtrong fortreſs at the mouth of the Elbe, belonging to the Hamburghers. And, 8. Bremerfurd, a walled town on the road from Bremen to Stade.

His Majeſty's German dominions.

Well ſituated for a foreign trade.

And thus I have taken a view of the circle of Lower Saxony, comprehending the duchies of Mecklenburg, Lawenburg, Holſtein, Brunſwick, Lunenburg, Bremen and Verden, (as to the biſhoprick of Hildeſheim, it is conſidered in another place) of which Lawenburg, the beſt part of Brunſwick, with Lunenburg, Bremen and Verden, are now ſubject to his Majeſty King GEORGE II. who has the abſolute dominion of them. And as theſe countries are contiguous and have the advantage of lying upon the German Ocean, and of being waſhed by the rivers Elbe and Weſer, the navigation of which they command; his German territories may be looked upon to be as conſiderable as thoſe of any Prince in Germany, eſpecially in point of trade, which the miniſtry on that ſide the water, it is preſumed, will take care to improve to the beſt advantage, as the Britiſh do theirs: this muſt in time render his Majeſty's German, as well as Britiſh ſubjects, a rich and flouriſhing people. We need only imitate our neighbours the Dutch in encouraging and ſupporting our merchants, and improving our fiſheries, and we ſhall never want a briſk trade, or mariners to man the royal fleet. On the contrary, ſhould we indolently loſe all the advantages of our ſituation, and let our neighbours run away with every valuable branch of commerce; we ſhall ſoon become a contemptible people both in peace and war, and poverty overſpread the face of the nation.

SUABIA.

CHAP. XVI.

Treats of the circle of Suabia, or Suevia; and herein of the duchy of Wirtemburg; the marquiſate of Baden; the Imperial cities of Augſburg, Ulm, &c.

Suabia circle.

The ſituation and extent.

SUABIA, Schwaben, or Suevia, is bounded by Franconia on the north, the duchy of Bavaria on the eaſt, the county of Tyrol, and the mountains of Switzerland on the ſouth, and by Alſatia on the weſt: being about an hundred and thirty miles from eaſt to weſt, and an hundred and ten from north to ſouth. But when the Romans were firſt acquainted with this part of the world, the bounds of Suevia, Dr. Ni-

Ancient Suevia, or Suabia.

Modern Suabia divided among ſeveral Princes and States.

CHOLSON obſerves, were much larger; for it extended northward beyond the Baltick Sea to the utmoſt limits of Sweden, and weſtward to the German Ocean; comprehending, according to TACITUS, fifty-four different tribes of the Suevians, among which the chief were the Hermunduri, Nariſci, Marcomanni, Quadi, Marſingi, Burii, Semnones, Lygii, Burgundiones, Gothones, Lemavii, or Heruli, Rugii, Carini, Longobardi, Deuringi, Cariones, Angli, Varini, Eudoſes, Suardones, Nuithones, Oſi, Gothini, and beyond the Baltick the Sitones and Suiones: from whence it is inferred, that Suevia and Germania were almoſt ſynonymous terms among the Romans to ſignify the ſame country; but afterwards the name of Suevi became appropriated to the Hermunduri, the moſt conſiderable of the Suevian nations, who fixed their ſeats in that part of Germany, now called Suabia or Schwabenland; and from a kingdom dwindled into a dukedom, after it was contracted into narrower bounds, and ſo continued for ſome ages. At preſent no Prince claims the whole, but it is ſhared among ſeveral petty ſovereigns. The Dukes of Wirtemburg have a greater part than any other: the Auſtrian family alſo have conſiderable territories here, as well as the Elector of Bavaria, and the Marquiſſes of Baden, and the Imperial cities claim the remainder. And firſt, of the territories of the Dukes of Wirtemburg.

Wirtemburg duchy.

Stutgard city.

Tubingen.

Retlingen.

Hailbron.

This duchy populous.

Produce of the ſoil.

The duchy of Wirtemburg is bounded by the palatinate of the Rhine and Franconia on the north, by the biſhoprick of Augſburg on the eaſt, by the principality of Furſtenburg towards the ſouth, and by Baden on the weſt, being about ſeventy miles in length, and about as much in breadth. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Stutgard, the capital of the duchy, and the Duke's uſual reſidence, ſituate near the banks of the Neckar, forty miles eaſt of Baden, and as many ſouth of Heidelburg. The Duke's palace is ſaid to be a noble ſtructure, and the gardens about it exceeding fine; but the private houſes of the citizens poor wooden buildings; the town is however much reſorted to on account of it's baths, famous for their healing qualities. 2. Tubingen, a well-built city, twenty miles to the ſouthward of Stutgard, at preſent moſt remarkable for it's univerſity, but according to tradition, was once the ſeat of the Emperor CARACALLA, who here entertained the Germans with publick games. 3. Retling, or Retlingen, an Imperial city under the protection of the Duke of Wirtemburg, ſituate in a plain twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Tubingen, of which I meet with no further deſcription. 4. Hailbron; or the fountain of health, ſo called from the virtues of it's medicinal waters: a free Imperial city, ſituate on the Neckar, in a pleaſant fruitful country, twenty-eight miles north of Stutgard; beſides which, it is ſaid, there are in this dukedom ſixty cities, an hundred and fifty great towns, ſix hundred and forty villages, and fourteen abbeys; and the country in general, travellers relate, abounds in every thing that can afford profit or pleaſure: vines flouriſh on their mountains, and their valleys are ſtocked with corn and cattle; the bowels of the earth are rich in mines, and their foreſts furniſh variety of game. The title of this Prince is Duke of Wirtemburg and Teck, Count of Montbelliard, Lord of Heidenham, &c. His office in the Empire is to carry the Imperial ſtandard, which is Or, a baton Sable pointed Argent, with a ſpread eagle Sable. He is alſo Great Huntſman of the Empire, and joint director of the circle of Suabia, with the Biſhop of Conſtance. The pedigree of this Prince will be found in the appendix, with thoſe of the reſt of the German Princes.

Government.

The Dukes of Wirtemburg have the privilege, it is ſaid, that there lies no appeal from their courts to the Imperial chamber; but there is a ſupreme court at Tubingen, conſiſting of five Gentlemen, four Doctors of civil law, and four Burghers, who finally determine all controverſies both civil and criminal: and a conſiſtory of the clergy, who are Proteſtants, that with ſome lay-aſſeſſors learned in the eccleſiaſtical laws, determine all cauſes proper for their cognizance. The right of primogeniture is eſtabliſhed in the family of Wirtemburg, as in the reſt of the Empire: the younger ſons having ſome ſmall appennages, and the daughters portions in money. The family is divided into ſeveral branches, viz. Wirtemburg, Stutgard, Neuſtadt, Montbeliard, Oels, Bernſtadt and Weilting, of which none have the privilege of ſitting in the Imperial Diets, but the Dukes of Stutgard and Montbeliard, who are both Proteſtants.

Baden marquiſate.

Situation and extent.

Baden city.

Durlach.

Stolhoffen.

Khiel.

Pfortzheim.

Baden Weiller.

The marquiſate of Baden is bounded by the Palatinate of the Rhine on the north, by the Black Foreſt on the eaſt, by Swiſſerland on the ſouth, and by the Rhine, which divides it from Alſatia, on the weſt: being about ninety miles in length from north to ſouth, but not above twenty in breadth in the wideſt part. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Baden, the capital of the marquiſate, which takes it's name from the multitude of hot baths about it, ſaid to amount to near three hundred; ſituate in the latitude of forty-eight degrees, fifty minutes, about five miles from the eaſtern bank of the Rhine, twenty-five miles ſouth of Heidelburg, and twenty north eaſt of Straſburg, upon a mountainous rocky ground, which renders the ſtreets very uneven. Theſe baths are ſcalding hot, and iſſuing from rocks of ſalt allum and brimſtone, taſte ſtrongly of thoſe minerals. One of them, called the Kettle, boils and bubbles up as if it ſtood over a hot furnace. Among other diſtempers, they are famous for curing the cramp and gout, on which account there is a great reſort of quality there annually from Germany during the whole ſummer. The only publick buildings here mentioned by travellers are, the Marquis's palace, and the caſtle built on an adjoining hill. 2. Durlach, ſituate at the foot of a mountain on the river Pfintz, twelve miles north of Baden, and twenty ſouth of Heidelburg, and gives a title to the Marquis of Baden Durlach, whoſe palace far exceeds that at Baden, being admired for the magnificence of the building. The ſtreets alſo are ſtrait and regular, and the private houſes ſtately and uniform. The library, and the coins and medals in the Marquis's cabinet are worth the viewing. 3. Stolhoffen, a little fortified town, naturally ſtrong by it's ſituation on a moraſs, lies five miles ſouth-weſt of Baden, and half a league from the Rhine, famous for the lines thrown up here for the defence of the Empire. 4. Khiel, ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, over againſt Straſburg, taken by the French in the late war, but reſtored to the Empire by the peace of Utrecht. 5. Pfortzheim, a ſmall city at the confluence of the rivers Ens and Neckar, twenty miles ſouth of Durlach, called anciently *Porta Hyrcinia*, being the entrance of the Black Foreſt, part of the Hercynian wood. 6. Baden Weiller, twelve miles ſouth of Briſac, where are ſeveral hot baths, but not equal to thoſe of Baden already mentioned. Hockburg, Rotel, Spanheim, Suſenberg and Muhlburg, have alſo been places of note on account of their caſtles or palaces which gave titles to ſome ancient Princes of the Empire, and are therefore ſtill recorded with the other titles of the Marquiſſes of Baden, but have nothing in them to deſerve a particular deſcription at this day: the caſtle of Raſtat however, which ſtands a little to the northward of Baden, ought to be remembered on account of the peace concluded there in the year 1714.

Soil and produce of the Marquiſate.

The Marquiſate of Baden is a populous fruitful country, abounding in corn and wine, and veniſon and wild fowl are ſo plentiful in their foreſts, that it is the ordinary food of the peaſants. The rivers Rhine, Ens, Wirmbz and Phintz, which water this country, alſo yield them plenty of fiſh; and they have woods of cheſnuts where they feed excellent bacon-hogs. Here are alſo quarries of marble of all colours, and free ſtone, with which materials the natives build handſom houſes at a ſmall expence. They have alſo ſome agate; and export great quantities of hemp and flax, which their country produces.

Branches of the houſe of Baden.

The houſe of Baden is divided into two branches, viz. thoſe of Baden-Baden and Baden-Dourlach. The territories of the Marquis of Baden-Baden are the upper marquiſate of Baden, part of the county of Eberſtein, half the county of Spanheim, the lordſhip of Uſenburg, the earldom and caſtle of Guntſburg, and the fort of Khiel. The territories of the Marquis of Baden-Dourlach are the lower marquiſate of Baden, the marquiſate of Hochberg, the landgravate of Suſenberg, the lordſhips of Baden-Weiler, Rotelin, Lahr and Muhlberg. Each of their titles are the ſame, viz. Marquis of Baden and Hochberg, Landgrave of Suſenberg, Count of Spanheim and Eberſtein, and Lord of Rotelin, Baden-Weiler, Lahr and Muhlberg. The Princes of Baden-Baden are Roman Catholicks, and thoſe of Baden-Dourlach Proteſtants. Their reſpective pedigrees and iſſue will be found in the appendix. I proceed next to the deſcription of the Imperial cities and other places in the circle of Suabia which have not been treated of already.

Augſburg city.

1. Augſburg, a free Imperial city, named *Auguſta Vindelicorum*, from AUGUSTUS CÆSAR, in whoſe reign the Romans planted a colony here amongſt the Vindelini, is ſituate in the latitude of forty-eight degrees, twenty-four minutes, near the confines of Bavaria, at the conflux of the rivers Lech and Wardar, ſixty miles ſouth-weſt of Ratiſbon, and twenty-five ſouth of Donawert. It is a large populous well-built city, eſteemed the capital of Suabia, furniſhed with many noble fountains, adorned with brazen ſtatues of ancient Heroes and Emperors, and ſome valuable monuments of antiquity. The cathedral, the town-hall, and the two arſenals, are magnificent buildings; and their hoſpitals much admired for their conveniency and large endowments, particularly that built by the family of the FUGGERS, Lords of the adjacent country, which contains an hundred and ſix houſes, making four croſs ſtreets, inhabited by poor people, who have annual penſions ſettled on them. The mechanicks, eſpecially the goldſmiths of this city, are excellent artiſts, and their work vended in ſeveral parts of Europe. There are more Lutherans than Papiſts in this town, who live in a tolerable good underſtanding, their poor being provided for in the ſame hoſpitals; and to avoid giving offence, it is ſaid, the Lutherans ſtand with their hats off when the hoſt paſſes by. There is no place where the citizens have ſuch a variety of habits as here, which are ſo regulated by the magiſtrates that every perſon's quality and religion may be known by their dreſs. Here it was that the Proteſtant Princes preſented their confeſſion of faith to the Emperor CHARLES V. in the Diet held anno 1530, from thence called the Augſburg confeſſion, which occaſioned a civil war in the Empire that laſted ſome years; but it was at length agreed at a Diet held in this city in the year 1555, that the Proteſtants ſhould enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion in the Empire. The magiſtracy of Augſburg have ſince been compoſed of about an equal number of Proteſtants and Papiſts, their ſenate conſiſting of twenty-three Roman Catholicks, and twenty-two Lutherans; and their Common Council of an hundred and fifty of each; the executive power being in the Senate, and the legiſlative authority in both bodies. The fortifications of this town do not appear to be very ſtrong, for the Duke of Bavaria took it in the year 1704, after a ſiege of thirteen days: and upon the loſs of the battle of Hochſtet the ſame year, he withdrew his gariſon out of the place, as not thinking it tenable, whereupon the citizens deſired the confederates to take them into their protection.

Ulm.

The next moſt conſiderable city in Suabia, is 2. Ulm, an Imperial city alſo ſituate on the Danube, where it unites with the Iller, and firſt becomes navigable for conſiderable veſſels, being about forty miles weſt of Augſburg. The town is large and populous, and regularly fortified; but what is moſt admired by travellers is the cathedral, not to be equalled in Germany, it is ſaid, but by that of Straſburg. Here are abundance of exquiſite mechanicks alſo, eſpecially in clock-work, and the town has a briſk trade with Bavaria and Auſtria, from whence they receive corn, ſalt and iron by the Danube; exporting linen-cloth and cottons in return. The government of this city is lodged in one and forty Aldermen, choſen out of the nobility and the principal burghers; and out of the nobility they annually elect two bailiffs, who preſide in their councils. The Reformation prevailed here about the year 1529, the magiſtrates at this day being all Lutherans, as are moſt of the inhabitants. The territories belonging to this city contain no leſs than forty bailiwicks and lordſhips, moſt of them purchaſed by the city of the neceſſitous nobility in their neighbourhood. Ulm was taken by the Duke of Bavaria in the year 1702, but he was obliged to quit it again ſoon after his defeat at Hochſtet in the year 1704, whereby the city recovered it's liberties again; but was miſerably ranſacked by that Duke while he was in poſſeſſion of it. 3. Bibrach, another ancient Imperial city, which ſtands on the river Ruſs, twenty miles ſouth of Ulm, in a fruitful valley encompaſſed with pleaſant fields and gardens; moſt remarkable for it's hot bath, which brings a great concourſe of people thither annually at the ſeaſon. The magiſtrates are one half Proteſtants and the other Papiſts, and the inhabitants a mixture of both. 4. Bucaw, a little Imperial city, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Bibrach; remarkable for it's nunnery, if it may be called ſuch, when all the nuns, except the Lady Abbeſs, have the liberty of marrying, and are all of noble families. This Abbeſs is one of thoſe who is a Princeſs of the

Bibrach.

Bucaw.

Empire, and has a vote in the Diet by her proxy.

Memminghen.

5. Memminghen, a large city on the river Bach, ſeventeen miles ſouth-eaſt of Bibrach; the inhabitants a mixture of Lutherans and Papiſts, whoſe principal trade is in linen, cotton and paper, the laſt eſteemed the beſt in Germany; but they come far ſhort of the French and Hollanders in the paper manufacture.

Leutkirk.

6. Leutkirk, a little neat Imperial city, on a ſmall river, twelve miles ſouth-weſt of Memminghen, a great thoroughfare from Italy to Germany; the magiſtrates and people being a mixture of Lutherans and Papiſts. They have a tolerable good trade in linen-cloth, corn and flax; and the citizens have the privilege of digging the mines which lie about the place.

Kempten.

7. Kempten, one of the moſt ancient cities of Germany, formerly the reſidence of the Dukes of Suabia, made Imperial by HENRY IV. who granted them the privilege of ſealing their inſtruments with the ſpread eagle of the Empire half Or, half Sable, crowned with the Imperial crown. It ſtands about fifteen miles ſouth of Memminghen on the ſame road from Italy; and the inhabitants being generally weavers, have a good trade in linen-cloth, as they have alſo in ſalt, which is brought from Tyrol and Switzerland hither, and vended in Germany.

Iſne.

9. Iſne, or Eiſna, ſituate on a little river of the ſame name, twelve miles to the ſouthward of Kempten, formerly a Roman colony, as appears by an old marble inſcription, purporting, that the highway between this city and Kempten was repaired by SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS and M. ANTONINUS. They have neither corn, wine or cattle in the neighbouring country, and ſeldom attempt to ſow any thing but beans, oats, rape-ſeed and flax; all other neceſſaries are imported from Italy, or other parts of Germany. It is, however, ſaid to be a flouriſhing town, and well built, having been burnt down in the laſt century.

Lindaw.

10. Lindaw, an Imperial city, ſtanding partly on the continent, and partly on an iſland in the lake of Conſtance, united by a ſtone bridge near three hundred paces long; remarkable for a nunnery governed by an Abbeſs who is a Princeſs of the Empire, and is Sovereign of the territories belonging to the nunnery. The nuns are all of noble families, and have the liberty of marrying. The city has a pleaſant healthful ſituation, and by the lake and the Rhine, which runs through it, has an opportunity of importing and exporting merchandize at very eaſy rates. The magiſtrates and moſt of the natives are Lutherans.

Bergentz.

11. Bergentz, or Bregentz, ſituate alſo on the lake of Conſtance, fives miles ſouth-eaſt of Lindaw, formerly a great city, and ſtill the capital of a county of the ſame name; but at preſent an inconſiderable town.

Ravenſpurg.

12. Ravenſpurg, or Gravenſpurg, twenty miles weſt of Leutkirk, and as much ſouth of Bucaw; a well-built Imperial city, ſtanding on a little river which falls into the lake of Conſtance. The town-hall, and ſome of their churches ſaid to be handſom ſtructures; and there is a watch-tower in the middle of the town with an inſcription on it, importing, that the old tower being blown down by a whirl-wind, the watchman who ſtood at the top of it to give notice of the time of the day or night once in three or four hours by a trumpet, as is the cuſtom in other German towns, received no hurt by the fall, though his wife and ſon were both killed.

Altorf.

13. Altorf, an ancient town two miles from Ravenſpurg, belonging to the houſe of Auſtria at preſent; but formerly had an Earl of it's own, from whom deſcended the ancient Dukes of Bavaria, and the preſent Dukes of Brunſwick; and here ſtood the ancient monaſtery and chapel of St. OSWALD, the burying place of the Guelphian family. Altorf is now the uſual reſidence of the Emperor's Lieutenant, or High Commiſſioner for Suabia, who here holds a court of judicature, and receives appeals from the Imperial cities in this Circle.

Wangen.

14. Wangen, a ſmall Imperial city, ten miles north-eaſt of Lindaw, whoſe trade is chiefly in flax and paper.

Conſtance.

15. Conſtance, or Coſtnitz, ſtiled by ſome the capital of the Imperial Suabia, ſituate on the ſouth-weſt part of the lake of the ſame name, in the latitude of forty-ſeven degrees ten minutes, eight miles eaſt of Uberlingen, and twelve weſt of Bucaw. The lake whereon it ſtands, now called Conſtance, or the Bodenſea, was anciently named *Lacus Brigantinus*, from the city Bregentz, above mentioned, ſituate upon it. This is the largeſt lake in Germany, extending one and twenty miles in length, and eight or ten in breadth, the country bordering upon it is frequently called Hegow. The Rhine, which runs through this lake, has ſo ſtrong a current, that it is ſaid it does not mix with the waters in it. The town of Conſtance is well built, populous, and finely ſituated, but not very large: it has a briſk trade from the conveniency of water-carriage along the lake and the Rhine. It retains ſtill ſome of the privileges of an Imperial city; but the Emperor took it at the reformation, and appointed them a governor, on account of their refuſing, as the reſt of the German cities did, to accept of the Interim, a ſcheme drawn up by himſelf, anno 1534, for reconciling the Roman Catholick and Lutheran principles. The Biſhop of this place is a Prince of the Empire, and one of the directors of the Circle of Suabia, but ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Mentz.

A Council held here. Three Popes at once.

The Emperor SIGISMUND called a council, in the year 1414, for preventing a ſchiſm in the church, on account of three Popes pretending to the infallible chair at the ſame time, viz. JOHN, ſet up by the Italians; GREGORY, by the French; and BENEDICT, by the Spaniards; who were all ſummoned to attend the council: however, none but JOHN appeared; and finding an inclination in the council to make him a priſoner he fled from the city; but being apprehended at Friburg, and brought back, he was depoſed, and committed to priſon. The ſame ſentence paſſed againſt the two abſent pretenders; and MARTIN V. was afterwards elected Pope; in which choice the Emperor and all Chriſtendom acquieſced.

Wickliff, John Huſs, &c. condemned by the council of Conſtance.

In the eighth ſeſſion of this council Dr. JOHN WICKLIFF of Oxford, and his doctrines, were condemned as heretical, and his bones ordered to be dug up and burnt, forty years after his death. In the fifteenth ſeſſion JOHN HUSS was condemned, and delivered over to the ſecular power to be burnt, though he had the Emperor's letters of ſafe-conduct. And the ſame ſentence paſſed upon JEROME of Prague, who was likewiſe burnt in the ſame city; and the natives ſtill ſhew the place to ſtrangers who viſit them. This council laſted four years, during which time it is obſerved, there were in this little city four Patriarchs, twenty-nine Cardinals, three hundred and forty-ſix Archbiſhops and Biſhops, five hundred and ſixty-four Abbots and Doctors, ten thouſand ſecular Princes and Noblemen, four hundred and fifty common Whores, and three hundred and twenty Fidlers,

Buchorn.

16. Buchorn, ſituate on the ſame lake, twelve miles north-weſt of Lindaw, ſo called from

Uberlingen.

Ratolſzell

from the woods of beeches near it, formerly ſubject to it's own Earl, but now part of the Auſtrian dominions, and made dependent on the city of Uberlingen. It is a ſmall city, but has a pretty good trade by means of the lake, their veſſels continually paſſing and repaſſing with merchandize between Suabia and Switzerland. 17. Uberlingen, a city on the Bodenſea, or lake of Conſtance, twenty-ſeven miles north-weſt of Lindaw, ſituate on the top of a rock, and ſurrounded with vineyards, whoſe ſituation ſeemed ſo pleaſant to the ancient Dukes of Suabia, that they made it their uſual reſidence. It has at preſent a pretty briſk trade, and is famous for it's mineral waters, which cure the ſtone and other diſtempers, and in twice or thrice waſhing take off all warts. The hoſpital in this town is the beſt endowed of any in Suabia; and the people ſo rich, that they contribute, it is ſaid, as much to the general charges of the Empire as many of the German Princes. 18. Ratolſzell, or *Cella Ratolſi*, which communicates it's name to that part of the lake called the Cellar-Sea, on which it is ſituated, ſubject at this day to the houſe of Auſtria.

Burgaw marquiſate.

Burgaw city.

Guntſburg

Beſides the principalities and towns already mentioned, I find the following are deemed part of the Circle of Suabia; 1. The marquiſate of Burgaw, lying on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, extending thirty miles in length, and as much in breadth, under the dominion of the houſe of Auſtria; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Burgaw, ſituate on the Mindel, twenty miles north-weſt of Augſburg. 2. Guntſburg, a ſmall city on the Danube, eight miles north-weſt of Burgaw, with a caſtle adjoining to it, where the Imperial Governor reſides.

Nellenburg landgravate and city.

2. The landgravate of Nellenburg, ſubject alſo to the Emperor, twenty-ſeven miles long and twelve broad, the chief town whereof is Nellenburg, twelve miles north-weſt of Uberlingen.

Hohenburg county and city.

Offenburg, &c.

3. The county of Hohenburg, ſituate between the duchy of Wirtemburg and the principality of Furſtenburg, about twenty-four miles long and twenty broad; the chief towns whereof are Hohenburg, Rotenburg, and Willengen, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria; and three Imperial or free cities near the Rhine, viz. Offenburg or Offingen, Zell, and Gongenback.

The Briſgow.

Friburg city.

Briſac city.

4. The Briſgow, ſubject alſo to the houſe of Auſtria, and lies near the Rhine, between Hohenburg and Furſtenburg; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Friburg, ſituate on a hill near the river Treiſem, at the entrance of the Black Foreſt, thirty miles ſouth of Straſburg, eſteemed a ſtrong place, and very populous. The mechanicks here are expert in poliſhing precious ſtones, found in Lorrain and the neighbouring countries. This town has been more than once taken by the French in the late wars; but ſurrendered to the Imperialiſts again by ſubſequent treaties, and particularly by the treaty of Baden, anno 1714, and is now ſubject to the Emperor. 2. Briſac, uſually called Old Briſac, to diſtinguiſh it from another town oppoſite to it on the weſtern ſide of the Rhine, which the French built ſome few years ſince, giving it the name of New Briſac. The town of Old Briſac is ſituated on the top of a round hill, on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, thirty miles to the ſouthward of Straſburg, and ten weſt of Friburg, reckoned a ſtrong place, but taken by the French in the year 1703, after thirteen days open trenches; it was however reſtored to the Emperor by the treaty of Baden, anno 1714, and now remains in his poſſeſſion.

Foreſt towns.

Rheinfeild.

Seckinghen.

Laufenburg.

Waldhuſt.

The four foreſt towns in Suabia alſo belong to the houſe of Auſtria, and are, 1. Rheinfeild, a ſmall city, having a bridge over the Rhine, twenty-eight miles ſouth of Briſac, and eight to the eaſtward of Baſle in Switzerland. 2. Seckinghen, in an iſland of the Rhine, eight miles eaſt of Rheinfeild. 3. Laufenburg, divided into two parts by the Rhine, ſituate ſeven miles eaſt of Seckinghen. And, 4. Waldhuſt, or Waldſhut, ſituate on the conflux of the Schult and Rhine.

Furſtemburg principality and city.

The principality of Furſtemburg extends ſeventy miles in length, lying on both ſides of the Danube, near it's ſource, but is very narrow; the chief town whereof is alſo named Furſtemburg, ſituate on the ſouth ſide of the river, twenty miles north of Schauffhauſen in Switzerland, and thirty-five eaſt of Briſac. The village of Tone Eſſingen, where the Danube riſes, is ſituate in this county. The Prince of Furſtemburg is a Count of the Empire, of a very ancient family.

The county and town of Sultz.

The county of Sultz is ſituate on the confines of Zurich and Schauffhauſen in Switzerland, the chief town whereof alſo is named Sultz, which gives the title of Count to the Prince of this county.

The county of Ems.

The county of Ems, which takes it's name from a caſtle near the Rhine, that gives title to a Count of the Empire, lies about ten miles to the ſouthward of Bregentz, being about ten miles long, and five broad.

The county of Montfort.

The county of Montfort, twelve miles long, and ſix broad, lies to the ſouthward of Ems, on the confines of St. Gall and Appenzel, and gives the title of Count to the family of Montfort.

Waldburg county.

The county of Waldburg lies ſouth of Ravenſpurg, extending twenty miles in length, and eighteen in breadth, comprehending the lordſhips of Walſee, Wurtzback, Friedburg, Sheer, and the fine caſtle of Waldburg, which gives a title to the family who are Princes of it.

Konigſeck.

The county of Konigſeck, which gives title to a Count of the ancient family of the Guelphs, lies to the north-weſt of Waldburg, the chief town whereof is of the ſame name, an open place, of which travellers give no further deſcription.

Kirkburg.

The county of Kirkburg, of which the town of Kirkburg is the capital, gives title alſo to a Count, and lies ſouthward of Ulm, being about eighteen miles long, and eight broad.

Mindelheim principality.

The principality of Mindelheim, ſituate in the Algow, between the biſhoprick of Augſburg and the abbacy of Kempten, eighteen miles long, and ten or fifteen broad, for the breadth is various, now gives the title of Prince to the family of Marlborough; with which the late Duke was honoured on the victory he obtained over the French at Hochſtet, and the heir of that family is thereby entitled to a ſeat in the Imperial Diet. The capital of this principality, which gives it's name to it, is an open town, ſituate eighteen miles north of Memminghen, and twenty-five ſouth of Augſburg.

Hohenzollern principality.

Heckingen city.

The principality of Hohenzollern, which derives it's name from the caſtle of Zollern, is ſituated between the principality of Furſtemburg and the duchy of Wirtemburg, thirty miles in length, and eight or ten in breadth, governed by it's own Prince, who is Chamberlain of the Empire, and Vicar to the Elector of Brandenburg in that office. The chief places are Heckingen, Hagerlach, Sigmaringen, and the caſtle of Zollern; of which the chief is Heckingen, a ſmall city, which lies between the Danube and the Neckar, eight miles ſouth of Tubingen.

Oetingen principality and town. Nordlingen city.

The principality of Oetingen lies between the marquiſate of Anſpach and the duchy of Newburg, and is near thirty miles long and eighteen broad, the chief places whereof are Oetingen, Allerheimb, Wallerſtein, Nordlinghen, Dunkelpihel, and Gingen, the principal whereof are, 1. Oetingen, ſituate on the river Wernitz, fifteen miles north-weſt of Donawert. 2. Nordlingen, a ſmall Imperial city, on the river Eyer, eight miles north of Blenheim, famous for two battles fought there in the years 1634 and 1646.

Lowenſtein.

The county of Lowenſtein lies near the river Neckar, whoſe Sovereign is a Count of the Palatine family.

Graveneck county and town. Eglingen town.

The county of Graveneck lies between the duchy of Wirtemburg, and the principality of Hohenzollern, and gives a title to a Count of the Empire, who is Sovereign of it. The chief places in it are Eglingen, a ſmall city near Nordlingen, and Graveneck, a large open town, defended by a caſtle, the uſual reſidence of the Count.

UPPER RHINE.

CHAP. XVIII.

Treats of the Circle of the Upper Rhine, comprehending the landgravates of Heſſe, Wetteravia, Alſatia, and the duchy of Lorrain.

CHAP. XVIII. Upper Rhine.

THE Circle of the Upper Rhine is uſually divided into three parts, viz. 1. The landgravates of Heſſe and the Wetterau. 2. The landgravate of Alſatia. And, 3. The duchy of Lorrain.

Heſſe landgravate. The ſituation and extent.

1. Haſſia, or Heſſe, is bounded by Brunſwick on the north; by Thuringia towards the eaſt; by the river Maine and Franconia on the ſouth; and by the biſhopricks of Mentz and Treves, and the Palatinate of the Rhine on the weſt; extending about an hundred miles from eaſt to weſt, and about as far from north to ſouth.

Air and ſoil. Mines. Religion.

The air of this country is cold, but healthful, and in ſome parts fruitful in corn and wine, eſpecially near the rivers Rhine and Lech. In their plains alſo are numerous flocks of ſheep, which yield the fineſt wood in Germany, which is bought up even by the Engliſh merchants, as equal if not preferable to their own; but great part of the country however is covered by woods and foreſts, eſpecially towards the north, which are well ſtock'd with deer, and all manner of game: and in their mountains are found mines of copper and lead that yield a conſiderable profit. This country is held to be anciently the ſeat of the Catti, mentioned by Tacitus in the firſt book of his annals. The Chriſtian religion was firſt planted here about the year 730, by WINEFRID, an Engliſh Saxon, who was afterwards advanced to the biſhoprick of Mentz. PHILIP the Magnanimous, who ſucceeded to the landgravate of Heſſe, anno 1509, eſtabliſhed the reformation according to LUTHER's model; and in the year 1530, he formed a confederacy of the Proteſtant Princes at Smalcald, for the defence of their religion, againſt the Emperor CHARLES V. from the place of the treaty called the Smalcaldick league. But the Proteſtant Princes had but ill ſucceſs in this war, the Duke of Saxony, as well as the Landgrave of Heſſe, being made priſoners, and obliged to ſubmit to ſuch terms as the Emperor thought fit to impoſe upon them. The Landgrave LEWIS, ſon of PHILLIP the Magnanimous, dying without iſſue, anno 1604, divided his territories between his two nephews MAURICE and LEWIS; and MAURICE having ſhewn an inclination to Calviniſm, he provided by his will, that if he ſhould endeavour any alteration of the eſtabliſhed religion in his territories, he ſhould be deprived of his ſhare in them. MAURICE nevertheleſs, ſoon after his uncle's death, obliged his ſubjects to embrace Calviniſm; whereupon LEWIS appealed to the Emperor, and procuring a decree againſt his brother, was put into poſſeſſion of the whole landgravate; whereupon Lutheraniſm was again eſtabliſhed, and continued ſo till AMELIA-ELIZABETH, mother and guardian to WILLIAM VI. having a great ſtanding army, compelled the natives of Heſſe to profeſs Calviniſm again, about the year 1666, as the greateſt part of this country do at preſent. High and Low Dutch are ſpoken indifferently in Heſſe, occaſioned by its ſituation between the Upper and Lower Saxony; for in the Upper Saxony High Dutch is ſpoken in the greateſt purity, and Low Dutch generally in the other.

Diviſion of the country.

Heſſe is divided into, 1. Heſſe Proper. And, 2. Veteravia, or the Weterau. In Heſſe Proper are, 1. The landgravate of Heſſe-Caſſel. 2. The landgravate of Heſſe-Darmſtat, and the territories belonging to the other branches of this family. 3. The county of Waldeck. 4. The territories of the abbeys of Fuld and Hirſchfield. 5. The county of Solms. 6. The Imperial cities of Weſtlar and Friedburg.

Chief towns. Caſſel. Marpurg. Darmſtat.

In Heſſe Proper the chief towns are, 1. Caſſel, the capital of Haſſia, the ſeat of the Landgrave or Prince, to whom it gives title, ſituate on the river Fulda, in a pleaſant fruitful plain, in the latitude of fifty-one degrees twenty minutes, forty miles ſouth-eaſt of Paderborn, and is ſuppoſed to ſtand in the place where DRUSUS built his *Caſtellum Cattorum*. It has at preſent four churches, the principal whereof is that of St. MARTIN, formerly the cathedral, in which are the monuments of the Landgraves, with their buſts in copper and marble. The ſtreets of this city are broad, and the market-places ſpacious, but moſt of the houſes are timber buildings. The citizens have a good trade, eſpecially of wool and woollen manufactures, and are very well ſupplied with proviſions of all kinds. The palace, which is ſeparated from the reſt of the town, is ſtrongly fortified, and may be called a citadel; it is admired for the many noble apartments within it, and the fine proſpect it has of the adjoining country, there being no leſs than ſixty large towns to be ſeen from its walls. 2. Marpurg, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Lohn, forty miles ſouth-weſt of Caſſel, and as many north-eaſt of Frankfort upon the Maine, a fortified town, and defended alſo by a caſtle. Here is held the ſupreme court of juſtice for all the natives of Caſſel, who may appeal from other juriſdictions to this, which conſiſts of a Preſident and ſix Aſſeſſors. Here is alſo a univerſity, one of the beſt in Germany, founded about the year 1426. 3. Darmſtat, the capital of the landgravate of that name, and the uſual reſidence of the Landgrave of Heſſe-Darmſtat, ſituate on a ſmall river, ten miles to the eaſtward of the Rhine, and fifteen ſouth of Frankfort on the Main; a ſmall, compact and well-built town, and the Landgrave's palace, a magnificent ſtructure, ſurrounded with a moſt elegant garden; beſides which, he has two other country ſeats, about two miles diſtant each from Darmſtat, either of them fit to entertain a Prince.

Catzenellebogen town and county.

4. The little town of Catzenellebogen, which communicates its name to a county on the banks of the Rhine, is ſituated ten miles eaſt of Naſſau, and twenty north-weſt of Mentz. The property of this town and county was long diſputed between the Earls of Naſſau and the Landgraves of Heſſe; but it was at length ſurrendered by WILLIAM of Naſſau to PHILIP Landgrave of Heſſe, at the treaty of Paſſau, in conſideration of ſixty thouſand crowns, though the family of Naſſau ſtill retain the title of Counts of Catzenellebogen.

Smalcald.

5. Smalcald, ſituate on a rivulet of the ſame name, fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Caſſel, a well-built town, and conſiderable for the iron-mines in the neighbourhood of it, which employ vaſt numbers of ſmiths and artificers in this town, the iron ware made here being vended all over the Empire. But what has rendered this town moſt famous is, the congreſs of the Proteſtant Princes, held here between the years 1530 and 1538, to form a confederacy for their mutual defence againſt the Emperor; in which they had ill ſucceſs at firſt, but at length procured the liberty of profeſſing the Lutheran religion in their reſpective territories.

Schwalbach.

6. Schwalbach, ten miles north of Mentz, famous for its baths, which, according to the accounts of them, cure almoſt every diſtemper; at leaſt they have obtained ſo great a reputation, as to draw great numbers of the German nobility and gentry hither annually at the ſeaſon. From one of the ſprings, the ſtreams of vitriol, ſulphur, and other minerals riſe with that force, that they will almoſt choak a perſon who holds his head over them; and though the waters ſeem to boil continually, they are ſo cold that the natives uſually cool their wine in them in ſummer. At certain times it throws up it's waters with that vehemency, that in a few minutes the fountain is emptied, and does not recover it's uſual quantity of water in ſome days after; which ſudden evacuation is ſaid to proceed from a violent eruption of ſubterraneous ſpirits, which ſometimes burſt out like a ſtorm of wind.

Embs.

7. Embs, another town famous for it's baths, impregnated with vitriol, allum, iron, and ſulphur, which cure the gout, ſhortneſs of breath, weakneſſes in the limbs, and a multitude of other diſtempers.

Rotenburg.

8. Rotenburg, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Fulda, thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Caſſel, conſiderable for it's collegiate church, conſiſting of a Dean, and twenty Canons, richly endowed.

Homburg. Alsfield.

9. Homburg, twenty-five miles ſouth of Caſſel, and twenty to the eaſtward of Rotenburg. 10. Alsfield, fifteen miles to the eaſt of Marpurg, one of the ancienteſt towns in Heſſe; but taken notice of for little at preſent but it's fine ſtadt-houſe.

Waldeck county and town.

The county of Waldeck, which geographers make a part of Heſſe, is bounded on the north by the biſhoprick of Paderborn; on the eaſt and ſouth by other provinces of Heſſe; and on the weſt by the territories of Cologn; being about twenty-four miles in breadth, and as much in length. It is ſufficiently fruitful in corn, and has wine enough for the uſe of the natives; ſome mines alſo they have, and plenty of ſheep and veniſon. The chief town whereof is Waldeck, ſituate on the top of high hill, thirty miles to the northward of Marpurg; other towns of any note in this county are Wildenburg, Corbach, and Eyenburg.

Heſſe, Prince of.

The houſe of Heſſe is divided into two principal branches, viz. thoſe of 1. The Landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel; and 2. The Landgrave of Heſſe Darmſtadt.

The Houſe of Heſſe Caſſe comprehends that of Heſſe Rhinfield, as that of Darmſtadt does that of Heſſe Homburg.

The preſent Landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, FREDERICK King of Sweden, was born the 16th of April 1676; knight of the order of the elephant and of the black eagle in 1705; made lieutenant general of the Dutch army in 1702; general of their horſe 1707; generaliſſimo both by land and ſea of the armies of the King of Sweden in 1717; Regent of the kingdom in his abſence, and King of Sweden on the reſignation of Queen ULRICA in 1720. He ſucceeded his father in the landgraviate of Heſſe Caſſel in 1730.

His firſt wife was LOUISA, daughter to the late King of Pruſſia, who died in 1705. His ſecond wife was ULRICA LEONORA, Princeſs royal of Sweden, and ſiſter and heireſs to King CHARLES XII. of that kingdom, to whom ſhe ſucceeded in 1718; but two years after ſhe reſigned the royal dignity to the Landgrave, to which the ſtates of the kingdom agreed. They have no children; and the King has lately reſigned the kingdom to the Queen again.

The Landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel's revenues are upwards of 120,000 l. per Annum. It is computed that he has between 40 and 50,000 men in his dominions able to bear arms. The 12,000 men we had in our pay for five years brought him in above a million of pounds.

The branches of Caſſel and Homburg are Calviniſts, Darmſtadt Lutherans, and Rheinfelds profeſſes the Roman catholick religion: the latter is not tolerated in the dominions of the other three Princes, except in the ſmall principality of Hirſchfeld.

Fuld abbey and territory.

The territories of the abby of Fuld, ſometimes called the country of Buchen, or Fagonia, lie to the northward of Hanau, and are about thirty miles in length, eſteemed a very rich country; the chief town whereof is Fuld, ſituate on a river of the ſame name, forty miles to the eaſtward of Marpurg; here is one of the nobleſt monaſteries in Europe, of the Benedictine Order, founded by St. BONIFACE, in the year 744, and endowed afterwards with large privileges by ſeveral Emperors. The Abbot is a Prince of the Empire, and takes place in all general Diets at the Emperor's feet; he is Lord both of the town and country about it, and Primate of all the Abbots in Germany, and depends immediately on the Pope. The great church dedicated to St. BONIFACE is eſteemed a magnificent ſtructure, and ſhews a great deal of the ancient architecture. They have among their antiquities three manuſcripts, containing the New Teſtament compleat; the four Evangeliſts diſtinct, and a treatiſe of the Trinity, which, according to tradition, were all written by St. BONIFACE. Other towns of any note in the territory of Fulda are Hamelburg, Bruckenau and Hunfield.

Hirſchfield abbey and territory.

The town and monaſtery of Hirſchfield ſtand twenty miles north of Fuld upon the ſame river. This convent was held to be one of the nobleſt ſtructures in the Empire. The territories belonging to it are about twelve miles long, and as many broad; but theſe, with the other revenues belonging to it, were at the reformation ſecularized, as it is called, and the Landgraves of Heſſe enjoy them as adminiſtrators of Hirſchfield to this day: for it ſeems at the reformation, when any temporal Prince ſeized on a biſhoprick or abbey in Germany, he called himſelf Adminiſtrator of it: and all the Proteſtant Princes confederating together, procured theſe eccleſiaſtical eſtates to be confirmed to them by ſubſequent treaties with the Emperor, and the Catholick Princes of the Empire.

Solms county and town.

Wetſlar.

Friedburg.

Ziegenheim, Hazfield, Frankenburg, &c.

The county of Solms, ſituate on the ſouth of Heſſe Marpurg, is ſubject to it's own Prince; the chief town whereof is of the ſame name, fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Marpurg: the caſtle of Brunsfield, fifteen miles to the ſouthward of Solms, being the uſual reſidence of the Count. The Imperial city of Wetſlar ſtands on the river Lohn, eighteen miles ſouth-weſt of Marpurg, and is remarkable for little, but the Imperial chamber's being removed hither after the French deſtroyed Spire; it is by ſome placed in Weteravia, as well as the Imperial city of Friedburg, which ſtands fifteen miles to the ſouth of Wetſlar, and twelve north of Francfort, at the foot of a ridge of hills, called De Hohe, a rich town of good trade; where ſome of the German Emperors have formerly reſided. The other towns of moſt note in Heſſe, are Ziegenheim, the capital of a little county of the ſame name; Hazfield, capital alſo of a county; Fritzlar, Frankenburg, Gieſſen, Granenburg, Nidden, Geraw, St. Goar, Wied, Sayn, Iſemburg, Rumkel, Eſchwege, Wilzenhauſen, Suntra and Geyſmar.

Veteravia, or the Weterau.

County and town of Hanau.

Budingen and Iſemburg.

Gelnhauſen.

I come next to that part of Heſſe which goes under the name of Veteravia, or the Weterau, which ſome reckon a diſtinct country from Heſſe, the Landgraves being Sovereigns but of very little of it. The name Weterau, is ſuppoſed to be derived from the river Wetter, which runs thro' part of the country, and it is bounded by Heſſe Proper on the north; the county of Reineck on the eaſt; by the river Maine on the ſouth; and by the Rhine on the weſt: being about an hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth. It yields both corn and wine, and is by ſome eſteemed one of the moſt fruitful countries of Germany; the counties of Hanau and Naſſau take up the greateſt part of it. The county of Hanau is bounded on the north and eaſt by the territories of the abby of Fuld, and by the dominions of the houſe of Naſſau towards the weſt, extending north-eaſt from the river Maine about forty miles, and is about fifteen in breadth, and governed by it's own Earl: the chief town whereof is Hanau, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Kuntz, ten miles to the eaſtward of Frankfort; the town is well-built and uniform, and has a very good trade, and the fortifications about it are after the modern way. 2. Budingen ſituate on the river Soam, five miles north of Hanau, a large city with a fine caſtle belonging to it, the capital of a county twenty miles long and eight broad, ſometimes called the county of Upper Iſemburg. 3. Gelnhauſen, an Imperial city, twelve miles north-eaſt of Hanau, a place of little trade at preſent, but before the civil wars in Germany of ſome reputation, being inhabited by many of the German nobility and gentry.

County of Naſſau.

Naſſau town.

Dillenburg.

Siegen.

Herborn.

Beilſtein.

Dietz.

Wiſbaden.

Hadamar.

The county of Naſſau, ſtrictly taken, is but of ſmall extent, but in the laſt age grew up into a conſiderable principality, by the acceſſion of the counties of Weilburg, Idſtein, Wiſbaden, Dillenburg, Beilſtein, Gleiburg, Siegen, and Hadamar, which together are uſually called the county of Naſſau-Catzenellebogen. The ſeveral diſtricts may be known, according to a late Writer, by their different ſoils and productions. Dietz, ſays he, is rocky and mountainous, and yields corn, wine, and veniſon. The county of Weſterwalt affords fat paſtures, and a large breed of cattle. In Siegen and Dillenburg they have mines of iron, lead, copper, and other metals. And at Frenduburg they make the greateſt part of the ſteel which furniſhes the German Empire. The chief towns belonging to the dominions of Naſſau, are, 1. Naſſau-Naſſovia, a little town and country, ſituate on the river Lohn, eight miles eaſt of the Rhine, and twelve ſouth-eaſt of Coblentz, heretofore the ſeat of the firſt branch of the family of Naſſau. 2. Dillenburg, which gives name to a county ſituate on the river Dilla, from whence it derives it's name, ſixteen miles weſt of Marpurg, defended by a caſtle which ſtands upon an adjoining hill, formerly the ſeat of the Counts of Dillenburg, a branch of the family of Naſſau; it is a town of ſome trade, which conſiſts in cattle and woollen manufactures. 3. Siegen, the capital alſo of a county, ſituate on a high rock, and regularly fortified, thirty miles north-eaſt of Naſſau, gives a title to another branch of this family; here is a univerſity, and an academy for training up young gentlemen in martial exerciſes, and a little diſtance from the city is a very good iron-mine. 4. Herborn, two or three Engliſh miles below Dillenburg, on the ſame river, an univerſity alſo, which has ſome few exhibitions for poor ſcholars ſettled on the diſſolution of monaſteries at the reformation: the citizens have a tolerable trade in woollen cloth, which is wrought here. 5. Beilſtein, an old town, which gives name to a county, and was the inheritance of a younger branch of the family of Naſſau, ſituate among rocks and mountains, about ten miles to the ſouth of Herborn. 6. Dietz, pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the Lohn, ten miles eaſt of Naſſau, the capital alſo of a county. 7. Wiſbaden, the capital of a county, ſituate five miles north of Mentz, and twenty ſouth-eaſt of Naſſau, not very large, but much frequented on account of it's baths. In theſe waters there may very ſenſibly be diſcerned by the taſte four minerals, as ſulphur, allom, ſalt, and ſalt-peter; the firſt of which is moſt predominant, and renders the waters as hot as any in Germany. 8. Hadamar, twenty miles north of Mentz, gives title to a Prince of the family of Naſſau. The other towns mentioned by travellers in Naſſau, are Idſtein, Weilburg, and Hager, but of theſe I meet with nothing particular. Having taken a view of the towns in Heſſe and Weteravia, it may be proper to enquire into the families of thoſe Princes to whom moſt of them are ſubject, and theſe are the Princes of Heſſe and the Princes of Naſſau.

Family of Heſſe-Caſſel.

The Princes of Heſſe anciently enjoyed no other title than that of Schelt-Graven, or the loweſt degree of Counts; the country of Heſſe being then part of the principality of Thuringia. LEWIS III. was firſt created Landgrave of Heſſe: PHILIP the Magnanimous of this family formed the Smalcaldick league above mentioned about the year 1537, being a confederacy of all the Proteſtant Princes of the Empire againſt the Emperor CHARLES V. CHARLES, the late Landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel was eſteemed a very brave Prince; he was a general in the confederate army in the war between the allies and France, in the reign of WILLIAM III. between whom and the Landgrave, there ſeemed to be very great intimacy. This Prince was born anno 1654, and married

Mary-Amelia, ſiſter to Casimir late Duke of Courland, anno 1673; by whom he had iſſue Frederick, the preſent Landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel and King of Sweden, and born anno 1676, and married 1699, to Sophia-Charlotte, daughter to the late Elector of Brandenburg; ſince whoſe death he married the Princeſs Ulrica Eleonora, now Queen of Sweden, anno, 1715, and at her requeſt was choſen King of Sweden, anno 1720, but has no iſſue either by his former conſort or this: He is the eldeſt branch of the houſe of Heſſe-Caſſel, who, next to the Brandenburger, have been the greateſt patrons of Calviniſm in the Empire; but upon his acceſſion to the throne of Sweden, he was compelled by the States to renounce Calviniſm, and ſwear to promote Lutheraniſm with equal zeal; and this I do not ſee many Princes of that perſuaſion ſcruple when there is a crown in view, tho' till intereſt open their eyes, they perſecute the Lutherans with as much paſſion as they would a Papiſt or an infidel: the territories poſſeſſed by this Prince are the lower landgravate of Heſſe, in which are Caſſel Zigenheim, and the lordſhip of Pleſs. 2. Marpurg in the upper landgravate. 3. The principality of Hirſchfield. 4. Part of the county of Catzenellebogen. 5. The county of Scawenburg. 6. Smalcald in the county of Henneburg. And 7. the bailiwicks of Rottenburg and Saxenhagen.

Heſſe Darmſtat.

Another branch of the houſe of Heſſe is that of the Langrave of Heſſe Darmſtat, a little inferior in point of territories to that of Heſſe Caſſel, for the preſent Landgrave of Heſſe Darmſtat poſſeſſes, 1. the upper landgravate in which are Gieſſen, Butzbach, Aendorff, Battenburg, Gleunda, Blamkerſtein, Frankenau, Gera, Grunburg, and Konigſburg. 2. The county of Nidda. 3. The lordſhip of Itter. 4. The upper part of the county of Catzenellebogen, in which lies Darmſtat. And 5. the county of Dietz.

Heſſe Rhinfield.

A third branch of the houſe of Heſſe is Rhinfield; this Prince poſſeſſes part of the lower county of Catzenellebogen, viz. Rhinfield, St. Goar and Gevernhauſen, the bailiwicks of Rechenburg, Floruſtein and Braubach, with Rottenberg and it's diſtrict.

Heſſe Homburg.

The fourth branch of this houſe, is that of Heſſe Homburg which poſſeſſes, 1. Homburg with it's territory. 2. Wevelingen and Helmſtadt with it's dependencies. And 3. Binghleim. There are ſtill ſome other branches, which will be found in the pedigree of the family of Heſſe in the appendix; I ſhall only take notice here, that the branch of Darmſtat are Lutherans, and that of Rhinfield, Papiſts; that of Homburg, as I take it, are Lutherans; as for the eldeſt branch of Heſſe Caſſel it has been already obſerved, that they have been for many years zealous Calviniſts till the preſent Prince thought fit to embrace Lutheraniſm, in order to mount the throne of Sweden.

Arms of Heſſe.

The arms of Heſſe Caſſel, and Heſſe Darmſtat are Azure a lyon, part Argent part Gules, for Heſſe. Or, a leopard, Gules armed and crowned, Azure for Catzenellebogen. Gules, two lions ſpotted like leopards languid and armed, Azure for Dietz.

The Family of Naſſau.

The family of Naſſau is agreed to be very ancient, and ſome are ſo zealous for it's antiquity, that they relate that two brothers of this family attended Cæſar in his conqueſt of Gaul; but however that be, credible hiſtorians give an account of one Otho of Naſſau made Earl of Guelderland in the year 1079. The late King William deſcended from another Otho, whoſe ſon Henry, about the year 1190, added Dillenburg, Wiſbaden and Idſtein, to the territories of his grandfather Walleran, which ſeems to be the ancient name of the family: Naſſau was the name of the caſtle or palace only where the eldeſt branch reſided. From William Walleran of the branch of Dillenburg, ſays a late writer, came the ſecond branch of Naſſau Orange, which ended in William III. King of England; and from him alſo proceeded John of Naſſau who eſtabliſhed the proteſtant Religion in his territories, and died anno 1606, from whom deſcended the preſent Prince of Naſſau Frieſland, whom the late King William left his heir; but I do not deſign here to give the entire pedigree of the Naſſaus, which will be found amongſt the reſt of the German Princes in the appendix, only it may be proper juſt to mention the moſt conſiderable branches of it now being, which are thoſe of Naſſau Dietz, Naſſau Dillenburg, Naſſau Hadamar, Naſſau Saarbruck, and Naſſau Siegen, the laſt of which are Papiſts.

Arms of Naſſau.

The arms of the princes of Naſſau, are, 1. Azure ſprinkled with billets, Or, a lyon of the ſame languid for Naſſau. 2. Or, a lyon gules crowned, and languid Argent for Catzenellebogen. 3. Gules, two lyons, or, leopard-wiſe for Dietz.

Orange Prince.

This houſe has formed three principal branches, thoſe of

I. Orange, extinct in King William III. of Great Britain.

II. Dillenburg, divided into the branches of,

1. Sigen, catholick and proteſtant.
2. Dillenburgh.
3. Dietz, which is called Naſſau Frieſland, or Orange.

(4. Hadamar, extinct in 1711.)

III. Saarbruck, divided into the families of the counts of Idſtein, Weilburgh, Ottweiler, and Uſingen.

The Prince of Naſſau-Dietz, Frieſland, or Orange.

William-Charles-Henry-Friso, born the 21ſt of Auguſt 1711. He married Anne, Princeſs Royal of Great Britain, on the 14th of March 1734. She was delivered after a long dangerous labour of a Princeſs, who died in the birth: the corps was preſenly laid on a bed of ſtate, and ordered to reſt there three days for the view of the people; it was afterwards carried to Delft, and there interred in the burying-place of the family.

The Prince's father was,

John-William-Friso, born in 1687, Prince of Naſſau-Dietz, Stadtholder of the two provinces of Frieſland and Groningen, and one of the Dutch generals in the late war: he died in 1711. He married a daughter of the late Landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, by whom he had theſe two children.

1. Charlotte-Amelia, born the 2d of October 1710; in 1727, married to the hereditary Prince of Baden-Durlach. He died in 1732, leaving only one ſon.

2. The Prince of Orange.

I come next to deſcribe the landgravate of Alſatia, another part of the circle of the Upper Rhine; as to the Palatinate, though part of it be deemed within this circle, yet as much the greater part is comprehended within the circle of the Lower Rhine, I chooſe to deſcribe it all together when I come to that circle, rather than diſmember the territories belonging to the Palatinate.

Alſatia. Name.

Alſatia, or Elſaſs, is ſuppoſed to derive its name from the river Ell, which runs through it, though Sherringham ſuppoſes this to be a part of the territories of the ancient Saxons, and to be called Edelſaſſen, as the richeſt and pleaſanteſt country the Saxons were maſters of; the fruitfulneſs of the ſoil giving ſome colour for this opinion.

Situation and extent.

It is bounded by the county Palatine of the Rhine on the north, by the circle of Suabia, from which it is ſeparated by the river Rhine on the eaſt, by Swiſſerland on the ſouth, and by the dutchy of Lorrain on the weſt; and has been contended for by the French and Germans for an age paſt with the utmoſt fury; but is now entirely under the dominion of the French. As I have deſcribed the bounds of the Briſgow, and ſome other territories on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, which were heretofore look'd upon as part of Alſace; but as late treaties of peace have made the Rhine the boundary between France and the Empire, it ſeems much better to treat of the territories on each ſide of the Rhine as diſtinct provinces: the extent of this country from north to ſouth is about an hundred miles, and the breadth at a medium about twenty five, tho' in ſome places it is leſs, and at others it is more than thirty.

Alſatia.

The ſoil is exceeding rich, producing plenty of corn and wine. Their hills are covered with cheſnut groves, and afford alſo great quantities of copper, lead, and other minerals, and the meadows and paſtures are ſcarcely to be equalled; add to which the agreeableneſs of the climate, and the temperature of the air, with the conveniency of the river Rhine, which runs the whole length of it, and it will not ſeem altogether unworthy of the blood and treaſure which have been ſpent in the long wars between the Empire and France, the one to defend their poſſeſſion, and the other to make a conqueſt of it. The whole country is uſually divided into the Upper and Lower Alſace. The chief towns in the Lower Alſace are,

Straſburg, or Argentoratum.

1. Straſburg, *olim Argentoratum*, pleaſantly ſituated in the middle of a plain, at the conflux of the rivers Ill and Breuſch, which a mile below fall into the Rhine, lying in the latitude of forty-eight degrees forty minutes, and near eight degrees of longitude to the eaſtward of London, a free Imperial city, till it was treacherouſly ſurprized by the French King in the year 1682. The trade of this place was great and flouriſhing, and the people enjoy'd the free exerciſe of their religion, which was generally Lutheran, till it fell into the hands of France; but with their liberties their trade is much declined; ſcarce any thing is improved of late but the fortifications, which the French have made as fine as poſſible, it being the moſt conſiderable frontier town they have on the ſide of the Empire. The town is of a large circumference, and ſo well built, that my author ſays the houſes of the magiſtrates and merchants are fit to entertain Princes; and over the rivers which run through it are laid many handſome bridges. It is a Biſhop's See, ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Mentz. Upon the reformation the Biſhops and Canons were expelled, and the Roman Cotholicks had only one little church left them: but when it fell into the hands of the French, Popery, with the Biſhops and Canons, were reſtored, after they had been diſpoſſeſs'd upwards of an hundred years, though, as I have been inform'd, the French do ſtill tolerate the Proteſtant religion here. Travellers who paſs through this city admire the contrivance of their publick granaries, ſtore-houſes, wine-cellars, ſtadt-houſe, arſenal and cathedral, the laſt of which is eſteem'd one of the wonders of Germany, and deſcribed at large in a treatiſe on purpoſe, by Os. Schadæus, anno 1617. The height of the tower is four hundred eighty-nine feet, and eight juncles of admirable workmanſhip, and has a pair of folding-gates of braſs at the weſt-end; but what is moſt admired is the great clock, wherein is a celeſtial globe, with all the motions of the planets, fixed ſtars, &c. behind which there is a perpetual almanack, wherein the day of the month is pointed at by a ſtatue ſtanding by. The hours are crow'd by a cock, and afterwards ſtruck on a bell by an Angel; not far from which ſtands another Angel with an hour-glaſs in his hand, which turns round as ſoon as the clock has done ſtriking. The firſt quarter is ſtruck by a child with an apple, the ſecond by a young man with an arrow, the third by a full-aged man with a tip-ſtaff, and the fourth by an old man with his cane. On the out-ſide of the church are ſhewn the increaſe and decreaſe of the moon, with the motion of the ſun through all the ſigns of the zodiack, and a multitude of other curioſities, which may be ſeen at large in the treatiſe above-mention'd. An univerſity was founded here by the Proteſtant magiſtrates about the year 1538, on which the Emperor Ferdinand II conferr'd many great privileges and immunities. A late writer obſerves, that the women of this place are exceeding handſome, but as remarkable for their odd fantaſtical dreſſes as for their beauty.

By the laſt treaty of peace at Raſtat, concluded anno 1714, and by ſeveral former treaties, Straſburg is confirm'd to France by the Emperor; but then it is thereby provided that Fort Keihl, erected by the French on the other ſide of the Rhine, at the end of the bridge of Straſburg, ſhall be yielded up to the Empire; and as to the Fort of Pile, and others erected in the iſlands of the Rhine near Straſburg, that they ſhould be entirely razed, and never be re-eſtabliſhed by either party for the future, and that the navigation and uſe of the river Rhine ſhould remain free and open for the ſubjects of either ſide.

Zabern.

2. Zabern, or Savern Elſas, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from another Zabern in the Palatinate, fifteen miles north-weſt of Straſburg, of which I meet with no other deſcription than that it is defended by a ſtrong caſtle ſituate on the top of an adjoining rock, where the Biſhops of Straſburg uſed to hold their courts.

Haguenau

3. Haguenau, a ſtrong town, ſituate ten miles to the weſtward of the Rhine, and fourteen north of Straſburg, formerly a free Imperial city, but taken by the French, and ſince confirm'd to them by the peace of Weſtphalia and other ſubſequent treaties.

Fort Lewis.

4. Fort Lewis, ſituate ten miles eaſt of Haguenau, on an iſland in the Rhine, almoſt over againſt Baden, built by Lewis XIV, and confirm'd to him by treaties with the Emperor, particularly by the laſt treaty of Raſtat anno 1714.

Weiſſemburg.

5. Weiſſemburg, formerly an Imperial city, but now alſo ſubject to the French, ſituate on the river Lutra, ten miles weſt of the Rhine, and ſixteen north of Haguenau.

Landau.

6. Landau, ſituate on the Quiech, ten miles north-eaſt of Weiſſemburg, on the confines of the Palatinate, and formerly reckon'd a part of it. The fortifications of this town are as fine as the nature of the ground will admit, and the conſequence of poſſeſſing it eſteem'd ſo conſiderable both

Druſenheim.

both by France and the Empire, that it was taken and retaken five or ſix times during the laſt war, with a vaſt expence of blood and treaſure. The French laſt made themſelves maſters of it on the 20th of Auguſt N. S. anno 1713, after about two months open trenches, the Germans being in no condition to relieve it after they had ſeparated from their allies; and the place was confirmed to the French by the enſuing treaty of peace at Raſtat. Tho' I don't doubt, if ever there ſhould happen a rupture between France and Germany again, or the Germans ſhould meet with a favourable conjuncture, they would endeavour the recovery not only of Landau, but of Straſburg, and all the other ſtrong towns in Alſace; for when Princes are forced by the neceſſity of their affairs, as they term it, to give up and diſmember part of their territories, they ſeem to think however that their rights can never be extinguiſhed by ſuch forced ceſſions, and make no manner of ſcruple of repoſſeſſing them again, whenever an opportunity offers. 7. Druſenheim, ſituate near the Rhine, about eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Haguenau, remarkable for little but the ruins of an old fort, which it is ſuppoſed DRUSUS built here to prevent the incurſions of the Germans. The other towns of any note in Lower Alſace are, Moltzheim, Roſenheim, Benfield and Schelſtat, of which I meet with nothing particular.

Colmar.

New Briſac.

Murback.

Mulhauſen.

Hunningen.

Pfird.

Keiſerburg, &c.

The towns in the Upper Alſace, ſo ſtyled from it's lying higher up the Rhine than the other, are, 1. Colmar, once a flouriſhing Imperial city, but almoſt ruined in the wars between France and Germany, and yielded to the French by the treaty of Munſter. It ſtands about eight miles weſt of Briſac, and thirty ſouth of Straſburg; and here the French eſtabliſhed their ſovereign council for Alſace. It is ſuppoſed to have been built out of the ruins of the ancient *Argentuaria*, conquered by the Emperor GRATIAN anno 378, and afterwards deſtroyed by ATTILA the Hun. 2. New Briſac, a fortreſs erected by LEWIS XIV, on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, over againſt Old Briſac. 3. Murback, remarkable for it's fine abbey, at the foot of the mountains which ſeparate Alſace from Lorrain, fourteen miles ſouth-weſt of Colmar. 4. Mulhauſen, an Imperial city, fifteen miles ſouth of Colmar. 5. Hunningen, a ſtrong fortreſs, built by LEWIS XIV, on the Rhine, half a league below Baſil. 6. Pfird, or Ferett, a ſmall city, the capital of the diſtrict of Suntgow, thirty miles ſouth of Colmar, and ten weſt of Baſil, confirmed to the French by the treaty of Weſtphalia. Other towns of any note in the Upper Alſace are, Keiſerburg, Turcheim, Munſter, Euſiſheim and Befort, or Betfort.

Lorrain Dutchy.

Situation and extent

The duchy of Lorrain, the remaining part of the circle of the Upper Rhine, is bounded by the duchy of Luxemburg towards the north; by Alſatia, the duchy of Deuxponts, and the Palatinate on the eaſt; by Franche Compte on the ſouth; and by Champagne on the weſt; extending from forty-eight to forty-nine degrees, fifty minutes north latitude, and is upwards of an hundred miles in length, and about as much in breadth. The air of Lorrain is healthful and temperate, but the country is pretty much incumbered with mountains and foreſts, particularly by the mountains of Vauge, which ſeparate it from Alſace and Burgundy, and the famous foreſt of Ardenne. The ſoil in other parts is rich and fruitful, affording plenty of corn, wine and good paſture, in their hills alſo are found mines of ſilver, copper, lead and iron, but moſt iron; and their ſalt-ſprings are ſo numerous, that it is ſaid the Duke draws a revenue of two hundred thouſand crowns per annum from them. The principal rivers are, 1. The Maes, or Meuſe. 2. The Moſelle. 3. The Sar. 4. The Meurte. 5. The Soame. 6. The Selle. 7. The Voloy. And, 8. The Maidon.

Diviſion of the country.

Lorrain is uſually divided into three parts, viz. 1. Lorrain Proper. 2. The duchy of Bar, or Bar-le-Duc. And, 3. French Lorrain and Bar, which conſiſts chiefly in the biſhopricks of Metz, Toul and Verdun.

The name.

The name of Lorrain is ſaid to be derived from LOTHARIUS, ſecond ſon of the Emperor LOTHARIUS, and formerly King of this country, from thence called *Lot-reich* by the Dutch, and *Lot-reigne* by the French, by an eaſy tranſition converted into Lorrain. It was anciently reckoned a part of Belgium, and the firſt inhabitants we have any account of were the *Medionatrici*, ſince when it has been alternately ſubject to France and the Empire, being ſometimes reckoned a province of the one, and ſometimes a province of the other; but as the Duke of Lorrain is a Prince of the Empire, and the duchy uſually eſteemed part of the circle of the Upper Rhine, I chuſe to deſcribe it with the reſt of Germany, eſpecially ſince the French have been obliged by the treaty of Ryſwick, anno 1697, to reſtore the greateſt part of it to it's proper Sovereign.

Character of the natives.

The natives, as they lie in the neighbourhood of France, imitate the faſhions of that country, and ſcarce ſpeak any other language. They are naturally brave, of robuſt conſtitutions, and eſteemed to have good natural parts, but more addicted to drinking than their neighbours the French, tho' not ſo much as ſome other provinces of Germany.

Lorrain Proper. Chief towns. Nancy city.

St. Nicholas.

Lorrain Proper is ſubdivided into the bailiwicks of, 1. Nancy. 2. Vauge. 3. Vander-Vange. And 4. The re-united countries in the bailiwick of Nancy, the chief towns are, 1. Nancy, the capital of the whole duchy, ſituate in a large plain near the river Meurte, in forty-eight degrees forty-five minutes north latitude; ſix degrees to the eaſtward of London, thirty miles ſouth of Metz and ſixty to the weſtward of Straſburg, divided into the Old or Upper Town, and the New or Lower Town. In the Old Town is the Duke's palace, the entrance whereof is very magnificent, and leads into a noble court, ſurrounded with a piazza, and adorned with ſtatues; and the gardens about it are exceeding fine. The New Town is much larger than the Old and better built: it has a handſom ſquare, in which three large ſtreets center, and in this part of the town are the ſtadt-houſe, the courts of juſtice, ſeveral good churches and monaſteries, and a fine college of the Jeſuits. The town was admirably well fortified after the modern way while the French were maſters of it, but upon their relinquiſhing it at the treaty of Ryſwick, the fortifications were agreed to be demoliſhed. It was taken by the French King, LEWIS XIII. in the year 1633, and with the reſt of the duchy remained in the poſſeſſion of France moſt part of the laſt century; when they made it the ſeat of one of their parliaments, and eſtabliſhed a chamber of accounts, and a ſeneſchal's court here; as in their other conquered provinces. 2. St. Nicholas, a large open town, ſituate on the river Meurte, ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Nancy, whither vaſt crowds of pilgrims reſort to pay their devotions to NICHOLAS the Saint of

Roſiers. Chateau Salins. Luneville. Nomeny. Vaudemont. Blamont, &c.

the place, who according to tradition was Biſhop of Myra in Lycia, and a great oppoſer of the Arian hereſy at the council of Nice. 3. Roſiers, on the Meurte, twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Nancy, conſiderable for the ſalt ſprings about it. 4. Chateau Salins, ſituate on the Selle, conſiderable alſo for it's ſalt ſprings. 5. Luneville, a pleaſant town, ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Roſiers. 6. Nomeny, on the Selle, honoured with the title of a marquiſate. 7. Vaudemont, an open town, the capital of a principality of the ſame name, uſually given as an appennage to a younger ſon of the houſe of Lorrain. The other towns of moſt note in the bailiwick of Nancy, are, Blamont, capital of a county of the ſame name, Moyenwick on the river Selle, and Vezeliſe.

Vauge Bailiwick.

In the bailiwick of Vauge the chief towns are, 1. Mirecourt, ſituate on the Maidon, not far from the foot of Mount Vauge, twenty miles and upwards ſouth-weſt of Nancy. 2. Neufchattel, ſituate on the Maes near the confines of Champaign. 3. Remiremount, ſituate on the Moſelle, at the foot of Mount Vauge, between forty and fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Nancy, remarkable for an abby of ladies who have the liberty of quitting their convent and marrying, except the Lady abbeſs, who is veſted with the temporal as well as ſpiritual juriſdiction of the town and country about it. All the Ladies on their admiſſion are required to prove their nobility for four deſcents. The other towns of any note in the bailiwick of Vauge are, Charms, Eſpinal, St. Diey, Roan and Fontenay.

Vander-Vange Bailiwick and town. Bitch.

In the bailiwick of Vander-Vange the chief towns are, 1. Vandervange, ſituate on the Sar, thirty miles north-eaſt of Metz, 2. Bitch a little town on the frontiers of Alſatia, the capital of a county of the ſame name.

Saverden. Homburg.

The chief towns in the re-united country are, 1. Saverden, ſituate on the frontiers of Alſace, and gives a title to a county, ſituate between forty and fifty miles north-eaſt of Nancy. 2. Homburg, a city and caſtle the capital of the county of Sarbruck, ſixty miles north-eaſt of Nancy, formerly poſſeſſed by a branch of the family of Naſſau, to which it gave a title.

Bar Duchy. Bar-le-duc City. Ligny. Comercy. Damiris.

Ever ſince the year 1473, the duchy of Bar has been united to that of Lorrain, and is divided into four bailiwicks, viz. 1. Bar. 2. Baſigne. 3. St. Michael, and 4. Clermont. The chief towns in the bailiwick of Bar are, 1. Bar-le-duc, the capital of the country, ſituate on a riſing ground on the banks of the river Ornain, about forty miles weſt of Nancy, a handſom well-built city, with a collegiate church and ſeminary for ſtudents, and had a ſeneſchal's court and chamber of accounts erected here while it was ſubject to the French. 2. Ligny, eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Bar le-duc. 3. Comercy, ſituate on the Maes, the capital of a principality ſubject to the Prince of Lillebone of the family of Lorrain, twenty-five miles weſt of Nancy. 4. Damiris on the Seaux, five miles ſouth-weſt of Ligny.

LaMothe. Gondrecourt.

In the bailiwick of Baſſignie the chief towns are, 1. Mothe, built upon a rock, thirty-three miles ſouth of Nancy. And, 2. Gondrecourt, ſituate on the river Ornay.

St. Michael. Pont-a-mouſſon. Hatton.

In the bailiwick of St. Michael the chief towns are, 1. St. Michael, ſituate on the Maes, twenty-ſeven miles weſt of Nancy, remarkable for a fine monaſtery of the order of St. BENNET. 2. Pont-a-mouſſon, the capital of a marquiſate of the ſame name, ſituate on the Moſelle, twelve miles north-weſt of Nancy, an open handſom town, and has the advantage of a univerſity, and profeſſors in all ſciences, with two conſiderable abbies, and ſeveral magnificent churches. 3. Hatton le Chattel, fifteen miles north-weſt of Pontamouſſon, the capital of a ſmall territory which has the title of a marquiſate.

Clermont. Varenne.

In the bailiwick of Clermont the chief towns are, 1. Clermont, ſituate on the river Ayr, the capital of a county. And, 2. Varenne, ſituate on the ſame river.

French Lorrain. Chief towns. Metz.

In French Lorrain, which comprehends the three biſhopricks of Metz, Toul and Verdun, the chief towns are, 1. Metz, the capital of French Lorrain, ſituate at the conflux of the Moſelle and Selle, twenty-five miles north of Nancy, formerly an Imperial city, but reduced to the obedience of France anno 1552, and confirmed to the French King by the treaty of Munſter anno 1648. It is a large wealthy city, and fortified after the modern way; the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Triers. The cathedral is an ancient venerable pile of building, in which they have a font of porphyry one entire ſtone ten feet long: the town conſiſts of ſixteen pariſhes, ſeven nunneries, and ſeveral other monaſteries, being about nine miles in circumference. The Proteſtants alſo had their churches formerly here, and a ſhare in the government; but the Roman Catholick is now the eſtabliſhed religion of the place, and the Proteſtants barely tolerated. There are ſeveral arches and other Roman antiquities ſtill remaining about this city.

Saar-Lewis.

2. Saar-Lewis, ſituate twenty-five miles north-eaſt of Metz, a ſtrong fortreſs erected by LEWIS XIV, anno 1680, and confirmed to him afterwards by the treaty of Ryſwick.

Toul. Vaucouleurs. Arque, Joan of.

The chief town in the biſhoprick of Toul is of the ſame name, ſituate ten miles to the weſtward of Nancy, the Biſhop whereof is ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Triers, and bears the title of Count. It is a large place, but has no other fortifications than a ſingle wall. 2. Vaucouleurs, a ſmall city on the Maes, near which ſtands the village of Arque, where the famous JOAN of Arque, or maid of Orleans was born, who revived the drooping courage of the French when the Engliſh had almoſt made a conqueſt of their country.

Verdun.

Verdun, the capital of the biſhoprick of the ſame name, is ſituate on the Maes, thirty miles weſt of Metz, whoſe Biſhop has alſo the title of Count of Verdun, and Prince of the Empire. The place is tolerably well fortified.

French Bar. Chief towns. Stenay. Jamets.

In that part of Bar which is ſubject to the French the chief towns are, 1. Stenay, capital of the country, ſituate on the Maes, ſixteen miles north-weſt of Verdun, the fortifications whereof have been put into a good condition ſince the French made themſelves maſters of it. And, 2. Jamets, a little fortified town ſituate on the frontiers of Luxemburg, between Stenay and Damvilliers.

Duke of Lorrain's titles. Territories.

The titles of the Duke of Lorrain are, Duke of Lorrain and Mercœure, Duke of Calabria, Bar and Guelderland; Marquiſs of Pont-a-mouſſon and Nomeny; Count of Provence, Vaudemont, Blamond, Zutphen, Saar Werden, and Salm. His dominions are, 1. The duchy of Lorrain. 2. The duchy of Bar. 3. The marquiſate of Point-a-mouſſon. 4. The counties of Blackenburg, Falkenſtein, Donnerberg, Clermont and Bielſtein. The provoſtſhip of Kummelſberg and of Hattonſburg, and the county of Salm.

Younger branches of this family.

The younger branches of this family are, the Prince of Vaudemont, the Prince of Elbœuf, and the counts of Harcourt.

Arms.

The arms of Lorrain are, Or a bend Gules charged with three larks Argent: but according to others, with three allerions, which are, in blazon, ſmall birds without feet.

The eldeſt branch of the family.

The laſt Duke of Lorrain was **CHARLES LEOPOLD**, born in the year 1643, who being kept out of his dominions by the French, as his brother and predeceſſor had been, was made General of the Emperor's forces againſt France and Turky. He had ſuch ſucceſs in the Turkiſh war, that he raiſed the ſiege of Vienna, and recovered a vaſt extent of country from the infidels. He married **ELEONORA-MARIA**, ſiſter to the late Emperor **LEOPOLD**, and widow of **MICHAEL WIESNOWISKI**, King of Poland; and died the 18th of April, 1690, leaving three ſons, the eldeſt of whom, **LEOPOLD-JOSEPH-CHARLES**, the preſent Duke, had his dominions reſtored to him at the treaty of Ryſwick, anno 1697, except what is denominated the French Lorrain and Bar above deſcribed; and the French King before he relinquiſhed the reſt, cauſed the fortifications of Nancy, and every other ſtrong place belonging to the Duke to be demoliſhed. He reſerved alſo to himſelf a liberty of marching his troops thro' Lorrain to Alſace whenever he ſaw fit. So that the preſent Duke, though his country be reſtored him, lies entirely at the mercy of the French, and was obliged to ſtand neuter in the laſt war, whatever inclination he might have to the cauſe of the allies. The Duke is abſolute in his dominions, unleſs the French think fit to control him; and tho' he be a Prince of the Empire, I do not find his country is liable to contribute to the general charges of the Empire, or that it is ſubject to its laws, any more than the electorates of Brandenburg and Saxony are. The religion eſtabliſhed in this duchy is the Roman Catholick. The reſt of the pedigree of the Dukes of Lorrain will be found in the appendix, with thoſe of the other German Princes. The preſent Duke ſeems to be much careſſed at the court of Vienna, and it is ſaid one of the preſent Emperor's daughters is intended for him, which will entitle him to the hereditary dominions of the houſe of Auſtria, and give him a fair opportunity of ſtanding candidate for the Imperial throne, if the Emperor ſhould die without male iſſue.

LOWER RHINE.

CHAP. XVIII.

Treats of the circle of the Lower Rhine, in which is comprehended the Palatinate of the Rhine, and the arch-biſhopricks of Mentz, Triers and Cologn.

The Palatinate of the Rhine. Its ſituation and extent.

THE Palatinate of the Rhine, in which I include the biſhopricks of Spire and Worms, and the duchy of Zweibruggen or Deuxponts, is bounded by the archbiſhopricks of Mentz and Triers on the north; by Franconia and Suabia on the eaſt; and by Alſatia and Lorrain towards the ſouth and weſt: being upwards of an hundred miles in length from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and from fifty to ſeventy in breadth; ſtiled the Lower Palatinate, to diſtinguiſh it from the Upper and Bavarian Palatinate already deſcribed.

The air and ſoil.

The air, the ſoil, and noble rivers which water this country, all contribute to render it one of the richeſt and pleaſanteſt provinces of the Empire; only unhappy in being ſo deſirable as to incite the ambition of the neighbouring powers to become maſters of it; which has in the laſt age frequently rendered it a ſcene of blood and miſery; moſt of its fine towns have been demoliſhed, and the diſtreſſed natives driven out of the country to make room for the hungry French, or other neceſſitous adventurers. The hills in the Palatinate, ſays a late Writer, are covered with vines, which yield that rich liquor known in other parts of Europe by the name of Rheniſh wine. Their valleys afford plenty of all manner of grain and fruits, and deer and other game abound in their foreſts. The rivers Rhine and Neckar yield them fiſh in abundance, and their hills want neither metals or other minerals; and they have the convenience of water-carriage, and of tranſporting their merchandize every way by means of their navigable rivers.

Religion.

The religion of the Palatinate, ſays Dr. **NICHOLSON**, has been exceedingly changed and varied ſince the firſt introducing of Lutheraniſm by Count **FREDERICK II**; for **FREDERICK III** ſet up the doctrine and diſcipline of **JOHN CALVIN**. **LODOWICK V** expelled Calviniſm, and reſtored the doctrine of **LUTHER**. His ſon **FREDERICK IV** brought the Calviniſts once more into play, to oblige his avaritious miniſters chiefly, who propoſed to raiſe their fortunes by ſacrilegiouſly ſeizing on the tythes and glebe, and other poor remainders of the church's patrimony; by which means, Dr. **HEYLIN** obſerves, the clergy being reduced to miſerable ſhort ſtipends, under the name of a competency, became ſo contemptible and neglected by all ſorts of men, that at laſt the church of the Palatinate was reduced to the ſame condition as the church of Iſrael was under **JEROBOAM**, when the prieſts were made out of the meaneſt of the people: and as a church brought into theſe ſtraits was not like to be very durable, we find the Papiſts every day gained ground upon them till the idolatry and ſuperſtition of the church of Rome was again eſtabliſhed, and the nobility and gentry who had ſeized on the lands of the church were forced to reſign their ill-acquired poſſeſſions to Popiſh Prieſts and Jeſuits. The Proteſtant religion is now ſcarce tolerated in the Palatinate, though the generality of the natives are of this perſuaſion; and what is moſt to be lamented is, that in every peace that has been made the laſt forty years, the Proteſtants have given up their unhappy perſecuted brethren, and conſented to confirm and eſtabliſh Popery in this and many other countries, where the Proteſtant religion was not long before triumphant.

Chief towns. Heidelburg.

The chief towns in the Palatinate are, 1. Heidelburg, or *Eidelburga*, ſituate in a fruitful plain on the river Neckar, at the foot of a mountain, forty miles ſouth of Frankfort, and twelve north-eaſt of Spire, in the latitude of forty-nine degrees twenty minutes. The name is ſaid to be derived from a ſhrub reſembling myrtle, called by the Germans *Heidelbeeren*, which grows on the hills about the city. It is encompaſſed with mountains on every ſide, except towards the weſt, which way it has a good proſpect over a large pleaſant plain. The town is neither large nor very populous, conſiſting chiefly of one handſom ſtreet, and a ſpacious uniform market-place. The Elector's palace, which ſtands on the aſcent of the hill Konigſtul, and overlooks the town, is a magnificent fabrick; and not far from it is a fortified tower, hardly to be parallel'd for it's height in the Empire. It was formerly called *Trutzkayſer*, or a defiance to the Emperor; but ſince the reſtauration of the Elector Palatine, it has obtained the name of the Star-Fort, from ſome new works round it in form of a ſtar. Another curioſity which all travellers who viſit this country are full of, is a monſtrous wine-fat, generally called the Tun of Heidelburg, which ſtands in an out-houſe near the palace, and was built by the Elector CHARLES-LODOWICK, anno 1664, and contains two hundred tuns of Engliſh meaſure. Inſtead of hoops, it is encompaſſed with large trees of knee-timber, like the ribs of a ſhip, which have ſeveral inſcriptions painted and carved upon them, and are ſupported by carved pedeſtals. On one ſide of the veſſel there is a handſom ſtair-caſe, leading to the top, into a gallery ſet round with balliſters, three and forty ſteps from the ground. Nor is this the only town in Germany, as has been obſerved already, where we meet with tuns, or wine-fats, of an uncommon ſize, carved and gilded, which ſeem to be built more for ornament than uſe; which I take to proceed, not only from the veneration the Germans have for the generous juice theſe veſſels contain, but to ſhew that this is one of the moſt profitable branches of their trade in the provinces near the Rhine and Danube. The univerſity of this city was founded by Count RUPERT, about the year 1387, and has produced many valuable men. The Elector's library which was kept in the great church dedicated to the Holy Ghoſt, was eſteemed one of the beſt in Europe, both for the choice and number of books, great part of it having been compoſed of the libraries of the monaſtery of Sponheim and other religious houſes, plundered at the reformation; among which were many valuable manuſcripts in the Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Chaldean, Arabic, Indian, Ruſſian, Tartarian, Italian, French, German and Bohemian languages: but as many other places had been robbed to make this glorious collection, ſo the Spaniſh and Bavarian forces at the taking of Heidelburg in the year 1622, after the unfortunate Palatine, ſtiled King of Bohemia, was defeated, trod under foot, and deſtroyed ſome part of them, and the reſt were conveyed over the Alps to the Vatican, or to the Imperial library at Vienna. This unhappy city was alſo taken and plundered by the French in the year 1683, and again in the year 1692, when they almoſt entirely demoliſhed it, committing the moſt unheard of barbarities on the miſerable inhabitants; and thoſe who ſurvived were driven from their dwellings with their families to ſtarve in the open fields. What could induce the French to be guilty of theſe cruelties I can't conceive, unleſs they hoped to force the Elector to abandon his allies, or to expreſs their implacable malice to the natives, on account of their religion, moſt of them being Proteſtants.

Manheim. Franken-dal. Altzheim. Creutſnach. Keiſar Lautern. Sintſheim. Oppenheim. Traerbach. Newſtadt.

2. Manheim, ſituate near the confluence of the Rhine and Neckar, twelve miles north-weſt of Heidelburg, formerly eſteemed a ſtrong town until burnt by the French in 1688, and the fortifications demoliſhed; here the Elector lately erected a magnificent palace, and made it his uſual reſidence. 3. Frankendal, twenty miles weſt of Heidelburg, once a flouriſhing city, but taken and burnt alſo by the French in the year 1689. 4. Altzheim, anciently the reſidence of the Elector, twenty five miles north-weſt of Frankendal. 5. Creutſnach, a good town, ſituate on a hill near the river Naſie, eighteen miles north-weſt of Altzheim, under the joint dominion of the Elector, the Marquis of Baden, and the Prince of Simmerin. 6. Keiſar Lautern, ſituate on the river Lautern, thirty miles ſouth of Creutſnach, a ſmall city formerly Imperial, but now ſubject to the Elector. 7. Sintſheim, a ſmall city twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Heidelburg, where Marſhal TURENNE obtained a ſignal victory over the Imperialiſts, anno 1674. 8. Oppenheim, ſituate on a hill on the banks of the Rhine, formerly an Imperial town, but now ſubject to the Elector, about ten miles ſouth of Mentz, deſtroyed alſo by the French in the year 1693. 9. Traerbach, a ſtrong fortreſs on the Moſelle, taken by the French in the year 1702, but reſtored to the Elector by the laſt peace. Other towns of any note in the Palatinate are Newſtadt, Bacharach and Eberinburg.

Spire biſhoprick. Spire city. Philipſburg. Spirebach

The biſhoprick of Spire lies on both ſides the Rhine, ſurrounded by the territories of the Elector Palatine, extending about forty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about fifteen in breadth from north to ſouth; the chief town whereof is Spire, an Imperial city, ſtanding in a plain on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, where the ſmall river Spierbach falls into it, about twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Heidelburg, and eight miles north of Philipſburg; the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Mentz; 'tis a large populous town, but not ſtrong enough to ſuſtain a ſiege. The French burnt it down to the ground, with a great many other places in the neighbourhood in the year 1689. Here the ſovereign court of juſtice for the Empire, called the Imperial chamber, was held 'till removed to Wetzlar on the deſtruction of this place. To this court there lies an appeal from any Prince's court in the Empire, and the Electors themſelves in ſome caſes may be ſummoned to appear there. 2. Philipſburg, or Udenheim, a little ſtrong town ſituate in a moraſs on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine at the mouth of the river Salta, ten miles to the ſouthward of Spire, a place frequently taken and retaken during the late wars; relinquiſhed by the French, with the other places in the Palatinate, by the peace of Raſtat. Other towns of any note in this biſhoprick are Spirebach, Bruxal, Weibſtat and Altrip.

Worms biſhoprick. Worms city. Ladenburg.

The biſhoprick of Worms lies alſo on both ſides the Rhine, to the northwards of the biſhoprick of Spire, being of a very ſmall extent, viz. about eight miles in length and two in breadth, conſiderably leſſened at the reformation, by the Elector Palatine's ſeizing part of the territories which belonged to it; the chief town whereof is Worms, an Imperial city on the weſt bank of the Rhine, twenty five miles north of Spire, a large flouriſhing town, 'till the French almoſt deſtroyed it in the year 1693. It is ſince great part of it rebuilt, but there are ſtill, as formerly, large void ſpaces within the walls planted with vines, which yield two or three thouſand hogſheads of excellent wine annually. The inhabitants are a mixture of Papiſts and Lutherans, but the Papiſts are poſſeſt of the cathedral and moſt of the churches. 2. Ladenburg, a ſmall pleaſant city, under the joint dominion of the Elector Palatine and the Biſhop of Worms.

Deuxponts duchy and city.

The duchy of Zweibruggen, or Deuxponts, is ſurrounded by other parts of the Palatinate on the eaſt, north, and ſouth, and bounded by Lorrain on the weſt, being forty miles in length from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, and in breadth twenty five in ſome places, and in other places nine or ten; the chief town whereof is Deuxponts, forty miles ſouth-weſt of Worms; a little well-built city, ſo named from the bridges over two little rivers whereon it ſtands. The crown of Sweden enjoyed this duchy until the death of the late King CHARLES XII; on whoſe death without iſſue, it devolved on a Prince of the Palatine family. The duchy of Deuxponts contains the five following bailiwicks, viz. 1. Zweibruggen. 2. Meizenteim. 3. Lichtemburg. 4. Newcaſtle. 5. Landſperg, with part of Guttenburg and Biſchweiler.

Religion in Deuxponts.

Calviniſm was generally profeſſed in the duchy of Deuxponts, 'till the Swedes became poſſeſſed of it, and then Lutheraniſm began to flouriſh; the King of Sweden giving ſome of the beſt livings and preferments to the Lutheran clergy, which created great animoſities between the diſciples of both perſuaſions: but the late King of Sweden dying without iſſue, and that duchy devolving upon a Roman Catholick Prince, his Proteſtant ſubjects thought fit to unite and drop their party-quarrels, leſt they ſhould give an opportunity to their common enemies the Papiſts, to make an advantage by them; and I find there has been ſeveral projects ſet on foot by the King of Pruſſia, the Landgrave of Heſſe, and other Proteſtant Princes of the Empire, for a comprehenſion or union of the Proteſtants of all perſuaſions, that they may be a match for the Roman Catholicks; but the Lutheran clergy are apprehenſive that theſe Princes deſign at bottom only to eſtabliſh Calviniſm throughout Germany, which they look upon with almoſt as much deteſtation as they do Popery.

Simmeren duchy and town.

The duchy of Simmeren in the Palatinate was heretofore governed by it's own Prince, but is now ſubject to the Elector Palatine; the chief town whereof is of the ſame name, ſituate thirty miles to the weſtward of Mentz in the lower county of Spanheim.

Birkenfield town and duchy

Birkenfield, with the territory about it, alſo enjoys the title of a duchy, and is ſituate in the upper county of Spanheim, twenty eight miles to the eaſtward of Triers.

Lauterach. Leningen, Rhingraveſtein, Veldentz, &c.

The other towns of any note in the Palatinate are Lauterach, ſituate on the river Lauter, forty miles weſt of Worms; Leningen, capital of the county of Linage, twenty miles north-weſt of Spire; Rhingraveſtein, thirty miles north-weſt of Worms; Veldentz, capital of a county of the ſame name, twenty miles weſt of Simmeren; and Reipoltzkirk, the capital alſo of a ſmall county thirty miles weſt of Worms.

Titles and territories of the Elector Palatine.

The countries which belong to the Elector Palatine, are the greateſt part of the Lower Palatinate, the bailiwick of Boechelheim, the duchies of Juliers and Berg, the city of Duſſeldrop, and the lordſhip of Ravenſtein: his titles are Count Palatine of the Rhine, Arch-Steward and Elector of the holy Roman Empire, Duke of Bavaria, Juliers, Cleves and Berg, Count of Veldentz, Spanheim, Marck, Ravenſperg and Meurs, Lord of Ravenſtein, &c.

His Arms.

His arms for the Palatinate are, a Lion Or, drawn armed langued and crowned Or, a Lion Sable for Juliers. Gules, an Eſcutcheon Argent with rays of a carbuncle knotted, Or, for Cleves. Argent, a Lion Gules, armed and crowned Azure for Berg.

The Palatine family.

I ſhall here go no higher in the pedigree of the Palatine family than FREDERICK III. who ſucceeded to the electorate on the death of OTHO without iſſue, anno 1559. This FREDERICK Duke of Simmeren was deſcended from STEPHEN Palatine of Deuxponts or Zweibruggen; he firſt introduced Calviniſm into the Palatinate, and dying, anno 1576, was ſucceeded by his ſon LEWIS V. who was as much devoted to Lutheraniſm as his father to Calviniſm. FREDERICK the 4th ſon of LEWIS V. ſucceeded his father anno 1583, and dying in the year 1610, left his dominions to FREDERICK V. who married the Princeſs ELIZABETH, daughter of JAMES I. King of Great-Britain, who accepting the crown of Bohemia, to which the Emperor FERDINAND was before elected, he was attacked both by the Emperor and Spain; and being defeated at the battle of Prague, anno 1620, he loſt not only the Bohemian crown, but was proſcribed by the Emperor and the Electoral College, and deprived of all his own hereditary territories and dignities, and forced to fly for refuge with his conſort the Princeſs ELIZABETH into Holland. The Lower Palatinate was conquered by the King of Spain, and aſſigned over to him; and the Upper Palatinate, with the Electoral dignity, conferred on the Duke of Bavaria, General of the Imperial forces in this war. This unfortunate Prince died at Mentz the 29th of November 1632, having been for ſome years ſubſiſted with his family by the court of England. His ſon CHARLES-LODOWICK had the Lower Palatinate reſtored to him by the treaty of Weſtphalia; but the Upper Palatinate, with the dignity of Elector, was confirmed to the Duke of Bavaria: the Palatine, however, was made an eighth Elector, and dying the 28th of Auguſt 1680, was ſucceeded by his ſon CHARLES-LEWIS, who dying without iſſue, in him ended the male line of FREDERICK III. PHILIP-WILLIAM Duke of Newburg ſucceeded to the Lower Palatinate and the eighth Electorate, anno 1688: he deſcended from LEWIS the Black, brother of FREDERICK III. Duke of Simmeren, both ſons of STEPHEN the younger ſon of RUPERT III. Emperor of Germany: he was of the Roman Catholick communion, and exceeding zealous that way, which gave his ſubjects of the Palatinate, who were moſt of them Proteſtants, a very gloomy proſpect. He married ELIZABETH daughter of GEORGE Landgrave of Heſſe, by whom he had iſſue the Princeſs ELEONORA-MAGDALENA THERESA, who was married to the Emperor LEOPOLD, anno 1676. The Palatinate being invaded by LEWIS XIV. in the year 1688, the old Prince reſigned the government to his ſon JOSEPH, as better able to defend his territories; but the French notwithſtanding the next year, anno 1689, burnt to the ground Heidelburg, Worms, Spire, Oppenheim, and Manheim, with all the towns, villages and caſtles in this fine country, not ſparing any thing ſacred or prophane, which could be demoliſhed by fire or gunpowder, and then were forced to abandon it.

The laſt Elector JOHN-WILLIAM-JOSEPH-IGNATIUS, was born the 19th of April 1658, and ſucceeded his father the ſecond of September 1690. In the year 1678, he married MARY-ANNE-JOSEPH, daughter to the Emperor FERDINAND III. who dying ſome years after, he married anno 1686, ANNE-MARY-LOUISE, daughter to COSMUS III. Great Duke of Tuſcany, and left no iſſue by either of them; but had no leſs than ſeventeen brothers and ſiſters, of whom the following ſurvived him, viz. 1. The late Em-

The preſent Elector.

preſs mother. 2. Prince CHARLES-PHILIP of Newburg, the preſent Elector born the fourth of November 1661. 3. FRANCIS-SIGISMUND Biſhop of Augſburg, born anno 1663. FRANCIS-LEWIS, Great Maſter of the Teutonick Order, and Elector of Triers, born anno 1664. 5. The Queen Dowager of Spain, relict of CHARLES II. born anno 1667. 6. The Ducheſs of Parma, born in 1670; and, 7. The Princeſs AMELIA married to Prince JAMES SOBIESKI, ſon to JOHN King of Poland. The late Elector was generally acknowledged to be a good Prince, but too much bigotted to the Roman communion, of which he was a member; ſuffering his Proteſtant ſubjects to be inſulted and ill uſed by the Roman zealots: but no Prince was more firm to the confederacy againſt France, or a greater ſufferer on that account; and to make him ſome amends upon the proſcription of the Duke of Bavaria, the Upper Palatinate was conferred upon him, but by the peace of Raſtat, he was obliged to relinquiſh it again to Bavaria, being promiſed an equivalent for it; but I don't find any has been yet made to him or his brother and ſucceſſor the preſent Elector CHARLES-PHILIP, who ſucceeded to the electorate on the 8th of June 1716, and has had three wives, viz. LOUISA-CHARLOTTE daughter of BOGISLAUS Prince of Radzevil, and widow of LEWIS Margrave of Brandenburg. 2. THERESA-CATHERINA, daughter of JOSEPH Prince of Lubomirſki. 3. BENEDICTA-ERNESTA-MARIA d'Eſte, daughter of the Duke of Modena; by none of whom has he any iſſue living, except one daughter married to her couſin the Prince of Sultzbach; and the electoral dignity will, on the death of the preſent Elector, devolve on his brother the Biſhop of Augſburg; but as he is an eccleſiaſtical perſon, and uncapable of marrying without a diſpenſation, it will go next to his other brother the Archbiſhop and Elector of Triers; who having alſo taken the vow of celibacy, the Prince of Sultzbach is not unlikely to ſucceed to the Palatinate, being next in blood: but as this Prince has yet no iſſue, I find the Proteſtants in great hopes that the Palatinate with the electoral dignity, will devolve on the Prince of Birkenfelt, a zealous Proteſtant, who is next in ſucceſſion to the houſe of Sultzbach. The court of Rome, 'tis ſaid, is ſo apprehenſive of this, that they have tried all imaginable ways to perſuade the Elector to marry again, and not having met with ſucceſs here, are endeavouring to prevail with his brothers, though eccleſiaſticks, to enter into the ſtate of matrimony: for ſhould the Palatinate deſcend to a Proteſtant, the whole Palatinate would be in ſome danger of renouncing the Roman communion. Notwithſtanding the preſent Elector is a Papiſt, and charged with perſecuting and oppreſſing his Proteſtant ſubjects, it is computed that there are ſtill five parts in ſeven of them of that perſuaſion: which leads me to give a further account of the preſent ſtate of religion in the Palatinate, and of the late differences between this Prince and his ſubjects on that head.

The ſtate of religion in the Palatinate.

The great church of the Holy Ghoſt at Heidelburg, had for many years been divided between the Papiſts and Calviniſts; the Papiſts celebrated Maſs in the choir, and the Calviniſts heard divine ſervice in the nave, or body of the church; but the Elector alledging that this city being the place of his reſidence, divine ſervice ought to be performed in the principal church, according to the rites of that religion only, of which he was a member; prohibited the Proteſtants to celebrate divine ſervice in the church of the Holy Ghoſt, and actually put the Roman Catholicks in the poſſeſſion of the whole. Whereupon the Reformed applied themſelves to the Proteſtant Powers to procure a redreſs of this grievance; at which the Elector was ſo exaſperated, that he publiſhed a placaert, requiring the magiſtracy to ſeize on and ſuppreſs the Heidelburg catechiſm, wherein he obſerved there were ſome queſtions and anſwers injurious to his Highneſs, and contrary to the decrees of the Empire, eſpecially where the Elector's religion is repreſented as ſuperſtitious and idolatrous.

The Proteſtant Powers hereupon unanimouſly agreed to demand ſatisfaction for this infringement of the treaty of Weſtphalia, which eſtabliſhed the Proteſtant religion in places where it was profeſſed; and the courts of Great Britain, Pruſſia, the States-General, &c. each of them ſent a miniſter to the Palatine court, to repreſent the injuſtice of this proceeding. To whom his Electoral Highneſs anſwered, that he allowed his Reformed ſubjects to enjoy his protection, and was far from diſturbing them in their liberty of conſcience, but that the 80th queſtion and anſwer of the Heidelburg catechiſm, reflecting on the ſuperſtition and idolatry of thoſe of his communion, could not be looked upon as a ſymbol or principle of religion; that it was added to that catechiſm in 1684, and that the rejection of that queſtion was founded on the conſtitutions of the Empire, which prohibited all reflections and provocations of this nature; that the taking of the church of the Holy Ghoſt from the Reformed was of abſolute neceſſity, becauſe thoſe of his communion had not room to celebrate maſs in the choir; and that his Electoral Highneſs was building the Reformed another church more commodious for them; that in theſe two points he had done nothing contrary to the conſtitutions of the Empire, or the treaty of Weſtphalia, which his Electoral Highneſs would religiouſly obſerve; that he ſhould juſtify himſelf before the Emperor and Empire, who were the only judges in things of this nature; and that he would order the other grievances of his Reformed ſubjects to be inquired into, and redreſſed in ſuch a manner, as they ſhould no longer have any juſt cauſe of complaint.

To this the miniſters of the Proteſtant Powers replied, that they could not believe their reiterated repreſentations in the name of their maſters had been reported with due weight to his Electoral Highneſs, or his commiſſaries would not have treated on ſo weighty an affair in ſo trifling a manner: they agreed with them, that the Emperor and Empire are the only judges of the laws they have made; but when foreign Powers are concerned in a treaty, they alſo claim a right of interpreting them; that they looked upon the prohibition of the Heidelburg catechiſm, the ſeizing the church of the Holy Ghoſt, and ſeveral other things which had paſſed of late years in the Palatinate, as manifeſt infractions of the treaties they were obliged to maintain.

While the Proteſtant Princes were ſolliciting a redreſs of the grievances of the Reformed, ſome accidents happened which alarmed them afreſh, and occaſioned their being ſtill more importunate on that head; the coach of the Dutch Miniſter ſtanding before the door of the Reſident of Heſſe, as the Hoſt was carrying by to a ſick perſon, the guards which attended the Hoſt obliged the coachman to come down and kneel; at the ſame time military execution was ordered againſt the ſhoemakers, who refuſed to contribute to the maſſes of St. Crispin, and the Reformed in general were forbid working on popiſh holidays, even in harveſt-time, under great penalties; ſome eccleſiaſticks alſo were turned out of their churches and poſſeſſions, on pretence of their having been built and founded by Roman Catholicks, which would have ſerved for a pretence to turn out all the reſt.

The Proteſtants further complained, that in marriages between Proteſtants and Papiſts great hardſhips were put upon them; for though by the Elector's declaration, parents were permitted to educate their children in that religion, which was ſtipulated by contract before or after marriage, yet the Roman Catholick magiſtrates pretended, that they were impowered to direct the education of children as they thought fit; the popiſh prieſts (who alone ſeem authorized in the Palatinate to ſolemnize matrimony, where one of the parties is a Roman Catholick) alſo ſcrupled to marry a man of their religion, unleſs the Proteſtant bride would declare herſelf of their communion; and Roman Catholick huſbands were ſeverely fined, if they did not educate their daughters in the popiſh religion, in violation of prior contracts with their wives, ſworn before publick notaries, by which they ſtipulated, that their wives ſhould have the liberty to bring up their daughters in their own religion. That though by the Elector's declaration, where no matrimonial compacts are made, the children are to conform to the head of the family; children are frequently taken by force from their Proteſtant parents, and bred up in Roman Catholick ſeminaries: that Proteſtant burghers have been confined and impriſoned, for having their children baptized by Proteſtant miniſters where the wife was a Papiſt: that other Proteſtants have been proſecuted for educating their children in Proteſtant ſchools, where the wife was a Papiſt. That notwithſtanding by the Elector's declaration it is provided, that children when they come to years of diſcretion ſhould have full liberty of conſcience to embrace which religion they ſaw fit, the government never came to a determination, what ſhould be accounted years of diſcretion; and parents have been treated with great ſeverities, who have ſuffered their children to declare themſelves Proteſtants at fifteen or ſixteen years of age, and troopers have been ſent to quarter on them at diſcretion, for this pretended offence, 'till the people have been ruined: and although the ſurviving father or mother are by the ſaid declaration allowed to breed up their children in their own religion, the Proteſtant widow and miniſter have both been fined for baptizing a child in the Proteſtant way, and the woman afterwards obliged to carry her child to a Jeſuit to be baptized with popiſh ceremonies. And laſtly, notwithſtanding moſt of the ſubjects of this country are of the Reformed religion, and endeavour to bring up their children in the liberal arts and ſciences, as many of them are, in order to render them capable of preferment, and by the edict of Hall, are aſſured, that they ſhall not be excluded from preferments on account of their religion; yet the moſt inconſiderable places are refuſed them, until they will turn Roman Catholicks, or marry wives of that religion, and engage to have their children bred Papiſts. And here, for the reader's ſatisfaction, I ſhall recite the queſtion and anſwer in the Heidelburg catechiſm, which occaſioned it's being prohibited by the Elector, as an unmannerly reflection on his Highneſs, and all others of the Roman communion, viz.

" Queſt. 80. What difference is there between " the Lord's Supper, and the Maſs of the Pa- " piſts?

" Anſ. The Lord's Supper is a teſtimony to us, " that we have full remiſſion of all our ſins, by " the only ſacrifice of Jeſus Chriſt, which he him- " ſelf has once fulfilled upon the croſs, and that " we are incorporated by the Holy Ghoſt in Je- " ſus Chriſt, who with his real body is now in " heaven, at the right hand of God the Father, " and requires our worſhip. But the Maſs of the " Papiſts teaches, that neither the living nor the " dead obtain remiſſion of their ſins by the death of " Jeſus Chriſt, unleſs he be again offered up daily " for them by the hands of the prieſts. It teaches " alſo that Jeſus Chriſt is corporeally under the " ſpecies of bread and wine, and by conſequence " ought to be adored. So that the Maſs is at the " bottom nothing leſs than blaſpheming the only " ſacrifice of Jeſus Chriſt, and a curſed idolatry."

The Proteſtant Powers finding that his Electoral Highneſs was not to be moved to redreſs the grievances of his Proteſtant ſubjects, by any other means than retaliating on the Papiſts in their dominions, the like uſage their brethren underwent in the Palatinate; the King of Pruſſia ſeized on ſome eccleſiaſtical eſtates in his territories, declaring with the Dutch, that they would ſequeſter the revenues of all the Roman Catholicks in their dominions, if juſtice was not done to the Reformed. This proceeding had ſo good an effect upon the Elector, that he relinquiſhed the body of the church of the Holy Ghoſt, and reſtored the catechiſms, declaring alſo that no perſon ſhould be moleſted in the ſtreets, for not kneeling when the Hoſt paſſed by. But then to ſhew his reſentment againſt the Heidelburgers, who had in a manner extorted theſe orders from him, he declared his intention of abandoning that city, and removing to Manheim, with all the courts of juſtice; and accordingly laid the foundation of a new palace there, which is ſince finiſhed, and become the place of his uſual reſidence, which has very much impoveriſhed the city of Heidelburg.

The Elector alſo, it ſeems, had ordered the bibles in the hands of the reformed to be ſeized, as well as the catechiſm, but I don't find them mentioned in the order for reſtoring the catechiſms.

The condition of the reſt of the Proteſtants in Germany, where the Sovereign is of the Romiſh communion, is much the ſame with thoſe in the Palatinate; but it is ſaid, the French allow the towns in Alſace, inhabited by Proteſtants, better terms than any of the Popiſh Princes of Germany, though they are ſo ſevere upon their Hugonots at home.

Elector Palatine.

VII. Charles Philip, the late Elector, born Octob. 24, 1661. He was at firſt an eccleſiaſtick; but afterwards took to the ſword, and was made general velt-marſhal of the empire, and governor of Tyrol, and ſucceeded his brother John William in the electorate, in 1716. He has been twice married; firſt to Charlotte, widow of Lewis margrave of Brandenburg, and daughter to Bogislaus of Radzevil, a Poliſh Prince. She died in 1695. Secondly, to Theresa, daughter to Lubomirsky, another Poliſh nobleman. She died in 1712. By his firſt wife he has had four children, three of which died in nonage; and the fourth, to the unexpreſſible grief of the Elector, her father, died in 1728. having been married to the hereditary Prince of Sultzbach, who died in 1729. By his ſecond wife he has had two children, but both died in the cradle.

The Electors Palatine formerly enjoyed the office of great maſter of the empire, and the fifth place in the bank of Electors; but they were deprived of thoſe dignities, which were given to the houſe of Bavaria in 1623. when the Elector Palatine, King of Bohemia, was by the Emperor ſtript both of his crown and patrimonial eſtates. By the treaty of Weſtphalia, his ſon CHARLES LEWIS was reſtored to his eſtates, and the electoral dignity, and the office of great treaſurer of the empire was erected in his favour. Things continued in this ſituation till the year 1708. when the Elector of Bavaria, having been put to the ban of the empire, the office of great maſter was given to the Elector Palatine; who, in exchange, yielded that of great treaſurer to the new Elector of Brunſwick-Lunenburg, or Hanover: but in 1714, the Elector of Bavaria, having reconciled himſelf to the Emperor by the treaty of Baden, the Elector Palatine was obliged to reſtore to him the title of great maſter. This is the ground of diſpute that ſubſiſts between the two electoral houſes of Palatine and Hanover, for the titular office of great treaſurer of Germany.

The Elector Palatine is director of three circles; of the Lower Rhine, jointly with the Elector of Mentz; of the Upper Rhine, as Prince of Simmeren, with the biſhop of Worms; and of Weſtphalia, as Duke of Juliers, alternately with the King of Pruſſia, who is Duke of Cleves.

In the diets of the empire this Elector has five votes; one in the aſſembly of Electors, and four in thoſe of the Princes.

The revenues of this Prince ariſe chiefly from the toll on the veſſels that paſs up and down the Danube and the Rhine; from impoſts on wine, corn, &c. The countries of Juliers and Berg yield above a third; the Palatinate about one other third, and his ancient patrimonial eſtate of Newburg, about a fourth part of the Elector's revenue: the whole has been eſteemed at about three hundred thouſand pounds a year.

In time of peace, the Elector has, of ſtanding forces, about ſix or ſeven thouſand men; but during the laſt long war with France, he had twelve thouſand regular troops on foot; which, however, could not hinder the country from being laid waſte, the fortreſſes demoliſhed, &c. In the duchy of Juliers there are two fortified places, viz. Juliers and Duren, and in that of Berg, Duſſeldorp; and ſome years ſince, the Elector has put the fortifications of Manheim in a very good condition.

Manheim.

Manheim, the preſent reſidence of the Elector Palatine, is ſituated in 49 degrees and 30 minutes north latitude, and eight degrees 20 minutes eaſt longitude, between the Rhine and the Necker, in a marſhy country.

It is ſtrongly fortified, and has three fine gates, of which that of the Necker is the moſt magnificent, and the beſt adorned; in which one ſees beautiful baſſo-relievo's, after a plan very happily executed. This gate opens towards a long and ſpacious ſtreet, at the end of which ſtands the Elector's palace, one of the largeſt and moſt ſubſtantial buildings in Europe. The ſituation of this palace is indeed very fine, at the end of the city, and of a very noble large ſtreet, which, like all the reſt, runs in a ſtrait line. The palace, which has a great ſquare before it, conſiſts of a large number of lodging rooms, with a great high pavilion in the middle, and two advanced wings, with ample pavilions at the ends; where two other very extenſive wings riſe on both ſides, that are likewiſe terminated by pavilions, behind which there are other lodging rooms. The inſide of the palace is formed by two great courts, which are ſeparated by an open gallery or terrace. The apartments are adorned with fine noble floors and ceilings, and have the fineſt proſpect in the world to Spire, Franckendahl, Worms, and all the country in general, as far as the mountains of Alſace, which conſiſts wholly in towns and villages. All this fine fruitful country is watered by the Rhine, which paſſes behind the palace of Manheim, and waſhes it's fortifications. Upon this beautiful canal are the gardens of the palace, for which there are intended two curtains and a baſtion. The whole town is laid out in a moſt regular and charming manner; and it is, without diſpute, one of the prettieſt towns in Europe. It is pity the houſes are not higher: the reaſon they alledge for it is, that Manheim is a fortified town, and that by conſequence the houſes ought to be low. I know not what authority there is for this, ſince Straſbourg, Metz, Luxembourg, and Liſle, are places of much more importance than Manheim, and yet the houſes are as high there as they are in other towns.

This Prince's titles are, By the grace of God, Elector Palatine of the Rhine, great treaſurer and Elector of the holy Roman empire, Duke of Bavaria, Juliers, Cleves, *&c.*

The three ſpiritual electorates.

The remaining part of the circle of the Lower Rhine conſiſts of the three ſpiritual electorates, or archbiſhopricks of Mentz, Triers and Cologne. Theſe Electors have the precedence of the other ſix ſecular Electors; and of theſe the Elector of Mentz, Dean of the electoral college, is the chief; who by virtue of his office, appoints the time and place for a new election, on a vacancy of the Imperial throne. He is alſo Arch-chancellor of Germany, Guardian of the archives and matriculation, Viſiter of the aulick council at Vienna, and of the chamber, or ſovereign court of Spire, to whom all foreign Princes and States addreſs themſelves, who have any propoſitions to make to the Empire; and to him the Princes and States apply for a redreſs of their grievances. He is elected to the archbiſhoprick by twenty-four capitulary Canons of the church of Mentz, of noble extraction.

Mentz archbiſhoprick and electorate. Situation and extent.

The archbiſhoprick of Mentz lies on the banks of the river Maine, being bounded by Veteravia, or the Weterau, on the north; by Franconia on the eaſt; by the Palatinate on the ſouth; and by the electorate of Triers on the weſt; extending in length about fifty miles from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, and about twenty in breadth; beſides which tract of land, there are other territories belonging to this archbiſhoprick in Heſſe, Thuringia, the counties of Waldeck and Veteravia, in the Palatinate, &c. The chief towns belonging to the archbiſhoprick of Mentz are, 1. Mentz, or Mayence, the *Moguntiacum* of the Latins, ſituate near the confluence of the Rhine and Maine, twenty miles weſt of Francfort on the Maine, fifty miles north of Spire, and twen-

Mentz city.

ty-five north of Worms, a very ancient city; but thoſe who make it to be built thirteen hundred years before our Saviour, ſeem to have but a ſlender authority for their opinion: others, who look upon DRUSUS as the founder, are thought to have much more probability of their ſide, it being very certain that he built ſeveral fortreſſes on the Rhine; and a better ſituation could not well have been pitched upon than this, where the Maine falls into the Rhine; and here are ſtill the ruins of a trophy erected to the memory of DRUSUS. It is a fortified town, of no great ſtrength, but large and populous, and the publick buildings, as their churches, monaſteries, and palace of the Elector, make a good appearance; the ſtreets are generally narrow, and the private houſes mean. In the cathedral are ſeveral magnificent tombs of the Electors; and the habits and ornaments in which the Elector ſays maſs, are admired for their richneſs. The canopy, under which they carry the hoſt at publick proceſſions, is in a manner covered with pearl. Proteſtants are permitted to live and trade in this city, but are not allowed the publick profeſſion of their religion. It was an Imperial city, till ADOLPHUS of Naſſau, Archbiſhop of the place, deprived them of their privileges, about the year 1462, and his ſucceſſors have ever ſince been abſolute maſters of it, as they are of the whole archbiſhoprick; the temporal as well as eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction being veſted in them. Their univerſity, founded by CHARLEMAIN about the year 800, is not in any great reputation at preſent. It is pretended that gun-powder was firſt invented here by BARTHOLDUS SCHWARTZ, a Franciſcan Friar, but it has been ſhewn already that Friar BACON of Oxford was long before acquainted with it. They alſo claim the invention of printing, which I ſhall enquire farther into when I come to Holland, where it is alſo ſaid to be firſt invented.

Bingen.

2. Bingen, pleaſantly ſituated on the Rhine and Nahe, which here unite their ſtreams, ſixteen miles to the weſtward of Mentz, mentioned by TACITUS as a Roman fortreſs, ſince an Imperial city, but now ſubject to the Dean and Chapter of Mentz. Travellers who viſit this place are full of a ſtory of an Archbiſhop of this dioceſe, eaten up by rats, in a tower he built to defend himſelf againſt them in an iſland of the Rhine over-againſt Bingen, which they look upon as a judgment upon him for his covetouſneſs and cruelty to the poor: but it ſeems to me to have too much the air of a fable to be recited at length.

The Elector of Mentz.

I. The Elector of Mentz, PHILIP CHARLES D'ELTZ, born the 14th of October, 1665. canon of Mentz and Treves in 1677. provoſt of the church of Moxſtadt in 1710. choſen Elector and archbiſhop of Mentz in 1732.

The preſent Elector is ſon of the late JAMES D'ELTZ, major in the Emperor's ſervice, and counſellor of ſtate to the Elector of Treves.

As the Electors of Mentz, Treves, and Cologn are eccleſiaſticks, they never marry.

The brothers and ſiſters of the Elector of Mentz are, 1. CHARLES, chamberlain to the Elector his brother; 2. DAMIAN, canon of Treves; 3. PHILIP, knight of the Teutonick order; 4, 5, 6. JOHN, ANNE, and MARY.

He is the ſecond perſon in the empire next to the Emperor, as he is high chancellor. He is moreover preſident of the electoral college, viſitor of the aulic council, of the chamber of Spires, and all the other courts of the empire, and guardian of the archives and matricula. He crowns the Emperor. All foreign princes and ſtates direct to him what propoſitions they make to the empire; and to him the princes and ſtates of Germany make their complaints, in order to the redreſs of grievances. He is director of the poſts of the empire.

A conſiderable part of this Elector's revenues ariſes from the toll on the rivers Rhine and Maine, as alſo from the tax on the excellent wines which his country produces. The Jews, who are rich here, pay an extraordinary tax. Theſe, with other things, bring in a ſum of about 100,000 l. per annum to the Prince.

The Elector of Mentz in time of war has had in arms 8000 foot and 800 horſe. He is able at all times to maintain 5 or 6000 men.

He reſides at Mentz, an ancient and trading town: 'twas very much embelliſhed by the laſt Elector but one, and its fortifications put into ſo good a condition, that it may now be reckoned one of the ſtrongeſt bulwarks of the empire.

His titles are, PHILIP CHARLES, by the grace of God, Archbiſhop of the holy ſee of Mentz, great chancellor in Germany, and Elector of the holy Roman empire.

There are many proteſtants in this Roman catholick electorate: at Mentz they are allowed to live, but have not the free exerciſe of their religion. Both the city of Erfurt and the univerſity are moſtly proteſtants.

Rhingau country. **Elfeld.** **Erbach.** **Rodeſheim.**

In the Rhingau, a narrow tract of land, extending about twenty miles in length, along the banks of the Rhine, are a great many fine towns; as, 3. Elfeld, a town of ſome ſtrength on the north ſide of the Rhine, fifteen miles weſt of Mentz. 4. Erbach, remarkable for its magnificent monaſtery, where are the tombs of the old Counts of Naſſau, and ſome of the Archbiſhops of Mentz. 5. Rodeſheim, famous for the growth of the beſt vines; and indeed the whole country of Rhingau abounds in the choiceſt vines, and ſeems but one intire city, interſperſed with gardens and vineyards within its walls.

Eichfeld county. **Heiligenſtat.** **Trefurt.** **Duberſtat, &c.** **Aſchaffenburg.** **Hochſt.** **Konigſtein.** **Reinech.** **Erford.**

The county of Eichfeld, or Eſchfeld, ſurrounded by the territories of Heſſe, Thuringia, and the duchy of Brunſwick, belongs alſo to the Elector of Mentz; wherein are the towns of, 6. Heiligenſtat, anciently the ſeat of King DAGOBERT, but remarkable for little at preſent but a college of the Jeſuits. 7. Trefurt, ſituate on the Weſer, in a pleaſant fruitful country. 8. Duberſtat. 9. Wormbys. 10. Fritzlar, a ſtrong fortreſs in the landgravate of Heſſe. 11. Ommenburg, or Amelburg, ſituate on the river Ohm, near Marpurg in Heſſe. 12. Aſchaffenburg, ſituate on the Maine, where it is joined by the river Aſchaff, forty miles eaſt of Mentz, eſteemed the ſtrongeſt fortreſs in the Elector's dominions; here the Elector has a palace, where he frequently reſides. 13. Hochſt, ſituate on the Maine, having the privilege of taking toll of the veſſels which paſs up and down that river, for the uſe of the Elector. 14. Konigſtein, a little fortified town, which gives title to a county, nineteen miles north-eaſt of Mentz. 15. Reinech in Franconia; Steinheim, Epſtein, and ſome other places in the ſame circle; Erford in Thuringia; the Bergraſs in the Lower Palatinate; the county of Lohr on the banks of the Maine; the city of Urb in Spoſſart, conſiderable for its ſalt-ſprings, and ſeveral other towns and places of leſs note belong to the Electorate of Mentz. The preſent Elector, LOTHARIUS-FRANCIS, Archbiſhop of the holy See of Mentz, and Biſhop of Bamburg, is of the houſe of Schonborn, born the fourth of October, 1665, and ſucceeded ANSELM-FRANCIS of Ingelheim, anno 1695. His revenues are computed to amount to an hundred thouſand pounds per annum.

Triers electorate. The electorate of Triers is bounded by the dioceſe of Cologn and the duchy of Burg towards the north; by Veteravia on the eaſt; by Lorrain, the Palatinate, and part of Heſſe towards the ſouth; and by the Auſtrian Netherlands on the weſt, extending in length from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt above fourſcore miles, but of a very unequal breadth, being in ſome places fifty, and in others not five and twenty miles over. The ſoil. The face of the country, and the nature of the ſoil, is very different in one part from what it is in another. The ſouth and weſtern parts of the country are mountainous and barren, incumbered with woods and foreſts, the air cold, and but few towns or people to be met with, or indeed any thing but wild beaſts, deer, and other game, which uſually abound in ſuch deſert places. On the contrary, near the Rhine and the Moſelle the country is exceeding pleaſant, abounds in corn and wine, and is crouded with people. The chief towns in this Triers city. electorate are, 1. Triers, or Treves, the capital city, the *Auguſta Trevirorum* of the Latins, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Moſelle, in the latitude of forty-nine degrees, fifty minutes, ſix degrees to the eaſtward of London, ſixty miles to the ſouthward of Cologne, and about the ſame diſtance to the weſtward of Mentz. The city is of a ſquare figure, but neither large or populous, having but four collegiate and five pariſh-churches, two great abbies, and ſome other religious houſes, with an univerſity, which, till the late wars, was eſteemed equal to moſt in Germany. It is encompaſſed with a wall and other fortifications, but not ſufficient to ſuſtain a ſiege. The French and the allies were alternately maſters of it in the late war, as they happened to be maſters of the field on this ſide. In the years 1704 and 1705, the allies threw up lines for the defence of the place, and erected vaſt magazines here, deſigning to have carried on the war againſt France through this country, where there are not ſo many fortified towns as in Flanders, and would probably have ſoon brought the war to an end, if they had kept ſteady to this reſolution; but old LEWIS XIV, apprized of the conſequence of being attacked from hence, made his utmoſt efforts, and brought a prodigious force into the Low Countries, while the Duke of Marlborough and the grand army of the Allies were upon the Moſelle, which put the Dutch into ſuch a panick fear, that they compelled the Duke to return on a ſudden to defend their frontiers, who leaving his magazines behind him, and General D'AUBACH with ſeven or eight thouſand men, to defend the lines before Triers, the next intelligence he received was, that the body of troops left at Triers had abandoned the place, on the approach of the French, deſtroyed his magazines, and left the country to the mercy of the enemy, whereupon the French immediately took poſſeſſion of Triers again; which put an end to all the ſchemes that had been laid for attacking France on the ſide of the Moſelle, where their frontiers are weakeſt; and the Confederates carried back the war again into Flanders, where they yearly threw away thouſands of brave fellows againſt ſtone-walls to very little purpoſe; and the campaign of 1705 concluded with little action. This city having been frequently plundered and pillaged by the French in the late war, occaſioned the removal of the principal inhabitants, and conſequently a great decay of their trade. The private houſes alſo were lately in a ruinous condition. The churches, monaſteries, and the Elector's palace are eſteemed magnificent buildings, though theſe have not altogether eſcaped the fury of the war. As Triers is one of the moſt ancient, ſo it was in the time of the Romans one of the moſt conſiderable cities in Europe; for here ſeveral of the Roman Emperors kept their courts, inſomuch that it acquired the name of *Roma altera*, and in the ruins of the old city are ſtill daily found Roman coins, medals, and other antiquities; it was afterwards an Imperial city, till reduced by their Archbiſhop, who was formerly Metropolitan of Mentz, Cologne, Liege, Utrecht, Straſburg, Worms, and Spires; but Pope ZACHARY exempting theſe cities from his juriſdiction, he is now the leaſt Metropolitan in Germany, having no other ſuffragans than the Biſhops of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, which are under the dominion of the French. He is however the ſecond Elector in the Empire, and Arch-chancellor of the Empire in France. He gives the firſt voice in all elections and general aſſemblies, and his ſeat is in the middle of the hall, over-againſt the Emperor. As the Elector of Mentz always takes the votes of the reſt of the Electors, he has the privilege of voting laſt, of which thoſe prelates have frequently made great advantages. Coblentz. 2. The ſecond city in the electorate of Triers is Coblentz, or *Confluentia*, in a wonderful pleaſant ſituation, at the conflux of the Rhine and the Moſelle, and ſurrounded with vineyards, being fifty miles north-eaſt of Triers, and about forty ſouth-eaſt of Cologne, of a triangular form, two of its ſides being waſhed by the ſaid rivers, and the third incloſed with a wall and fortifications after the modern way. The convenience of its ſituation has rendered it a town of good trade, eſpecially in corn, wine, wood, and iron. The houſes are well-built, and the ſtreets uniform. The publick buildings of any note mentioned by travellers, are two great churches, ſome monaſteries, and the palace of the Elector, who ſometimes reſides here. There is alſo a ſtone-bridge over the Moſelle, and a bridge of boats over the Rhine at this place; and on the oppoſite ſide of the Rhine a caſtle on a hill, which commands the town and the paſſage of both rivers, and at the bottom of the ſame hill ſtands the Elector's palace, the front whereof and two large wings look towards the river: this, in the time of the Romans, it is ſuppoſed, was the ſtation of the firſt legion. Meyn. 3. Meyn, ſituate on the river Nette, fifteen miles weſt of Coblentz, a walled town with a caſtle, and gives name to a large territory about it, in which ſtands the little town of Munſter-Meynfield, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from Munſter in Weſtphalia. Cocheim. 4. Cocheim, a fortified town on the Moſelle, three miles north-eaſt of Triers. Saffich. 5. Saffich, the capital of a county of the ſame name, about a league diſtant from the Rhine. Boppart. 6. Boppart, a town and caſtle ſituate on the Rhine, ten miles to the ſouthward of Coblentz, formerly Imperial, but granted by the Emperor HENRY VII to BALDWIN, Archbiſhop of Triers, held to be one of the forts anciently erected by DRUSUS on the Rhine. Here the veſſels which paſs this river pay a toll to the Elector. Engers. 8. Engers, a handſom town upon the Rhine, ſeven miles north of Coblentz, Berncaſtle. Cell. St. Vendel. Sarburg. Limburg. Montroyal.

lentz, and gives name to the territory of Engerſaw. 9. Berncaſtle, a town of good trade, where they make great quantity of wine, pleaſantly ſituated on the Moſelle. 10. Oberweſel, a fortified town, ſituate on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, twenty miles weſt of Coblentz. 11. Cell, or Zell, ſituate on the Moſelle, thirty miles north-eaſt of Triers, a town that has a good trade in wines, the product of the neighbouring country. 12. St. Vendel, a little fortified town on the confines of the Palatinate. 13. Sarbrug, a ſmall fortreſs on the river Sar, eight miles ſouth of Triers. 14. Limburg, ſituate on the Lohn, the territories whereof, great part of them, belong to the Langrave of Heſſe. 15. Montroyal, ſituate on a peninſula made by the Rhine, twenty miles north-eaſt of Triers eſteemed a ſtrong place, but taken by the French in the war between the Confederates and France, and reſtored to the Elector again by the peace of Ryſwick. Other towns of any note mentioned by geographers, are Ulmen, eight miles north-weſt of Cocheim, St. Maximin, Phaltz, Witlich, and Prum.

State of the German frontiers towards France.

The revenues of the Elector of Triers, in time of peace, when his country is not liable to the depredations of an enemy, as it was for many years together before the laſt peace, are computed to amount to near an hundred thouſand pounds per annum. This Elector, and other German Princes who lie upon the frontiers of France, and have neither ſtrong towns, or forces ſufficient to reſiſt that formidable power, are under very diſmal circumſtances, whenever a rupture happens between the Empire and that kingdom, their territories are ſure to be made a ſcene of blood and rapine. It ſeems ſtrange therefore, that theſe Princes have not already yielded up their countries to the French, who can better protect them, rather than remain ſubject to the Empire, whoſe armies are always ſo ſlow in their motions, and ſo ill provided, that the frontier provinces are ſure to be deſtroyed before their forces enter upon action, or attempt to oppoſe the enemy. But then it is to be conſidered on the other hand, that the Elector of Triers, and the other Electors on the frontiers, while they remain a part of the Empire, are Sovereign Princes, and have the privilege of electing the Emperor; beſides many other great advantages, which would be entirely loſt, if they ſhould come under the dominion of France. That crown would uſe them as ſhe does her own nobility, and they would in a little time have nothing that they could call their own, which is the worſt that can befall them, let the event of the war be what it will; whatever they may ſuffer during the fury of war, they have found by long experience is uſually reſtored to them by a ſubſequent peace; and as the Empire is now more powerful than it has been for ſome ages paſt, by the acquiſition of ſuch large territories on the ſide of Turky, by the addition of the Auſtrian Netherlands, the Milaneze, Naples and Sicily, poſſibly they may for the future be better ſecured from the inſults of the French than they have been.

The preſent Elector of Triers, his title.

But to return to Triers: The preſent Elector is Francis-Lewis, brother to the Elector Palatine, born the 24th of July, 1664, and elected into this See, anno 1716: His title is Francis-Lewis, by the grace of God Archbiſhop of Triers, Archchancellor of the Empire in France, (for France the reader will obſerve was once part of the Empire) Prince and Elector of the Holy Roman Empire, Count Palatine of the Rhine, Great Maſter of the Teutonick Order, Biſhop of Breſlaw and Worms, Adminiſtrator of the abbacy of Praym, Judge of the Imperial chamber of Wetzlar, or rather Spire, &c. The chapter of Triers conſiſts of ſixteen capitular Canons, who have the election of their Archbiſhop, and of twenty-four Domiciled; and none are admitted into the chapter, who cannot prove their nobility for four deſcents, both by father and mother.

Elector of Treves.

II. Francis George, count of Schoenborn-Puckhein, born the 4th of June 1682. canon of Cologn, Munſter, and Treves, provoſt of the church of St. Maurice in Augſburg, and provoſt of the cathedral church of Treves, was choſen Archbiſhop and Elector of Treves in 1729 (upon the reſignation of the late Elector of Mentz): he was alſo elected provoſt of the church of Elwangen, and biſhop of Worms, in 1732.

This Elector is ſon to M. Frederick count of Schoenborn-Puckhein, counſellor of ſtate to the Emperor and the Elector of Mentz; he died in 1717.

The electorate of Treves is comprized in the circle of the Lower Rhine; having the countries of Luxemburg on the weſt; Juliers and Cologn on the north; Lorrain and the Palatinate on the ſouth; and the principality of Naſſau on the eaſt. It is, one part with another, about 70 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. On the ſouth and weſt it is ſomewhat barren, woody, and hilly, abounding however with all ſorts of veniſon; but on the banks of the Rhine and Moſelle there grows good corn; alſo ſome wine, which is ſharp, and not very rich.

The toll on the Moſelle and Rhine, his own domain, which is conſiderable, and the taxes which he impoſes upon his ſubjects, bring him in a revenue of near 70,000 l. per annum.

Tho' the city of Treves is a very ancient and noble city, yet the Elector has his ordinary reſidence at Witlick, in the caſtle of Ottenſtein. Sometimes he reſides at the caſtle of Hermanſtein on the Rhine, over-againſt Coblentz, on account of it's noble proſpects.

His titles are Francis George, by the grace of God, Archbiſhop of Treves, great chancellor in Gaul, Elector of the holy Roman empire, biſhop of Worms, &c. and count of Schoenborn.

As Archbiſhop, he has a croſs, &c. On each ſide of the electoral hat appears the croſier, and the ſword, to repreſent the ſpiritual and temporal power of the Prince.

The ſubjects of this electorate are Roman catholicks.

Archbiſhoprick and electorate of Cologne.

The Archbiſhoprick and electorate of Cologne, the ancient ſeat of the Ubii, lies on the weſtern ſide of the Rhine, being bounded by the duchy of Cleves on the north; by the duchy of Berg, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine, on the eaſt; by the electorate of Triers on the ſouth; and by the duchy of Juliers and the Netherlands on the weſt; extending about forty miles in length, but not above ſeven or eight in breadth, a pleaſant fruitful country, bounding in corn and wine, and all other neceſſaries of life. The Archbiſhop alſo has ſeveral other large territories in Weſtphalia, and other parts of the Empire appropriated to his See, being eſteemed more rich and powerful than either of the other two ſpiritual Electors, though he yields them the precedence. In the dioceſe of Cologne, ſtrictly ſo called, the chief towns are, 1. Cologne, or Colen, the capital of the electorate, the *Colonia Agrippina* of the Romans, taking it's name from Agrippina, daughter of Germanicus, wife of Claudius, and mother

Cologne city.

mother of Nero, who was born here. It was the metropolis of *Germania Secunda*, and ſeems to have obtained the name of *Colonia*, by way of eminence, as being the moſt conſiderable Roman colony in theſe parts. This town is built in form of a creſcent, and pleaſantly ſituated in a plain near the weſtern bank of the Rhine, in the latitude of fifty degrees, fifty five minutes, ſix degrees and a half to the eaſtward of London, forty miles north-weſt of Coblentz, and twenty ſouth-eaſt of Duſſeldorp. The fortifications are ſo inconſiderable, that whoever is maſter of the field may be maſter of the place without a formal ſiege. The city itſelf is one of the largeſt, moſt beautiful and populous in the Empire; and yet the walls encloſe large ſpaces of ground, which are not built upon; and particularly three hundred acres planted with vines. Here it was King Charles II of England ſpent the two laſt years of his exile. Some travellers number four and twenty gates in the walls, thirteen to the landward, and eleven on the Rhine. The ſtreets are large and well paved in the middle of the town; and there are two ſpacious market-places. Among the publick buildings there are eleven collegiate churches, nineteen pariſh-churches, beſides the cathedral, thirty chapels, twelve monaſteries, twenty-two nunneries, and four large hoſpitals; beſides which, the Lutherans have a church allowed them. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Peter, is a magnificent ſtructure, wherein they ſhew three tombs, and as many ſkulls richly enſhrined, which, according to the tradition of the place, belonged to the three wiſe men, who came from the eaſt to worſhip our Saviour, from hence called the three Kings of Colen; and the ſuperſtitious pretend the very touch of them has cured many diſeaſes. They were, as the ſtory goes, firſt brought to Conſtantinople by Helen, the mother of Constantine the Great, from thence removed to Milan; and upon the taking of that city by the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, in the year 1164, removed again to Colen by Reynold, Archbiſhop of this See. In the church of St. Gereon they alſo expoſe to view the heads of a thouſand ſaints, who are ſaid to have ſuffered martyrdom under the Emperor Maximin, ador'd by the common people as moſt ſacred reliques. In the church of St. Ursula alſo is ſhewn the tomb of that ſaint, and ſome of her aſſociates, who, if their records may be credited, came over from the iſland of Britain with eleven thouſand virgins, her companions, to convert the infidels of this country, and all ſuffered martyrdom by the Huns. Upon many of theſe tombs are old croſſes and lamps, but upon that of St. Ursula there is an inſcription, importing, that it was diſcovered by St. Columba, a native of North Britain. From the multitude of relicks of ſaints and martyrs, churches and religious houſes in this city, it has obtained, for ſeveral years paſt, the name of *The Holy City*; and notwithſtanding it is a great town of trade, we meet almoſt as many eccleſiaſticks as laymen in the ſtreets. The rich endowments of their cathedral and collegiate churches induces many Noblemen, and even Princes of the Empire, to become Prebends and Canons here, who have generally magnificent houſes, or rather palaces, with large vineyards and gardens contiguous to them.

The Elector alſo has two palaces in the city, but reſides generally at Bon. It is contrary to the conſtitution of their government to ſuffer him to reſide long here: this people being apprehenſive his preſence might endanger their liberties. For the ſame reaſon ſome other free cities of the Empire look upon it as a breach of their privileges, whenever their Dioceſan comes to reſide amongſt them for any time, and make loud complaints on this head. The convent of the Carmelites is a noble commodious building, where was held a congreſs of Ambaſſadors Plenipotentiaries from moſt of the Powers of Europe to treat of peace, in the year 1673. Thoſe from Britain being Sir Leoline Jenkins and Sir Joseph Williamson; and from France the Prince of Furſtemburg, who ſet all Europe in a flame, and was one occaſion of the enſuing war. He was it ſeems originally a Count of the Empire, but afterwards educated in a French monaſtery, of which he became Abbot. His zeal for the Grand Monarch Lewis XIV, induced him afterwards to lay aſide his religious habit, and accept of a poſt in the army, where he gained the eſteem of the French King to that degree, that he made him his Plenipotentiary in this important negotiation at Cologne, where he had the addreſs to defeat all the meaſures of the Confederate Princes for the obtaining peace on the terms they propoſed; which ſo exaſperated the Emperor, whoſe ſubject he was born, that he cauſed him to be ſeized in the ſtreets of Cologne, and hurried to Vienna, where he was made a cloſe priſoner; and it was expected he would have been executed as a traytor to his country; but this was thought too dangerous a ſtep by the Imperial court, leſt the French King ſhould take a ſeverer revenge on the Princes of the Empire who lay moſt expoſed. This accident however broke off the treaty for the preſent; and Furſtemburg remained a priſoner till the peace of Nimeguen, when Lewis XIV advanced him to the biſhoprick of Straſburg, and afterwards procured him a Cardinal's cap. And it may be obſerved of that Prince in general, that thoſe who ſerved him zealouſly never failed of his protection and a ſuitable reward; which may be one reaſon his miniſters and officers were ſo entirely devoted to his ſervice, during the whole courſe of his long reign, that we have ſcarce an inſtance of his councils being betrayed, or a town ſurrendered while there was a poſſibility of defending it: while his enemies ſuffered more from the treachery of their Miniſters and Generals, than from all the forces of this Grand Monarch. But to return to Cologne, which ſtill remains a free Imperial city, under ſome limitations, ſettled by the Emperor Maximilian I. on a diſpute between the Archbiſhop and the Burghers, it was decreed, that the magiſtracy of the city ſhould have the determination of all civil cauſes; but in criminal, none ſhould be executed or pardoned but with the Archbiſhop's concurrence.

The government of the city conſiſts of ſix Burgomaſters, ſeven Aldermen, and an hundred and fifty Common-council men, who all continue for life, only two of the Burgomaſters are Regents annually by turns; the Aldermen are appointed by the Archbiſhop, and the Common-council men elected by the trading companies of the city, fifty of the Common-council only acting in one year, taking it by turns; if a Burgomaſter dies, the Common-council elect another. The inhabitants of Cologne are for the moſt part Roman Catholicks, but many of the principal merchants and tradeſmen are Proteſtants, of whom the Lutherans have a church in the city, as has been intimated already, but the Calviniſts are obliged to go as far as Mulheim, two miles on the other ſide of the Rhine, to their publick worſhip. This city was anciently one of the principal Hans-Towns, and capital of their fourth province. This is what I could meet with moſt material concerning the city of Cologne; there is an idle ſtory indeed mentioned by moſt writers, of a Lady's being buried with a ring of value on her finger, in a church at Cologne, who upon the ſexton's coming to ſteal it, revived at the opening of the coffin, frightened the fellow, and went home to her houſe, where ſhe lived ſeven years after; but it is related with ſo many other fooliſh and incredible circumſtances, that it will not bear a recital at large.

Bonn.

2. The ſecond city in the Archbiſhoprick of Cologne is Bonn, a ſmall but ſtrong town, pleaſantly ſituated on the Rhine, ten miles to the ſouthward of Cologne, ſuppoſed to be the *Caſtra Bonenſia*, where the Roman forces ſometimes had their winter quarters, near which place JULIUS CÆSAR built a bridge croſs the Rhine. Here the Elector has a palace ſuitable to his dignity, where he uſually reſides. It ſtands at the end of that long ridge of mountains which ſhuts in both ſides of the Rhine from hence as far as Bingen. The vineyards in the neighbourhood afford plenty of good Rheniſh wine, and the foreſts variety of game. It is ſuppoſed from it's happy ſituation, to have obtained the Latin name of *Bona*, and was an Imperial city, but is at preſent under the dominion of the Elector. The town was taken and retaken ſeveral times during the late wars, but the confederates remained in poſſeſſion of this and the whole archbiſhoprick at the end of the war; the late Elector and his brother of Bavaria being forced to take refuge in France, (with which kingdom they ſided) till their dominions were reſtored to them by the peace of Raſtat. Beſides the Elector's palace, the gardens and water-works whereof are much admired as well as the building, the ſtadt-houſe is ſaid to be a magnificent ſtructure, and adorned with the fineſt paintings. In the collegiate church they ſhew ſome ancient tombs, where, according to tradition, PIUS-CASSIUS, FLORENTIUS, MALUSIUS, and ſeveral others of the Theban legion were buried, who ſuffered martyrdom under the Emperor MAXIMIUS.

Andernach.

3. Andernach, eight miles to the northward of Coblentz, at the limits of the two electorates of Triers and Cologne, where the Elector of Cologne has a cuſtom-houſe.

Broel.

4. Broel, in the midway between Cologne and Bonn, where the Elector has a hunting ſeat.

Lintz.

5. Lintz, an ancient city on the eaſt-ſide of the Rhine, eighteen miles to the northward of Coblentz.

Nuys.

6. Nuys, the *Noveſium* of the Latins mentioned by TACITUS, four and twenty miles to the northward of Cologne, ſeated on the river Erp, where the Romans built a fort to ſecure the boundaries of their Empire, now a large fortified town, ſeveral times taken and retaken in the late wars.

Zous.

7. Zous, ſeven miles to the ſouthward of Nuys, ſituate on the Rhine, in a country which produces plenty of corn, with which they ſupply the neighbouring cities, who ſeem to want it pretty much.

Rhinberg.

8. Rhinberg, ſituate on a hill near the Rhine, forty miles to the northward of Cologne, and ſeparated from the Elector's other dominions; it is a fortified town, the capital of a county which affords plenty of wine.

Meurs.

9. Meurs, ten miles ſouth of Rhinberg, and thirty north-weſt of Cologne, a neat little city, which belonged to the Prince of Orange, and claimed by the King of Pruſſia, as heir to King WILLIAM III.

Keyſerwaert.

10. Keyſerwaert, a ſmall but ſtrong town, on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, five miles north of Duſſeldorp, and twenty north-weſt of Cologne, endured a ſiege of two months in the year 1702, before it ſurrendered to the Imperialiſts.

Kempen.

11. Kempen, or Kerpen, a fortified town and caſtle on the confines of Guelderland and Juliers, ſituate on the river Erp, thirty-four miles north-weſt of Cologne. On the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, between the biſhoprick of Munſter and county of Marck, lies a narrow tract of land, which is a peculiar ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Cologne, containing ſeveral large manors and lordſhips; the chief towns whereof are,

Recklinghauſen.

12. Recklinghauſen, a fortified town, the capital of a county twenty miles long, and ten broad, wherein there is a nunnery, the Abbeſs whereof is veſted with ſovereign power in the town and country about it, and ſhe only makes a perpetual vow of virginity; the other nuns being allowed to marry after a certain term of years.

Dorſten.

And 13. Dorſten, a ſtrong place, ſituate on the Lippe.

Hildeſheim dioceſe and city.

The Elector of Cologne is alſo Biſhop and Prince of the dioceſe and territory of Hildeſheim, being near fifty miles in length, ſurrounded by the dominions of the Elector of Brunſwick, the inhabitants whereof are moſt of them Lutherans, tho' ſubject to a Popiſh Biſhop; the chief town whereof is Hildeſheim, ſituate on the river Innerſte, fifteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Hanover, and twenty-five ſouth-weſt of Brunſwick, a neat old town, but the buildings are not ſo conſiderable, as to deſerve a particular deſcription. It is an Imperial city, anciently one of the Hans-Towns, and has ſtill a pretty good trade in corn.

Peina.

2. Peina, another ſmall city on the river Euſe, twelve miles weſt of Brunſwick, the caſtle whereof is ſaid to be the ſtrongeſt fortreſs in the biſhoprick.

Marienburg, &c.

Other places mentioned by Geoprаphers in this territory are the towns of Marienburg, Popenburg, Daſſel, Bokenem, Woldenburg, Eltz, Sarſtede, and the abby of Gonderſheim.

Family of the Elector of Cologne.

The archbiſhoprick and electorate of Cologne, has been poſſeſſed for three generations, by a younger ſon of the houſe of Bavaria, as appears by the following account of the late Elector's death, viz. On the twelfth of November 1723, died JOSEPH CLEMENT, brother to the Elector of Bavaria, in the fifty-ſecond year of his age. He was choſen Biſhop of Ratiſbon in the year 1685, which biſhoprick he reſigned to his nephew CLEMENT-AUGUSTUS of Bavaria anno 1716, (who reſigned it alſo in favour of JOHN THEODORE of Bavaria, his youngeſt brother.) He was elected Archbiſhop and Elector of Cologne on the tenth of July 1688, ſeven days after the death of his couſin MAXIMILIAN of Bavaria, whom he ſucceeded not only in the electorate, but alſo in the principality and provoſtſhip of Berchtolſgaden. He was choſen Coadjutor to the Biſhop of Hildeſheim anno 1694, whom he ſucceeded in that See on the 13th of Auguſt 1702, and was elected Biſhop of Liege on the 20th of April 1694. This Elector, with his brother of Bavaria, taking the part of France in the late war, was expelled from his electorate and other territories till the peace of Baden, as has been intimated already; and did not receive the inveſtiture of the temporalties of the archbiſhoprick of Cologne, the biſhoprick of Hildeſheim, or of the provoſtſhip of Berchtolgaſden, until the 12th of April 1717.

The preſent Elector.

The preſent Elector of Cologne, CLEMENT AUGUSTUS, younger brother to the preſent Elector of Bavaria, ſucceeded his uncle JOSEPH CLEMENT in the archbiſhoprick of Cologne on the 12th of November 1723, having been elected Coadjutor to him on the 9th of May 1722, and is the third ſon of Maximilian-Emanuel-Mary, late Elector of Bavaria, who died on the 26th of February 1725-6. He was born in the month of Auguſt 1700, elected Biſhop of Munſter on the 26th, and Biſhop of Paderborn the 27th of March 1719. Notwithſtanding he ſucceeded his uncle Joseph Clement in the electorate and archbiſhoprick of Cologne, he could not prevail with the chapter of Liege to elect him their biſhop; theſe Gentlemen being determined to chuſe one of their own number, who ſhould reſide amongſt them; but he was afterwards choſen Biſhop of Hildeſheim.

His titles.

The preſent Elector's titles are, Clement Augustus by the grace of God Archbiſhop of Cologne, Arch-chancellor of the Empire in Italy, Prince Elector of the holy Roman Empire; Biſhop of Hildeſheim, of Munſter and Paderborn; Adminiſtrator of Berchtolſgaden, Duke of Engern and Weſtphalia, Duke of the Upper and Lower Bavaria, &c. His great chapter conſiſts of ſixty Canons, who are all Princes and Counts; but the Archbiſhop is elected by the four and twenty Seniors. He crowns the Emperor by virtue of his office, unleſs the coronation be performed in the dioceſe of the Elector of Mentz, or in the dioceſe of the Elector of Triers. The directors of this circle are the Archbiſhop of Mentz and the Elector Palatine.

Elector of Cologne.

III. Clemens Augustus, Prince of Bavaria, born the 5th of Auguſt 1700, was biſhop of Munſter and Paderborn in 1719, coadjutor to the late Archbiſhop of Cologne, Prince Joseph of Bavaria, in 1722, to whom he ſucceeded the firſt of November 1723. He was afterwards elected biſhop of Hildeſheim in 1724; biſhop of Oſnabrug in 1728, on the death of Ernestus, brother to King George I. of Great Britain; and in 1732, he was made provoſt of Liege, and great maſter of the Teutonick order. He is brother to the preſent Elector of Bavaria.

This Elector crowns the Emperor if the ceremony be performed in his dioceſe; and, if elſewhere, he and the Elector of Mentz have that honour by turns. His ſubjects cannot appeal to the tribunals of the empire but for great ſums.

His eſtates are very conſiderable; they conſiſt of, 1. The Archbiſhoprick, which extends about 100 miles along the weſt-ſide of the Rhine, but in moſt places it is not above ſeven or eight miles broad. It belongs to the circle of the Lower Rhine, having Cleves on the north, Bergues on the eaſt, Treves on the ſouth, and Juliers on the weſt; and is very fruitful in corn and wine, particularly that ſort of wine called Blecker and Rheniſh.

This Prince is more rich and powerful than either of the other two eccleſiaſtical Electors; for he generally holds ſeveral wealthy biſhopricks, whereof that of Leige is one in commendam. The electoral revenue amounts to about 130,000 l. but the other five great benefices, which the preſent Elector is actually poſſeſſed of, augment that ſum to betwixt 2 and 300,000 l. a year.

In time of war he has, beſides gariſons, guards of horſe, grenadiers, partizans, and carabineers, three regiments of horſe, three of foot, and one of dragoons, conſiſting of between 1500 and 2000 men each.

His Electoral Highneſs reſides at Bonn, a well-built trading town on the Rhine. The palace is very grand; it was erected by the late Archbiſhop, but not quite finiſhed. His ſeats of pleaſure are Beuil and Arenſburg. The firſt lies about eight miles from the capital; it was built by the preſent Elector, who ſpends moſt of his time at it.

His titles are, Clement Augustus, by the grace of God, Archbiſhop of Cologne, great chancellor in Italy, (this office is now quite obſolete) Elector of the holy Roman empire, &c.

The croſs is the chief thing that preſents in his coat of arms for the archbiſhoprick; the enſigns armorial, are the mitre with the croſier and ſword, &c.

The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Roman catholick; but there are proteſtants in the electorate, particularly in Cologne, where the Lutherans have a church; but the Calviniſts are obliged to go two miles out of town to their place of worſhip.

WESTPHALIA.

CHAP. XIX.

Treats of the city of Weſtphalia: comprehending the ducby of Weſtphalia, the biſhopricks of Liege, Munſter, Paderborn and Oſnabrug; the duchies of Juliers, Cleves and Berg; the principality of Minden; the Counties of Marck, Ravenſburg, Lippe, Schawenburg, Hoye, Diepholt, Oldenburg, Delmenhorſt, Embden, Benthem, Tecklenburg, Pyrmont, Lingen and Steinfort, Corbey Abbey; and the Imperial towns of Aix la Chapelle, Dortmond, &c.

Situation and extent.

THE circle of Weſtphalia is bounded by the German Ocean on the north; by the circle of Lower Saxony on the eaſt; by Heſſe on the ſouth; and by the Netherlands towards the weſt. Extending in length about two hundred miles from north to ſouth, and an hundred and fifty, and in ſome places two hundred miles from eaſt to weſt.

The air and ſoil.

The air of this country towards the north is very cold, and the ſoil almoſt one continued moraſs or barren ſand: but here, however, they feed the beſt bacon in Europe, with the cheſnuts and other fruits which their foreſts produce. The ſouthern part of this circle has a warmer air, and a much better ſoil, as will appear in the deſcription of the particular provinces.

Rivers.

The principal rivers are the Weſer, the Ems, the Lippe, the Roer, the Aa, and the Hunt. Travellers who viſit this country complain much of their coarſe bread, bad beer, hard lodging, and long dirty miles, as well as of their way of travelling in poſt-waggons, as they are called, which move no faſter than a ſnail: but the reader will be better able to judge of the country from a deſcription of the particular provinces.

The name.

The name of Weſtphalia is, by ſome German writers, derived from *Weiſſenpholen*, which ſignifies a white Horſe: for Weſtphalia, as well as the circle of Lower Saxony, going anciently under the general name of Saxony; as the Duke of Lower Saxony, whoſe territories lay to the eaſtward of the Weſer, carried a black horſe in his ſtandard; ſo the Duke of that part of Saxony, now called Weſtphalia, which lay to the weſtward of the Weſer, had a *Weiſſenpholen*, or white Horſe, painted on his ſtandard, from whence his territories were called *Weſtpholen*, which was eaſily changed afterwards into Weſtphalia. Others affirm, that the country to the eaſtward of the Weſer was called *Eaſtfelt*, or Eaſtfield; and that to the weſtward of the river *Weſtfelt*, or Weſtfield, which with a Latin termination was eaſily converted into Weſtphalia. I muſt confeſs, that both of theſe accounts have ſo fair a ſhew of probability, that I cannot tell which to incline to, and therefore leave the reader to his own judgment, and proceed now to a particular deſcription of the provinces of this great circle. And firſt I ſhall endeavour to deſcribe Weſtphalia Proper, or the duchy of Weſtphalia, becauſe great part of it is ſubject to the Elector of Cologne, whoſe other territories were laſt treated of; for notwithſtanding Weſtphalia is the general name of the whole circle, it is however reſtrained, and eſpecially applied to this particular province.

Weſtphalia duchy. Situation and extent.

The duchy of Weſtphalia is bounded by the biſhopricks of Munſter and Paderborn on the north, by the landgravate of Heſſe on the eaſt, by Veteravia on the ſouth, and by the county of Mark and duchy of Berg towards the weſt: being about fifty miles in length from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt, and about forty broad.

Soil.

This country is for the moſt part mountainous and woody, except towards Lipſtat, where the ſoil is tolerably fruitful, nor does there want good corn or paſturage in the valleys among the hills, at leaſt enough to ſupply the inhabitants, who are not very numerous.

Rivers.

Their rivers run from the mountains with an impetuous torrent, the chief whereof is the Roer, which falls into the Rhine near Duyſburg:

Mines.

and though they have mines of ſilver, copper and lead in many places, they can make but little advantage of them, they are ſo ſubject to be flooded by the rivulets which fall from every ſide of their mountains. This dukedom was taken from HENRY THE LION, Duke of Saxony, and conferred on the Archbiſhops of Cologne by the Emperor FREDERICK-BARBAROSSA about the year 1170, by way of puniſhmennt, for Duke HENRY's having confederated with the Pope againſt that Emperor.

Arnſburg.

The chief towns of this duchy are, 1. Arnſburg, a pretty town pleaſantly ſituated on the river Roer, about fifty miles north-eaſt of Cologne, adjoining to which is a fine caſtle, where the Elector frequently reſides in the hunting ſeaſon. It was anciently ſubject to it's own Count, by whom it was ſold to the Archbiſhops of Cologne, with Hoveſtat, Geſeck, and other towns in the neighbourhood. Near this town ſtands the fine monaſtery of Wedinghauſen.

Werle.

2. Werle, a pleaſant town between the Roer and the Lippe; where the ſupreme court of juſtice is held for the duchy of Weſtphalia, which occaſions it ſometimes to be called the capital of the duchy.

Geſeck.

3. Geſeck, a fortified town, ſituate at the bottom of a hill near the banks of the Lippe, in a fruitful country, about five and twenty miles north-eaſt of Arnſburg; where the head of St. CYRIACUS, a Saint of this country, is preſerved as a very precious relique. His body alſo was long kept here in a golden coffin, till the Count de Oberſtein robbed them of it.

Brilon.

And, 4. Brilon, near the head of the river Moens.

Liege biſhoprick.

The biſhoprick of Liege, or Luyick, the ancient *Leodium*, or *Legia*, is ſuppoſed to derive it's name from a little rivulet called Liege, which runs thro' this country and falls into the Maes. The dioceſe of Liege is bounded by Flanders and Brabant towards the north and weſt, by the duchy of Limburg on the eaſt, and by Luxemburg and part of France on the ſouth: being near ſeventy miles in length from north to ſouth, and five and twenty in breadth from eaſt to weſt, and in ſome places twice as broad. It is in general a pleaſant fruitful country, having large corn fields, and a great deal of rich meadow and paſture ground. They have alſo ſome mines of lead and iron, and quarries of marble; but what it is moſt particularly remarkable for, is the great quantities of brimſtone and vitriol which are made in this country.

Liege city.

The chief towns in the biſhoprick are, 1. Liege, the capital, ſituate in the latitude of fifty degrees, forty minutes, twelve miles ſouth of Maeſtricht; a large populous city, of a triangular figure. There are ſeveral hills and valleys within the walls, and ſome iſlands made by the river Maes, two branches whereof run through the town. The ſtreets are neither clean nor regular, and moſt of the private houſes built of wood; but there are ſome however which make a handſom appearance, a clear ſtream generally runs through the middle of the ſtreets, beſides which, many of the beſt houſes have fountains in their courts and gardens. In the city and ſuburbs are upwards of an hundred churches: the Biſhop's palace and the cathedral are magnificent ſtructures, the laſt built with red ſtone, and dedicated to St. LAMBARD: according to ſome travellers, no city in Germany or France can equal it in fine churches, convents, and other religious foundations. The country about it alſo is ſo extremely agreeable, that it has obtained the name of *The Paradiſe of Eccleſiaſticks.* The Engliſh Jeſuits have a college here, proudly ſituated on the top of a hill, with a moſt delightful garden, in which is ſeen variety of dialling; not far from it is a convent of Engliſh Nuns.

Mandevile buried at Liege.

In the monaſtery of St. WILLIAM, without the walls of the city, lie the remains of that famous Engliſh traveller Sir JOHN MANDEVILE, who having taken a view of moſt of the great cities in the world, preferred Liege to any of them; and accordingly ſpent the latter part of his life here, after he had finiſhed his travels. Near his tomb are placed his ſaddle, ſpurs and knife; and the following inſcription, viz. *Vos ki paſſeis ſor mi pour l'amour Deix proies por mi*; i. e. You who paſs over me, for the love of GOD pray for me. The univerſity of this place was once ſo conſiderable, that it is ſaid, there were at one time in it, nine King's ſons, four and twenty ſons of Dukes, and nine and twenty Counts. MEIBONIUS relates, that in the year 1131, there were one and twenty King's ſons reſident in this univerſity: the reſt of the town alſo was ſo populous, that the Duke of Burgundy, when he took it by ſtorm, according to Dr. NICHOLSON, put an hundred thouſand of the inhabitants to the ſword. At preſent the fortifications of the city are but mean, and being commanded by the hills which ſurround them, are not capable of reſiſting a royal army; but the citadel, which is ſituate on a hill, is a place of ſome ſtrength. The late Elector of Cologne, who was alſo biſhop of Liege, delivered it up to the French in the beginning of the laſt war; but the Duke of Marlborough took it in the year 1702. It was again beſieged by the French in the year 1705, and upon the point of being taken, when the grand army of the confederates returning ſuddenly from the Moſelle, the French thought fit to retire. Liege is ſtiled an Imperial city, under the protection of it's Biſhop: but this Prelate is really

Sovereign of the city and dioceſe; and the citizens for diſputing his authority, have more than once ſuffered very ſeverely; though Mr. Ray affirms, that he can lay no taxes on the people without the conſent of the Clergy, Gentry and Commons, whom he calls the three eſtates. The chapter of Liege conſiſts of ſixty major Canons, who are moſt of them of noble extraction, and have the power of electing their Biſhop. There are twelve other Canons, called *Canonici Mediocres*, and twelve more *Canonici Minores*, who have no ſhare in this election.

The preſent Biſhop of Liege.

The preſent Prince and Biſhop of Liege is George Lewis Count de Berghes, elected on the 7th of February N. S. anno 1723-4, who was then ſixty five years of age, and lived in a mean houſe, with only one man ſervant, and an old maid. He was the laſt of the family of John III. Duke of Brabant, and had been a Lieutenant-Colonel of horſe in his youth. He is the third of this family, who have been advanced to this See, and was preferred before three other powerful candidates, viz. the Elector of Cologne, the Cardinal of Saxzeits, and the Prince of Auvergne Archbiſhop of Vienne in Dauphiné, by a majority of the Electors, who entered into an engagement to give their votes to one of their own members who would reſide amongſt them; being morally ſure none of the other candidates would. Before this laſt choice the Electors of Cologne were generally choſen to this See: and it was a fine addition to the power and revenues of that Elector; for the Biſhop of Liege is one of the moſt conſiderable eccleſiaſtical Princes in Germany, having, as is computed, within his dioceſe, or rather principality, fifty-two baronies, eighteen walled towns, and four hundred villages, very well peopled, which yield him an annual revenue of three hundred thouſand ducats.

Tongren.

The ſecond city in the dioceſe of Liege is, 2. Tongres, or Tongren, *olim Tungrorum oppidum*, ſituate on the little river Jecker, ten miles north-weſt of Liege; a very conſiderable town in the time of the Romans, when there was a road pitched with ſtone, reaching from hence to Paris, near two hundred miles in length, ſome parts of which are ſtill to be ſeen: there are alſo ſtill remaining here the ruins of ſome of their temples and other monuments of antiquity; particularly in the great church they ſhew an image ſuppoſed by ſome to be the ſtatue of Minerva, but by others the image of Hercules, who was anciently worſhipped here by the Pagan inhabitants. It was very early made a Biſhop's See, and had an hundred churches in it when deſtroyed by Attila the Hun; but the biſhoprick was removed from hence to Maeſtricht, and afterwards to Liege; and the town has now very little remaining of it's former grandeur. It is generally held that the old caſtle and the wall on Biſhop Maternus's chapel were ſtanding before the time of our Saviour. The great church is a handſom Gothick ſtructure, and has a Dean and two and twenty Canons belonging to it. The French took this town by ſurprize in the year 1703, but abandoned it again in 1705, on the approach of the confederate army, without venturing a ſiege; from whence it is evident the town is a place of no great ſtrength at preſent.

Huy.

3. Hoy, or Huy, ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the Maes, twelve miles ſouth-weſt of Liege, and ſixteen north-eaſt of Namur. The iron mines in the neighbourhood find employment for moſt part of the inhabitants. The town and caſtle are fortified after the modern way, but were taken by the French in the year 1693, and retaken by the allies in 1703. It was formerly governed by Counts of it's own, the laſt of whom transferred it to the Biſhops of Liege, who are now Sovereigns of it.

Bullion.

4. Buillon, or Bullion, ſituate on the river Semay, thirty miles ſouth of Dinant, and forty weſt of Luxemburg; the capital of a ſmall duchy, which gives the title of Duke to the Biſhop of Liege; and was formerly the inheritance of the famous Godfrey of Bullion, who ſold it to the Biſhops of this See, anno 1096, in order to enable him to raiſe forces to carry on the war againſt the infidels in the Holy Land: in which expedition he met with ſuch ſucceſs, that within the ſpace of three years he made himſelf maſter of Jeruſalem and the greateſt part of Paleſtine; and was thereupon crowned the firſt Chriſtian King of that city and territory. Hiſtorians who have written of theſe tranſactions generally relate, that this Prince was ſo extremely modeſt he could hardly be prevailed on to accept the regal dignity, alledging that he thought it a preſumption to wear a crown of gold, where our Saviour wore a crown of thorns.

Dinant.

5. Dinant, a fortified town, ſituate thirty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Liege, and twelve ſouth of the city of Namur. It is an ancient town, and a place of ſome trade, particularly in the manufactures of braſs and iron.

Franchemont.

6. Franchemont, fifteen miles from Liege, anciently a large populous city, and ſtill the capital of a marquiſate, whereof the Biſhop of Liege is Sovereign; but is no more than an open village at this day, and conſiderable only for the lead-mines near it.

Spaw, or Spa.

7. The Spaw, or Spa, ſituate in a bottom incloſed with hills, and to the north with craggy mountains, fourteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Liege, and ſeven ſouth-weſt of Limburg; famous for it's mineral waters now, as it was anciently. The account Pliny gave of them was, that they taſted of iron, and were purgative; that they cured tertian agues and the ſtone, and when boiled grew turbid, and at laſt of a reddiſh colour. Modern travellers relate, that there are four mineral fountains much in eſteem in and near this place: the firſt called Geronſter, is in the middle of a thick wood two miles ſouth of Spa, being the beſt kept, and built up with ſtone, with a pavilion over it ſupported by four ſtone pillars, and near it ſtands a little houſe for the patients to warm themſelves in. This ſpring hath a ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell, and cauſes vomiting in ſome, but works chiefly by urine, as do all the reſt. The ſecond ſpring, called Saviniere, lies as far to the eaſt of the Spaw, whoſe waters are not ſo ſtrong as the former. The third is called Tonnelet, and riſes in a meadow near the Spaw, which contains more nitre than the reſt, but is very cold in the mouth and ſtomach. The fourth of theſe fountains, called Pohunt, in the middle of the village, (for the Spaw is but a village) which ſupplies moſt of the water that is ſent into foreign parts, and is beautified with a fine ſtone building, over which there is an inſcription, importing that theſe waters remove obſtructions, diſſolve hard ſwellings, dry up a ſuperfluity of moiſture, and ſtrengthen weakened limbs, if drank according to the advice of the learned. There are vaſt quantities of theſe waters ſent abroad to all countries in Europe. The ſeaſon for filling bottles with it is either in the heat of ſummer when it is very dry, or in the hardeſt froſts in winter, then the water is obſerved to be the ſtrongeſt, briſk and ſparkling.

Borchloen

St. Tron, &c.

Bilſen.

Haſſelt.

Mayeſick.

Horn, &c.

ſparkling. It is obſerved that they weigh two grains in three ounces more than Tunbridge, and four grains more than the Iſlington waters, and yet leſs than the common water by ſeveral grains. Other towns of any note mentioned by Geographers in the biſhoprick of Liege, are, 1. Borchloen, or Loots, twelve miles north of Liege, which formerly gave title to a Count, and was the capital of the territory of Loots. 2. St. Tron, or Truden, five miles weſt of Borchloen. 3. Bilſen, taken notice of for a nunnery of Ladies of quality there, who have the liberty of leaving their convent and marrying if they pleaſe. 4. Haſſelt, where the Biſhop has a palace. 5. Mayeſick, eighteen miles north of Maeſtricht, conſiderable for being a paſs over the Maes. 6. Horn, capital of a county of the ſame name. 7. Couvin. And 8. Verviers.

Munſter biſhoprick and principality.

Munſter city.

An inſurrection of the German Anabaptiſts.

The biſhoprick of Munſter lies on both ſides the river Ems; being bounded by the counties of Bentheim and Steinfurt on the north; by the biſhoprick of Oſnabrug and Paderborn towards the eaſt; by the county of Marck on the ſouth; and by the duchy of Cleve, and ſome part of Zutphen towards the weſt: extending an hundred miles in length, and in breadth in ſome places ſixty, in others forty, and in others ſcarce twenty miles. Munſter is a barren country, but no part of Weſtphalia produces better bacon, which they export all over Europe; ſo much admired, that it bears double the price of any other. The name of Munſter is ſaid to be derived from *Monaſterium*, there having been a noble monaſtery erected in the place where the capital city now ſtands; which was converted into a biſhoprick by CHARLES the Great about the year 785. The Biſhop of this dioceſe is a Count of the Empire, and abſolute Sovereign of the territories belonging to it: the preſent Biſhop is the Elector of Cologne, brother to the Elector of Bavaria, of whoſe election to this See an account has been already given in treating of the electorate of Cologne. The chief towns in this biſhoprick are, 1. Munſter, *Monaſterium*, the metropolis of Weſtphalia, ſituate on the river Aa, in a pleaſant fruitful plain, in the latitude of fifty two degrees, ſeventy miles to the northward of Cologne, and twenty-five ſouth-weſt of Oſnabrug. The town is generally well built of free ſtone. The cathedral and Jeſuits college are noble ſtructures; beſides which, there are four other collegiate churches. The Dean and Chapter of the cathedral church have the election of the Biſhop, whoſe revenue is computed to amount to near an hundred and fifty thouſand pounds per annum. Munſter was an Imperial city, and preſerved it's liberties till the year 1661, when their Biſhop reduced them under his power. The Roman Catholick is the eſtabliſhed religion, though the Proteſtants were very numerous here after the reformation, till ſome Enthuſiaſts and bigotted people brought a diſgrace on this perſuaſion by their extravagant behaviour and inſurrection againſt the government. Of which tranſaction Dr. NICHOLSON gives the following account: The firſt captain of theſe bigotted zealots, ſays he, was BERNARD ROTHMAN, a Lutheran Miniſter, who had the cure of St. MAURICE's church in the ſuburbs, who by his railing at the ſuperſtitious follies and innovations of the church of Rome in the year 1533, rendered himſelf exceeding popular. To this gentleman JOHN BUCKHOLT a taylor born at Leyden in Holland, aſſociated himſelf; he had been bred an Anabaptiſt, and thoroughly inſtructed in their doctrines, being withal naturally bold and ambitious, and a man of bright parts. By a cunning uſe and improvement of theſe qualifications he became in time a man of ſo much credit as to win over ROTHMAN, who before had only maintained LUTHER's tenets, to his opinion, and with him all the Proteſtants of the place immediately profeſſed themſelves Anabaptiſts. Their faction afterwards increaſed to ſuch a degree as to alarm the government, and the ſenate endeavoured in vain to apprehend the ringleaders: their numbers became ſo formidable that they compelled the magiſtrates to grant them a toleration. Hereupon JOHN of Leyden's inferior agents began to pretend to divine inſpiration; and getting a croud about them in the ſtreets, declared they had an immediate command from heaven to call men to repent, and to be rebaptized; and moſt part of the city coming over to them, they ſeized on the town-hall and the magazines, and invited the people of the neighbouring towns and villages to join them: and having thus filled the city with Anabaptiſts, they depoſed the Popiſh magiſtrates, and all others who refuſed to come into their ſchemes, ſupplying their places with thoſe of their own faction. Whereupon the Biſhop raiſed a body of forces and laid ſiege to the city in the year 1534, but was obliged to riſe from before it; which ſo fluſhed their great leader JOHN of Leyden, that he cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed King, and made one of his concubines Queen, tho' upon her diſapproving ſome of his extravagant projects he afterwards cut off her head. The year following, anno 1535, the Biſhop being re-inforced by the troops of the Elector of Cologne and the Langrave of Heſſe, ſurprized the city by a ſtratagem, and took the anabaptiſt King priſoner, who having been carried in deriſion to moſt of the courts of the German Princes, he was the year following torn in pieces with red-hot pincers, and his bones hung in an iron cage on the top of a ſteeple *in terrorem*.

The treaty of Weſtphalia concluded at Munſter.

Meppen.

Haſelunen.

Kloppenburg.

At Munſter alſo was concluded that treaty in the year 1648, which eſtabliſhed the Proteſtant religion in thoſe parts of the Empire where it was profeſſed, and put an end to a war of thirty years ſtanding, viz. from the year 1618, to that time, between the Proteſtant Princes of Germany and the Swede on one ſide, and the Emperor and the Popiſh Princes of the other, and has been made the baſis and foundation of almoſt every ſubſequent treaty, eſpecially as to the religion of the Empire. This is ſometimes called the treaty of Weſtphalia, having been negotiated in that circle; and at others the treaty of Oſnabrug, becauſe the Proteſtant Plenipotentiaries held their conferences at Oſnabrug, as the Popiſh Princes did theirs at this city of Munſter. The Swedes had been engaged in the German war eighteen years, and had poſſeſſed themſelves of an hundred ſtrong towns in the Empire; and by this treaty procured the duchies of Bremen and Verden, Weſtern Pomeren, the iſle of Rugen, and the city of Wiſmar to be confirmed to them; and might have had better terms, it is ſaid, if they had not preferred the intereſt of the Proteſtant Princes of Germany to their own. 2. Meppen, a fortified town on the frontiers of Frieſland, forty three miles north of Munſter. 3. Haſelunen, another fortreſs on the Haſe, ten miles eaſt of Meppen. 4. Vecht, the capital of a county, ſituate thirteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Kloppenburg. Other towns mentioned by geographers in this biſhoprick are, Kloppenburg, ſixteen miles north-eaſt of Haſelunen, Warenburg on the Ems, Stromberg, Coesfelt, Ahuſen, fifteen miles north-weſt of Meppen, capital of a large barony, Tilligt on the Ems, and Rheyne a ſmall city on the river Ems, eighteen miles north of Munſter.

Ahuſen. Tilligt, &c.

Paderborn biſhoprick

The next diviſion of this circle is the biſhoprick of Paderborn, bounded by the county of Lippe towards the north, by the duchy of Brunſwick on the eaſt, by the county of Waldeck on the ſouth, and by the duchy of Weſtphalia on the weſt; being about forty miles in length and twenty in breadth, containing in it twenty caſtles, twenty-four market-towns, fifty-four other pariſhes, and ſixteen monaſteries, ſubject both in ſpirituals and temporals to it's Sovereign, the preſent Elector of Cologne, who was choſen Biſhop of this See anno 1723. This country is remarkable for the variety of ſalt-ſprings and other fountains in it. In the tranſactions of the Royal Society, publiſhed in December 1665, there is an account of a ſpring in this territory, which loſes itſelf twice in twenty-four hours, returning with a great noiſe, and ſuch force, as to turn three mills not far from it's ſource, and is called by the inhabitants *Bolder Born*, or the Boiſterous Spring. And in the tranſactions of January following, there is an account of another remarkable fountain in this dioceſe called Metborn, which is a treble ſpring, two ſprings whereof, not a foot and a half diſtant from each other, have very different qualities, the one limpid, bluiſh, lukewarm, bubbling, and containing ſal-armoniac, ochra, iron, vitriol, allum, ſulphur, nitre, and orpiment: the other cold as ice, turbid and whitiſh, much ſtronger in taſte, and heavier than the other, containing much orpiment, ſalt, nitre, iron, and ſome ſal-armoniac, allum and vitriol; of which water all fowls that drink of it die ſoon after in convulſion-fits, but giving them ſome common ſalt immediately they die not ſo ſoon, and vinegar will recover them. Thoſe that have been opened after drinking this water, their lungs have been found quite ſhrivelled up, and yet it is a perfect cure for people troubled with worms. The third ſpring or ſtream which iſſues from this fountain, and is about twenty paces diſtant from the others, is of a greeniſh colour, very clear, and taſtes both ſour and ſweet, pleaſant enough, and from it's weight is ſuppoſed to be a mixture of the other two. This biſhoprick was founded by CHARLES the Great, about the year 777, to which he was incited by a miracle, according to the tradition of the place; for being about to encamp on that ſpot of ground where the city of Paderborn now ſtands, and in ſome diſtreſs for water for his army, on the knocking down the firſt tent-pin of his pavilion, there iſſued, it is ſaid, a plentiful ſpring, upon which fountain the Emperor cauſed the cathedral church to be built. But ſprings being ſo common in this country, it is obſerved there was little occaſion for the expence of a miracle, tho' it is generally allowed that CHARLES the Great was the founder of this See. This territory being generally barren, they have little to boaſt of beſides their hogs-fleſh, deer and other veniſon.

Paderborn city.

The chief towns of this dioceſe are, 1. Paderborn, the capital city, ſo named from the head or fountain of the river Pader, which ſprings in a torrent near the cathedral of this city, and falls into the Lippe near Neinhus. At this fountain, according to the Magdeburg chronicle, moſt of the inhabitants of Saxony and Weſtphalia were baptized about the year 780, by the order of CHARLES the Great, the natives being Pagans before he conquered this country. The city of Paderborn ſtands on the river Pader, thirty two miles north-weſt of Caſſel, and fifty-ſouth-eaſt of Munſter, a large populous and well-built town, regularly fortified, formerly a free Imperial city, but ſubject to the Biſhop, the preſent Elector of Cologne, at this day, as it has been to the Biſhops his predeceſſors ever ſince the year 1604. The citizens many of them embraced the doctrine of LUTHER at the reformation; but HERMAN, Elector of Cologne, being choſen their Biſhop, executed ſixteen of the principal burghers who had turned Proteſtants, and compelling the reſt to abjure their principles, the Roman catholick religion prevailed, and ſtill remains eſtabliſhed here.

Lippeſburg.

2. Lippeſpring, or Lippeſburg, five miles north of Paderborn, ſo called from the head of the river Lippe, which ariſes here in a large ſtream, ſix or eight paces in breadth, turning three or four mills before it leaves the town. Here the Dean and Chapter of Paderborn have a fine caſtle, or rather palace.

Warburg.

3. Warburg ſituate on the Dymel, eighteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Paderborn, in a fruitful country, conſiderable for the iron and lead mines about it, and a ſtrong palatable beer which they brew and vend to their neighbours.

Lude.

4. Lude, or Ludge, twenty-five miles north-eaſt of Paderborn, (uſually reckoned part of the county of Pyrmont, but ſubject to the Biſhop of this See;) and twenty-ſeven miles north-eaſt of Paderborn, remarkable for it's holy well, ſaid to be a remedy for moſt diſtempers, and in the days of ſuperſtition, held to have effected miraculous cures. The remaining towns of any note in this biſhoprick are, Peckleſheim, Boreatrick, Buren, Soltkot, Herſel and Welſburg.

Oſnabrug biſhoprick

The biſhoprick and principality of Oſnabrug has the county of Diepholt on the north, the counties of Minden and Ravenſberg on the eaſt, and Munſter, Steinfort and Bentheim, on the ſouth and weſt, extending about forty miles in length, and thirty in breadth where broadeſt, eſteemed one of the moſt fruitful parts of Weſtphalia, and ſubject to it's Biſhop, who is a Count of the Empire. This was the firſt biſhoprick founded by CHARLES the Great, who dedicated the cathedral to St. PETER, and the two martyrs CRISPIN and CRISPIANUS, and granted extraordinary privileges to this See, exempting them from all manner of ſervice and homage, even to the Emperor himſelf. Lutheraniſm prevailing here at the reformation, it was at length agreed by the treaty concluded anno 1648, (frequently ſtiled the Munſter and Weſtphalian treaty; and at others the treaty of Oſnabrug, from the Proteſtant Plenipotentiaries reſiding here,) that this biſhoprick, with the territories and revenues belonging to it, ſhould be enjoyed alternately by a Proteſtant and Papiſt, and that the Proteſtant Biſhop ſhould always be a Prince of the houſe of Brunſwick, in conſideration that the principality of Halberſtat had been taken from this houſe, and conferred on the Elector of Brandenburg. When they have a Popiſh Biſhop he is ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Cologne, but the Proteſtant Biſhop is indeed a temporal Prince, and has little to denominate him an eccleſiaſtick but the title. The preſent Biſhop is ERNEST-AUGUSTUS, Duke of York, his Britiſh Majeſty's Uncle.

Oſnabrug city.

The chief towns are, 1. The city of Oſnabrug, or Oſenbruck, the capital, ſo named from a bridge over the river Oſe at this place, ſituate in a fine plain, and beautified with ſeveral noble publick buildings. They are ſaid to have the beſt bread and beer here which is to be met with in Weſtphalia, and they have a tolerable trade in bacon and linen. The cathedral is in the hands of the Roman Catholicks, with the church and monaſtery of the Dominicans in the old city, and the collegiate church of St. JOHN in the new, (for the city is divided into the old and new town by the river Oſe.) The Proteſtants are maſters of the great parochial church of St. MARY in the old city, and both Proteſtants and Papiſts have a voice in the election of their magiſtrates; but of the five and twenty Canons which belong to the cathedral, eighteen are Papiſts, and the revenues of four more are enjoyed by the Jeſuits for the ſupport of their college; ſo that there are but three Proteſtant Canons, who have no voice in the election of the Popiſh Biſhop, that ſucceeds every other turn, as the Popiſh Canons have. The Biſhop's palace is fortified like a caſtle. Here it was that his late Britiſh Majeſty King GEORGE the Firſt was born on the 28th of May 1660, his father ERNEST-AUGUSTUS being then Biſhop and Prince of the place: and here the ſame King GEORGE died in the night of the tenth of June 1727, and ſome relate in the very room where he was born. 2. Iburg, ſituate ten miles ſouth of Oſnabrug, in the caſtle whereof the Biſhop formerly reſided. 3. Quakenburg, on the river Oſe, twenty-five miles to the northward of Oſnabrug. Other towns mentioned by geographers are, Vorde, Forſtenaw, Whitlag, and Mello; but theſe are not thought worth a deſcription.

Here King GEORGE was born, and died.

Iburg.

Quakenburg.

Mello, &c.

The duchies of Juliers, Cleves and Berg.

Until the year 1609, the duchies of Juliers, Cleves and Berg were ſubject to the ſame Sovereign; but upon the death of JOHN-WILLIAM, the laſt Duke, without iſſue male, the Emperor RODOLPH II granted theſe dukedoms, together with the counties of Marck and Ravenſberg, and the Barony of Ravenſtein, dependant upon them, to the houſe of Saxony, with a proviſo however for ſaving the rights of all other claimants. And in the reign of CHARLES V, the Elector of Brandenburg, the Duke of Newburg, the Duke of Deuxponts, and the Marquis of Burgow, having all married ſiſters, or daughters of the ſiſters of the laſt Duke WILLIAM, claimed their ſhares in the ſaid territories; but the Elector of Brandenburg and the Duke of Newburg obtaining the poſſeſſion of theſe countries by their arms, the other powers deſiſted from their pretenſions, and it was at length agreed that Juliers and Berg, with the territory of Ravenſtein, ſhould be enjoyed by the Duke of Newburg, and that the Elector of Brandenburg ſhould have for his ſhare the duchy of Cleve, with the counties of Marck and Ravenſberg; aud theſe Princes ſtill remain poſſeſſed of the territories reſpectively allotted to them, retaining each of them the titles to the whole, as do the poſterity of the other pretenders.

The duchy of Juliers.

The duchy of Juliers is ſituate between the Maes and the Rhine, and bounded by Guelderland on the north; by the duchy of Berg, and part of the electorate of Cologne towards the eaſt; by Limburg on the ſouth; and the Netherlands on the weſt; extending ſixty miles in length, and thirty in breadth, a plentiful country, abounding in corn, cattle, and rich paſtures, and plentifully ſupplied with wood; but what it is moſt remarkable for is, a fine breed of horſes, and woad for dying, which is gathered here in large quantities. The chief towns are, 1. Juliers, or Gulick, called by the Romans *Juliacum*, and ſaid to be ſo named from JULIUS CÆSAR, its ſuppoſed founder, ſituate on the river Roer, twenty-five miles eaſt of Maeſtricht, and as many weſt of Cologne. It is a ſmall fortified town, neatly built with brick, the citadel large and ſtrong, wherein is the palace of the ancient Dukes. 2. Aken, or *Aquis Granum*, uſually called Aix la Chapelle, a large Imperial city, fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Juliers, and twenty ſouth-eaſt of Maeſtricht, ſuppoſed to have taken its ancient name from SERENIUS GRANUS, Lieutenant-General of *Gallia Belgica*, in the reign of the Emperor ADRIAN, who having diſcovered the hot ſprings here about the year 53, firſt built and beautified them after the manner of the Roman baths, and then erected himſelf a palace in the place; in confirmation whereof, the natives ſtill ſhew a piece of ancient architecture, which they call *Turris Grani*, and relate that it is a part of the ruins of that General's palace. This town is called by the French, *Aix la Chapelle*, from a chapel in the great church much reſorted to by pilgrims, containing a multitude of reliques in high veneration among the Roman Catholicks. The town is ſituated in a fruitful valley, encompaſſed with mountains and woods, and yet the air is eſteemed exceeding wholeſom. It may be divided into the inward and outward city: the inward city is ſurrounded by a wall about three quarters of a league in circumference, having ten gates; and the outward wall about a league and a half in circumference, in which there are eleven gates. Some rivulets run thro' the town, which keep it very clean, and turn ſeveral mills; beſides which there are twenty publick fountains, and many private ones: and as the ſtone quarries in the neighbourhood furniſh them with excellent materials, their buildings are ſuitably magnificent, of which the Senate-houſe, or the Stadthouſe, and the cathedral are the chief; beſides which there are thirty other parochial or collegiate churches. The Stadthouſe is a ſtately fabrick, built in the year 1533, adorned with the ſtatues of all the Emperors ſince CHARLES the Great, and conſiſts of three ſtories, the two firſt divided by ſeveral partitions, but the upper ſtory is one entire room, of an hundred and ſixty-two feet in length, and ſixty in breadth, where the new-elected Emperor uſed to entertain the Electors and all the Princes of the Empire at their coronation; for here the Emperor formerly received his firſt crown of iron, as he did a ſecond of ſilver at Milan, and a third of gold at Rome. In this hall are ſeveral fine pieces of painting, particularly one of the reſurrection, and another of CHARLES the Great, giving the charter to the city of Aken. In the middle of the market-place before the Stadthouſe is a noble fountain, admired for the largeneſs of its dimenſions and curious workmanſhip, being ſupplied by four ſprings, which fall into a copper baſon, thirty foot diameter, from whence it is conveyed quite through the city, and on the top of the fountain is a large braſs ſtatue of CHARLEMAIN in armour gilt, with his face towards Germany. On the edges of the braſs ciſtern is an inſcription importing that GRANUS a Roman Prince, firſt diſcovered and built the hot baths in this city. The cathedral is of Gothick architecture, having a high ſteeple at the weſt-end, adorned with pyramids, and covered with a cupola in the middle. On the inſide are a vaſt number of pillars of braſs and marble, gilded ſtatues, brazen doors, and a

Juliers city.

Aken, or Aix la Chapelle.

great deal of Moſaic work. Over the place where Charles the Great was firſt interred, hangs a very large crown, made of ſilver and braſs gilt, the gift of the Emperor Frederick I, ſurrounded with forty-eight ſtatues a foot high, and thirty-two leſſer ſtatues, all of ſilver. The ſame Emperor Frederick removed the body of Charlemain, and buried part of it under the altar in the choir in a ſilver coffin, and the other part near the wall of the old building, and covered it with the ſame tombſtone of white marble, which it had before, with the burſt of Proserpina upon it, ſuppoſed to have covered Julius Cæſar's tomb. The principal reliques which pilgrims reſort hither to adore, are, 1. The Virgin Mary's gown, in which ſhe was dreſſed at the incarnation of our Saviour, made of wool, ſays Dr. Nicholson, not unlike that which grows on the coco-tree; but this deſcription is altogether unintelligible to me, who could never diſcover any thing like wool on a coco-tree; but certain it is the gown muſt be of very durable materials to laſt ſo long, or it muſt have been preſerved by a miracle as great as any that are aſcribed to it. 2. The cloth girt about our Saviour when he ſuffered, being of very coarſe linen. 3. A piece of the cord with which he was bound when he was delivered to Pilate. 4. Some of the blood of the firſt martyr St. Stephen, enchaſed in gold and precious ſtones, on which the Emperors are ſworn at their inauguration. 5. The picture of the Virgin Mary with our Saviour in her arms, emboſſed upon a jaſper two inches in breadth, found in the Emperor Charles the Great's tomb, and ſaid to be the work of St. Luke. 6. A manuſcript of the Goſpels found in the ſame tomb, which with a great many other reliques, it is ſaid, were procured by Charles the Great of Aaron King of Perſia, and of the Patriarchs of Jeruſalem and Conſtantinople. At the eaſt end of the cathedral is a throne, upon which our Saviour is repreſented ſitting majeſtically in a long robe, and round the throne a repreſentation of the four animals mentioned in Ezekiel's viſion. Over his head is a circle of golden ſtars, and underneath them the ſymbol of the croſs, ſaid to have appeared in the air to the Emperor Constantine, when he conquered Maxentius. Here is alſo a repreſentation of the four and twenty elders riſing from their ſeats, laying down their crowns, and proſtrating themſelves before the throne. In this church alſo is a pulpit covered with plates of gold, as is the altar in the choir, whereon is repreſented our Saviour's paſſion. In the upper part of the church over againſt the Prince's altar, is a throne of white marble, where the Emperors uſed to ſit, and is ſuppoſed to be the ſame which Charles the Great placed there nine hundred years ago.

This city is governed by a Mayor, two Burgomaſters, fourteen Aldermen, and a hundred and twenty Common-council-men. The Mayor preſides among the Aldermen, and is conſtituted by the Duke of Juliers; the Burgomaſters, Aldermen and Council, are choſen by the companies of the city, of which there are fourteen or fifteen; and the territories of this city are ſo large, as to comprehend two hundred villages.

The hot baths at Aix.

The hot baths of Aken occaſion it to be much reſorted to, whereof three are within the inner wall. 1. The Emperor's bath. 2. The little bath. And, 3. The bath of St. Quirinus. The firſt of theſe is in the ſame place, and ſupplied by the ſame ſprings as that was which Charles the Great ſo much delighted in, and uſed to invite his nobility and great officers to bathe with him in it; for it was the cuſtom anciently to bathe an hundred together, though now the bath is divided by ſeveral partitions. Theſe baths riſe ſo hot that they let them cool twelve hours before they are uſed; but thoſe which riſe without the inner wall of the town are not ſo hot. The ſmell of the latter is offenſive, and the water in the ciſterns not tranſparent. Here is alſo a fountain of warm water, which is drunk in ſummer mornings for many chronical diſtempers. Leſs than a quarter of a mile from the ſouth gate of the city, ſtands the village of Porcetum, ſo called from the droves of wild hogs which formerly frequented the woods near it, where is a nunnery, the Abbeſs of which is a Princeſs of the Empire. The village in general is well built, and has four handſom churches in it. The hot ſprings here lie on each ſide a ſmall cool rivulet, which runs through the town, and are by pipes conveyed into fourteen houſes, forming eight and twenty baths. The water of theſe ſprings is clear and pleaſant, without any offenſive ſmell, but much hotter than that of Aken, being uſually cooled eighteen hours before it can be endured. There are ſeveral mines of lead, coal, vitriol, calmey or lapis calaminaris, near this place. With the calmey they make braſs, by mixing eight and twenty pounds of the beſt Swediſh copper, with an hundred pounds of this mineral, to which they add ſome broken pieces of braſs, and a good quantity of droſs of both the ſimples above mentioned. Theſe they melt in crucibles over a hot furnace twelve hours, then putting eight of theſe crucibles into one, they let the droſſy parts boil over, the purer ſubſiding at bottom; then they pour the liquid metal into a frame of ſtone bound with hoops of iron, and thus run it into large braſs plates, which are afterwards cut in pieces with a kind of ſciſſors or ſhears.

Thoſe who have deſcribed the virtues of the baths of Aken, and particularly Dr. Blondel, relate that they are good againſt all affections of the nerves; ſuch as convulſions, palſies, numbneſs, tremblings, gout, ſciaticas, contractions, ſwellings, diſtempers of the bowels, ſtomach, ſpleen, inveterate head-aches, vertigo's, nephritical diſtempers, cold affections of the womb, ſtoppage or flux of the menſes, barrenneſs, abortion, and ſcabs of all ſorts. The waters of the city and thoſe of Porcet, may both of them be drank, and thus taken are ſaid to be good againſt, 1. Hot diſtempers of the liver, ſpleen, reins and bowels. 2. Againſt obſtructions of the meſentery, pancreas, liver, ſpleen and reins. 3. The yellow jaundice, cachexy and dropſy proceeding from thence. 4. Inveterate and ſtubborn fevers, new tertians and quartans. 5. The whites in women. 6. Bleeding at the noſe and flux of the menſes. 7. Againſt worms, which they kill of all ſorts. 8. They help conception, and dry over-moiſt parts. 9. They purge the urinary veſſels of all impurities. 10. They cure ſtoppage of water and ſtranguries. 11. They cure the gout, ſcurvy, rheumatiſm, cholick, ſcrophulous diſtempers, impoſthumes of the meſentery, &c.

The city of Aken profeſſed the Proteſtant religion ſoon after the reformation, on which account the people were miſerably haraſſed by the Imperialiſts during the civil wars of Germany, till at length Popery was again eſtabliſhed, and is now the only religion publickly profeſſed by the natives: but Proteſtants are permitted to reſide here, and to go to a church in the neighbourhood under the dominion of the States General, when they celebrate divine ſervice.

The Emperors were uſually crowned in this city for five hundred years after CHARLEMAIN, and by the Golden Bull made in the time of CHARLES IV. the Emperor was to receive his firſt crown here; but that cuſtom of crowning him with three crowns hath been long ſince diſuſed; and at every coronation the magiſtrates who have the cuſtody of CHARLEMAIN's ſword, ſhoulder-belt, and the goſpel in golden letters, which are uſed at that ceremony, deliver them to the Elector of Mentz, and the Emperor declares that his being crowned elſewhere ſhall not prejudice the privileges of the city of Aken.

Duren.

Enſkirchen, &c.

3. Duren, ſituate on the river Rore, ten miles ſouth of Juliers, a little uniform well-built city, with rivulets running through the ſtreets. This place pretends to great antiquity, and in the church of St. MARTIN, the fineſt building in the town, they ſhew the head of St. ANNE, mother to the Virgin MARY, which admired relique formerly brought crouds of Pilgrims hither. It was an Imperial city, but is now ſubject to the Duke of Neuburg, Elector Palatine. Other towns in the duchy of Juliers, mentioned by Geographers, are, Munſter-Eifel, Bedbur, Enſkirchen, Nideck, Boiſlar, Linnich, Dalen, Waſenberg, Sittard, Tudder and Saſteren; but it ſeems they do not merit a particular deſcription.

Berg duchy.

Duſſeldorp.

Eſſen.

The duchy of Berg, having been allotted to the Duke of Neuburg Elector Palatine, and now ſubject to this Prince, as well as the duchy of Juliers, naturally comes to be deſcribed next. Berg, or *Montium Ducatus*, as the Latins called it, from it's being a mountainous country, is bounded by the county of Marck on the north, by the duchy of Weſtphalia towards the eaſt, by Cologne on the ſouth, and by the Rhine which divides it from the duchy of Juliers on the weſt: extending near fifty miles in length upon the banks of the Rhine, and about twenty miles in breadth where broadeſt. The country being for the moſt part rocky and mountainous, affords very little arable or paſture, and is conſequently thinly peopled. The chief towns are firſt Duſſeldorp the capital of the duchy, a large fortified town, pleaſantly ſituated near the eaſtern bank of the Rhine; twenty-five miles to the northward of Cologne, and ſix to the ſouthward of Keyſarwaert, The town receives it's name from the little river Duſſel, which here unites it's ſtreams with the Rhine. It is generally well-built, and the publick buildings make a handſom appearance from the river, among which are the Duke or Elector's palace, who frequently reſides here: the collegiate church of St. MARTIN is a handſom ſtructure, where are the tombs of the ancient Dukes of Juliers and Berg; and the Jeſuits college is eſteemed a very fine building. It was anciently an Imperial city, but now ſubject to the Elector Palatinate; the principal trade of the place conſiſts in corn, which they import from the Low Countries and tranſport to Cologne, and other towns in Germany. 2. Eſſen, fifteen miles north-eaſt of Duſſeldorp, where ſtands a noble nunnery, to which the beſt part of the town, with ſeveral adjoining mannors belong. Only ladies of noble deſcent are admitted here, who are at liberty to leave the convent and marry if they think fit. The natives of Eſſen are reckoned excellent artificers in iron, and particularly in fire-arms. Other cities of any note in the county of Berg, are Benſburg, Solingen and Wipperford.

Benſburg, &c.

Ravenſtein barony.

The remaining part of the territories allotted to the Duke of Neuburg in the diſpute between him and the Elector of Brandenburg is the lordſhip of Ravenſtein, a ſmall barony between Guelderland and Brabant, receiving it's name from the caſtle of Ravenſtein, a fort on the Maes four or five miles below Grave.

JOHN-WILLIAM, the laſt Duke of Cleves, Juliers, &c. dying without iſſue, in 1609, left behind him four ſiſters, who were married to the Elector of Brandenburg, the Duke of Neuburg (anceſtor to the preſent Elector Palatine,) the Duke of Deuxponts, and the Marquis of Burgow. The firſt, for having married the eldeſt ſiſter, claimed the whole ſucceſſion: the ſecond formed the ſame pretenſions, becauſe the eldeſt ſiſter died before her brother, and his wife was the eldeſt of the ſurviving ſiſters: the other two inſiſted on an equal partition to be divided among the four ſiſters. Beſides thoſe Princes, the Elector of Saxony ſet on foot an old pretenſion; and the Duke of Nevers did the ſame. And, laſt of all, the Emperor pretended, that thoſe countries ſhould be ſequeſtered in his hands, and diſpoſed of as he judged proper. But there was no regard had to the Emperor's pretenſions; and his ſon, Archduke LEOPOLD, whom he ſent to take poſſeſſion in his name, was drove out by the Elector of Brandenburg, and the Duke of Neuburg.

Theſe two Princes only maintained their claim by arms; the former being aſſiſted by the Dutch, and the latter by the Spaniards, who were then in poſſeſſion of the Netherlands. The Dutch army was commanded by Prince MAURICE of Naſſau, and the Spaniſh by the marquis of Spinola. So that (a thing which never before happened) the States and the Spaniards made war upon one another, in the name of their allies, though the truce that had been lately made, ſtill continued betwixt themſelves. There was not ſo much as one blow given on either ſide. The two armies induſtriouſly avoided meeting one another. The campaigns were ſpent in taking towns; ſo that the moſt diligent of thoſe two great Generals was he who made the greateſt progreſs. Upon one's getting firſt to a place, the other did nothing to hinder it's being taken, but bent his march full ſpeed to another place, and ſeized it, which he kept by virtue of his being the firſt comer.

During theſe things, a congreſs was held at Zanten, in order to an amicable accommodation betwixt the chief claimants, at which the ambaſſadors of France, Great Britain, Spain, and the States General, aſſiſted; but this came to nothing. At laſt Brandenburg and Neuburg made an agreement, and divided theſe dominions betwixt themſelves. The firſt had the duchy of Cleves, and the counties of Mark and Ravenſburg; and the latter the duchy of Juliers and Berg, with the ſmall territory of Ravenſtein.

Under this agreement the two Electors of Brandenburg and Palatine have lived quietly ever ſince. But the preſent Elector Palatine being the laſt direct male deſcendant of the houſe of Neuburg, has nominated for his ſucceſſor the Prince of Sultzbach, the neareſt of kin to him by a collateral branch of the Neuburg family; which, however, proceeds not from the lady, by whom the Palatine family poſſeſſes Juliers and Berg.— Indeed this young Prince, ſtrictly ſpeaking, is not related to his Electoral Highneſs.

The King of Pruſſia forms his pretenſions of ſucceeding in right of his maternal anceſtor, on failure of heirs of the Elector Palatine. Theſe pretenſions were ſettled by a family-treaty (betwixt the houſes of Brandenburg and Neuburg) of mutual ſucceſſion to the whole dominions of the laſt Duke of Cleves, on the failure of either of their male iſſue; and this treaty was renewed in 1670.

To this his Electoral Highneſs replies, That his predeceſſors could not make ſuch a treaty; and that he has as good a right to annul it as they had to make it. But the particular reaſon which is whiſpered at the Palatine court, why this family-bargain, or treaty, ought not to take place, will hardly paſs, viz. becauſe it was made over their cups. If this reaſon was good, there are very few contracts, it is to be feared, made, whether in this country, or in any other, but what would be liable to a new diſcuſſion.

To diſappoint his Pruſſian Majeſty as far as poſſible, and to procure to the Prince of Sultzbach the entire dominions now united in the Palatine houſe, his Electoral Highneſs omits nothing that can be done; and the young heir being under age, has named for his adminiſtrator (and perhaps for his ſucceſſor, in caſe he dies before his majority) Duke FERDINAND of Bavaria, whoſe houſe, and that of Neuburg, are already knit together by ties of blood: it is not therefore to be doubted, but the Bavarian houſe will interpoſe in this ſucceſſion.

The duchies of Juliers and Berg (the countries in diſpute) lying in the neighbourhood of France and the United Provinces, thoſe two powers are nearly intereſted in the perſon who ſhall ſucceed to them. So that the iſſue of this grand affair does not concern the Germanick body alone; tho' we may be ſure, that there is not one member thereof, that is not uneaſy at the thoughts of an unequal diſtribution of power among them. This being the caſe, according to the preſent ſtate of Europe, notwithſtanding the juſtneſs of his pretenſions, his Pruſſian Majeſty muſt reſt contented with what ſhall be given him. Happy if he ſhall be able to obtain any thing, in the way of negotiation; for, unleſs unforeſeen opportunities ſhould offer, it is in vain for him to try to do himſelf juſtice by arms; not but thoſe countries are worth fighting for, as they bring in near 200,000 l. per annum to the Elector. But the King of Pruſſia has neither ally, nor well-wiſher in the preſent affair; but on the contrary, he is ſurrounded with neighbours, who are far from being deſirous of contributing to the augmentation of a power, which already they look upon with a jealous eye, and think too formidable.

The gentleman who drew up this ſtate of the caſe, obſerves, that it would greatly contribute to the advancement of the proteſtant intereſt, and the ſtrengthening the barrier againſt France, were thoſe countries to be poſſeſſed by the King of Pruſſia. On the other hand, it might not only be of ill conſequence to the proteſtant religion, but dangerous to the liberties of Europe, if the ſucceeding Sovereign ſhould be under French influence.

Cleve duchy.

The territories allotted to the Elector of Brandenburg, as has been obſerved already, were the duchy of Cleve, with the counties of Marck and Ravenſberg. The duchy of Cleve or Cleef, lies on both ſides the Rhine, and is bounded by part of the United Provinces towards the north, by Munſter on the eaſt, by the duchy of Juliers on the ſouth, and by Guelderland and Brabant towards the weſt: extending upwards of forty miles from north to ſouth, and about five and twenty from eaſt to weſt. The chief rivers are, 1. The Rhine which paſſes through the middle of it to Schencken Schans, a fort belonging to the United Provinces, where it divides itſelf into two branches, whereof that which runs by Arnheim retains the old name, but the other which paſſes on to Nimeguen, is called Wale. 2. The Roer, which riſes in the county of Marck, and falls into the Rhine between Duiſburg and Roerort. 3. The Lippe, which riſes in Weſtphalia, and unites it's waters with the Rhine near Weſel. And 4. The Nierſe, which riſes in the dukedom of Juliers, and joins the Maes near Gennep. The country is generally mountainous and woody; but is not deſtitute however of corn and cattle. The chief towns are, 1. Cleve, or Cleef, the *Clivia* of the Latins, ſaid to be ſo named from it's ſituation on the declivity of a hill between the Rhine and the Maes, and ſurrounded by clifts and craggy rocks, about twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Nimeguen, and ſixty north-weſt of Cologne. It is ſuppoſed by ſome to be the old *Colonia Ulpia Trajana*, and by the ruins about it appears to have been of much larger extent than it is at preſent. There is an inſcription alſo here on the ſouth gate under the monument of EUMENIUS-RHETOR, who is ſaid to have taught oratory in this city, importing, that he reſided here in the time of JULIUS CÆSAR, who founded the caſtle; of AUGUSTUS CÆSAR, who had a gariſon in it; of ULPIUS TRAJANUS, who made it a colony; and of ÆLIUS ADRIANUS, who enlarged it and reduced it into the form of a city: but whether this inſcription be not of a later date than it pretends, I find is very much diſputed. The city is at preſent ſmall, but very well peopled: neither the town nor caſtle of any great ſtrength. On the weſt ſide of the town lies the park of Prince MAURICE of Naſſau, admired for the fine water-works, canals and grotto's in it; and above theſe is a high hill called the Sternberg, from whence it is ſaid Utrecht may be diſcerned at fifty miles diſtance, with forty more cities and great towns, twelve whereof are ſeen through ſo many viſto's, at the end of each of which appears a fine city. The private houſes in Cleve are but mean; and the only publick buildings mentioned by travellers are, 1. The great church, a monaſtery of Capuchins, and another of Franciſcans. As the Elector of Brandenburg, the preſent King of Pruſſia, is Sovereign of the country, the religion countenanced by the government is Calviniſm; but moſt of the churches are poſſeſt by the Papiſts in this city as well as in the reſt of the duchy, by virtue of the agreement abovementioned with the Elector Palatine on the diviſion of the country, who in conſideration thereof promiſed not to diſturb the Proteſtants in that part of the country allotted to him. 2. Embrick, ſituate on the eaſtern ſide of the Rhine to the northward of Cleve, taken by the French in the year 1672, when they invaded the Netherlands; but reſtored again in 1674. 3. Gennep, ſituate at the conflux of the Nierſe and Maes, near the confines of Guelderland, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Cleve, anciently a large fortified town, and well ſituated for trade; but the fortifications were demoliſhed by

Clevecity.

Embrick.

Gennep.

Weſel. Rees. Roerort. Duiſburg. Griet, &c.

by the French in 1674, on their reſtoring it; and lying expoſed in every war to the ravages of the armies on both ſides, has entirely loſt it's trade, and is little better than a village. 4. Weſel, ſituate in a plain on the eaſtern bank of the Rhine near the mouth of the river Lippe, twenty five miles ſouth-eaſt of Cleve, a fortified town, eſteemed the largeſt and beſt-peopled of any in the duchy, and well ſituated for trade, but miſerably haraſſed by the French in the late wars. The only publick building here mentioned by travellers is a fine hoſpital richly endowed. 5. Rees, a large fortified town twelve miles north-weſt of Weſel, taken by the French in 1672, and reſtored in the year 1704. 6. Roerort, a little fortified town at the mouth of the river Roer. 7. Duiſburg, ſuppoſed to be the ancient *Teutoburgum*, ſituate on the confines of Cleve and Berg, fifteen miles north-weſt of Duſſeldorp; once an Imperial city, but now ſubject to the King of Pruſſia as Duke of Cleve. It had formerly a great trade, ſince removed from this, as from ſeveral other German cities, to Francfort. An univerſity was founded here by the Elector of Brandenburg, anno 1655. The publick buildings of any conſideration are the churches of St. SALVADOR and St. MARY, with the monaſteries and nunneries, of which there are ſeveral in the place. The remaining towns mentioned by geographers in the duchy of Cleve, are Griet, Goch, Calcar, Santen, Burick, Alphen, Orſoy, and Dinſlaken.

Marck county. Hamm. Unna. Altena. Werden. Soeſt.

Another of the counties allotted to the Elector of Brandenburg, on compoſing the differences between him and the Duke of Neuburg, was Marck, the largeſt county in Weſtphalia; ſo named, as is ſuppoſed, from having been the ancient boundary of Germany towards *Gallia Belgica*, and is ſituate between the rivers Lippe and Roer, upwards of forty miles in length, and about the ſame in breadth; containing fifteen bailiwicks or lordſhips, which derive their names from as many towns; the chief whereof are, 1. Hamm, twenty-five miles ſouth of Munſter, ſituate in one of the moſt fruitful parts of Weſtphalia, which produces plenty of corn and flax. It was anciently a Hans-Town, but the principal buſineſs of the natives at preſent is the entertainment of travellers, who uſually lie here in their paſſage from the duchy of Cleve and the Netherlands to Brandenburg and Brunſwick. 2. Unna, ſituate in a large plain, ten miles ſouth of Hamm, formerly alſo a Hans-Towns, and a place of trade; but ſuffered ſo much in the wars between the houſes of Brandenburg and Neuburg, that it has not yet recovered itſelf. 3. Altena, which ancienly gave a title to the Counts of Hamm, and was then a large city, but does not merit a deſcription at preſent. 4. Werden, ſituate on the Roer, ten miles north-eaſt of Duſſeldorp, where vaſt quantities of Weſtphalia bacon is cured and tranſported into foreign countries. 5. Soeſt, a fine Imperial city on the river Arſe, fifteen miles eaſt of Hamm, the largeſt town in Weſtphalia next to Munſter, conſiſting of ten pariſhes, with many more churches and chapels, among which the collegiate church of St. PATROCLUS is under the juriſdiction of the Archbiſhop of Cologne.

Ravenſberg county and caſtle. Bilevelt. Herfurt.

The county of Ravenſberg, the remaining part of the territories allotted to the Elector of Brandenburg, is bounded by the biſhoprick of Oſnabrug on the north; by the county of Lippe on the eaſt and ſouth; and by the biſhoprick of Munſter on the weſt; taking it's name from a fortreſs, ſituate on a high hill, ſixteen miles ſouth of Oſnabrug: and here Dr. NICHOLSON obſerves, that moſt of the ancient ſeats of the German Princes and Nobility are thus ſituated upon high hills, which is the reaſon that ſo many countries and lordſhips in Germany terminate in *berg*, which, in the language of the country, ſignifies a hill; and we may further obſerve, that the reaſon ſo many towns in Germany end in *burg* is, that *burg*, or *borch* as the natives pronounce it, is High Dutch for a city or town. Ravenſberg is a rocky mountainous country; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Bilevelt, a fortified town, ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Ravenſberg, ſituate at the bottom of a high hill, which commands it. 2. Hervorden, or Herfurt, pleaſantly ſituated at the conflux of the Aa and Wehre ſeven miles north-eaſt of Bilevelt, in which is a noble nunnery, the Abbeſs whereof is a Princeſs of the Empire, and has a vote by her Deputy in the Diet. 'One of the Abbeſſes ſince the reformation was the Princeſs ELIZABETH, ſiſter to the famous Prince RUPERT and the late Princeſs SOPHIA, niece of CHARLES I, King of England. The miracle of her ſex, ſays Dr. NICHOLSON, as is evident from the letters which paſſed between her and DESCARTES, publiſhed in that great man's works. The nuns of this convent, according to the ſame author, ſoon after the reformation embraced the Proteſtant religion; and ſince the Elector of Brandenburg became their Sovereign have profeſſed the doctrines of CALVIN. On the top of the hill, a little without the city, ſtands another convent of religious ladies, which is only a nurſery to the former, to the Abbeſs and nuns whereof it owes it's foundation. They have here all ſorts of offices in our collegiate churches, as Deanneſs, Treaſureſs, &c. all which are in the diſpoſal of the Abbeſs of Herfurt, as ſupreme Governeſs of the place. Of the firſt foundation of the church here take the following ſtory, ſays my author, as I had it from one of the Vicars in the choir. The nuns at Herfurt having reſolved to build a church, were informed by a poor ſhepherd, that the Virgin MARY, their Patroneſs, had appeared to him in the likeneſs of a dove, ſitting on the ſtump of a tree, and commanded him to declare, that ſhe had a mind it ſhould be built upon this hill. The holy ſiſters not giving credit to his words at firſt, wiſhed that (to atteſt the truth of what he reported) he ſhould firſt hold a red-hot iron in his bare hand, and afterwards go bare-foot over ſome glowing plough-ſhares; both which ordeals he having performed without harm, the miracle was confirmed, and the church built as it now ſtands. Near the altar they ſhew you the formentioned ſtump guarded with bars of iron: and they have yearly a great fair on this hill, which, in remembrance of this miracle, they call viſion-market.'

Engern. Vlotowe.

3. Engern, the ancient *Angrivaria*, where King WITEKIND kept his court, and lies interred; formerly a conſiderable city, but now reduced to a village. The Elector of Cologne however ſtill ſtiles himſelf Duke of Engern. And, 4. Vlotowe, ſituate on the Weſer, fifteen miles eaſt of Herfurt, ſaid to be well ſituated for trade, becauſe the river is deep enough here for ſhips of burthen; which I am apt to believe a miſtake, becauſe the river Weſer is unnavigable much lower for large veſſels.

Minden duchy. Minden city. Peterſhagen.

The duchy of Minden alſo belongs to the King of Pruſſia, being given with Halberſtat and ſome other territories by the treaty of Munſter, anno 1648, in lieu of that part of Pomerania then yielded to the Swedes. This country lies between the county of Hoy on the north, and the county of Lippe on the ſouth, extending about five and twenty miles in length, and twenty in breadth; and towards the ſouth yields plenty of corn, of which they export great quantities; but on the north it is pretty much incumbered with woods and mountains. The chief towns are, 1. Minden, the capital, ſituate on the weſt bank of the Weſer, thirty-five miles eaſt of Oſnabrug; a large city, and a Biſhop's See at the reformation, but ſecularized by the treaty of Munſter, and the revenues of the biſhoprick aſſigned to the Elector of Brandenburg, who ſtill enjoys it under the title of a dukedom. The cathedral, according to tradition, takes up the place where King WITTEKIND's palace ſtood, which, it is ſaid, he deſired might be converted into a church on his being baptized. 2. Peterſhagen, ſituate on the ſame river, about three miles below Minden, where the Biſhops of this See formerly had a palace.

Lippe county. Diethmold. Lippe city. Lemgow. Horn. Ufflen.

The little county of Lippe lies between the duchy of Weſtphalia and the county of Ravenſberg, being ſomewhat more than thirty miles in length, and ten in breadth, governed by its proper Counts, an ancient family, who pretend to derive their pedigree from MANLIUS, who defended the Roman Capitol againſt the Gauls; but however that be, it is generally agreed they are of Roman extraction, and are at preſent divided into the branches of Diethmold, Brackel, and Buchenburg. The chief towns in their territories are, 1. Diethmold, or Dietmelle, where the eldeſt branch of this houſe have their reſidence, twelve miles north-eaſt of Paderborn ſuppoſed to derive its name from TEAT, or DITH, a pagan deity, worſhipped here before the conqueſt of the Saxons by CHARLES the Great, from whence CLUVERIUS concludes this to have been the ancient *Teutoburgum*, a word of the ſame import as Diethmold. It is at preſent but a ſmall place, and has little other trade than what is occaſioned by the reſidence of the court. 2. Lippe, or Lippeſtat, called *Lippia* by the Latins, and takes its name from the river Lippe, on which it is ſituated, twenty miles weſt of Paderborn; the chief trade of the inhabitants being in timber and planks, for the building ſhips and barges on the Rhine. 3. Lemgow, a free city, ſituate on the river Pega, fifteen miles north of Paderborn, in a plentiful country, abounding with corn, the natives an ingenious induſtrious people, and generally Lutherans. 4. Horn, not far from Diethmold, ſuppoſed to be the place where the Roman General QUINTILIUS VARUS was defeated by the Germans, and the legions under his command cut in pieces; anciently ſubject to its own Counts, till annexed to the territories of Lippe, about the year 1567. 5. Ufflen, or Saltz Ufflen, ſituate between Lemgow and Herfurt, conſiderable for its ſalt-ſprings and a manufacture of cloth.

Pyrmont county and town.

The county of Pyrmont was alſo annexed to the territories of Lippe, upon the death of the laſt Count of Pyrmont and Spiegelburg without male iſſue, who was killed at the battle of St. Quintin, about the year 1557, the chief town whereof is of the ſame name, and ſituated ſixteen miles to the eaſtward of Lemgow. It is famous at preſent for its mineral waters, which occaſions a great reſort of the German nobility hither, theſe being preferred even to the waters of the Spaw, and exported to the moſt diſtant countries in Europe.

Ritberg county and town.

The county of Ritberg alſo had a Count of its own till the year 1562, when the family became extinct; and it is now under the dominion of the Counts of Lippe. The chief town is Ritberg, ſituate near the head of the river Ems, ten miles north-weſt of Lippe, of which I meet with no particular deſcription.

Schawenberg county. Schawenberg caſtle. Buckenburg.

The county of Schawenberg is bounded by the dominions of Brunſwick on the north, eaſt and ſouth; and by the county of Lippe and principality of Minden on the weſt; now alſo ſubject, part of it to the Counts of Lippe, and the other to the Prince of Heſſe, being about thirty miles in length, and ſixteen in breadth, a country affording plenty of good corn and paſture, and well watered with rivers; particularly the Weſer, the Hammel, the Awe, the Caſpaw, and the Exter. Here is alſo a great lake which goes by the name of the Steinhudderſce, five miles in length and two in breadth, which yields them plenty of fiſh, eſpecially pearch. Their principal commodities are ſalt, timber, coals, allom, chalk, and veniſon; and the free-ſtone in their quarries is ſo good, that it is daily exported to Holland, Flanders, Lubeck, &c. They had alſo formerly ſome copper-mines, which yielded gold and ſilver, but they are either exhauſted or loſt at this day. The chief places in this county are, 1. The old fortreſs of Schawenberg, ſituate on the top of a high hill on the eaſt-ſide of the river Weſer, ſixteen miles eaſt of Minden, the ancient ſeat of their Counts. 2. Buckenburg, twelve miles ſouth of Schawenberg, conſiderable at preſent only for being the reſidence of the ſecond branch of the houſe of Lippe. Other places of any conſequence in this county are, Stathagen, ſeventeen miles weſt of Hanover; Oldendorf, five miles ſouth-eaſt of Scawenberg; and Saxenhagen, ſixteen miles north-weſt of Hanover.

Hoye county. Ucht and Frendenburg. Hoye. Nyenburg. Stolzenow, &c.

The county of Hoye is bounded by Bremen on the north, by Lunenburg on the eaſt, by Minden on the ſouth, and by Diepholt on the weſt. It was governed by its own Counts till the death of OTHO, the laſt Count, anno 1582; upon whoſe deceaſe the greateſt part of this county devolved on the houſes of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, and is now the inheritance of his Britiſh Majeſty. The houſe of Heſſe enjoyed another ſmall part of this county, wherein the towns of Ucht and Frendenburg are ſituated, but transferred their intereſt in it to the Counts of Bentheim. The chief towns are, 1. Hoye, ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the Weſer, thirty miles north of Minden, a ſmall fortified town, with a ſtrong caſtle adjoining to it. 2. Nyenburg, ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the Weſer, a fortified town, ten miles eaſt of Hoye. The reſt of the towns and places of any conſequence in this county, are Stoltzenow, Erenburg, Sierk, Steigerberg, Sidenburg, Depenaw, Burenburg, Lavenhaw, and Bruckhauſen, all which are ſituated in that part of Hoye which belongs to his Britiſh Majeſty.

Diepholt county and town.

The ſmall county of Diepholt is bounded by Delmenhorſt on the north, by the county of Hoye on the eaſt, and by Munſter on the weſt, extending thirty miles in length, and about fifteen in breadth, ſubject to his Britiſh Majeſty as Duke of Lunenburg. The chief town whereof is Diepholt, ſituate on the Dummer-Lake, twenty-five miles weſt of Hoye.

Delmenhorſt county and town.

The county of Delmenhorſt lies on the ſouth-weſt of Bremen, being about ſixteen miles in length and eight in breadth, now ſubject to Denmark, as was intimated in the deſcription of that kingdom, but formerly governed by its own Counts; the chief town whereof is Delmenhorſt, a ſmall place ſituate on the river Delm, ten miles weſt of the city of Bremen.

Oldenburg county and town.

The county of Oldenburg is bounded by the German Ocean on the north, the duchy of Bremen on the eaſt, and by the county of Embden on the weſt, being about fifty miles in length, and five and twenty in breadth, a barren country, conſiſting chiefly of vaſt marſhes, where are bred a ſmall ſort of cattle, leſs than thoſe of Wales or North Britain. The inhabitants are a poor miſerable people, and their dwellings of clay and turf, ſuitable to their condition. The King of Denmark has been their Sovereign ever ſince the death of their laſt Duke ANTHONY GUNTER, anno 1656. The chief town is Oldenburg, ſituate on the river Hund, about ſixteen miles weſt of Delmenhorſt, a fortified town of ſome trade.

Embden county.

Embden city.

Norden.

Aurich.

Jever.

Eſens.

Wittimund.

Leer.

Fredeburg.

The county of Embden, or Emmerland, ſometimes called Eaſt-Frieſland, is bounded by the German ocean on the north, by the county of Oldenburg on the eaſt, and by the province of Groningen on the weſt, extending about fifty miles in length and thirty in breadth, part of the kingdom of the ancient Frizons, and made a province of Germany by CHARLES the Great: ULRICH the Governor was made the firſt Count of it by the Emperor FREDERICK IV, in the year 1453, whoſe poſterity ſtill continue in poſſeſſion of great part of it. The people are ſaid to be of the Belgick race as well as the Hollanders, but they are at preſent a ſlothful generation, and want very much of the induſtry of a true Dutchman. The ſoil is generally marſhy, much of the ſame nature as the adjoining county of Oldenburg, and the natives as remarkable for their ruſticity. The chief towns are, 1. Embden, or *Amaſia*, the capital, ſituate near the mouth of the river Ems, on the Dollaert Bay, in the latitude of fifty-three degrees twenty minutes, ſixty miles to the weſtward of Bremen, and twenty-five to the eaſtward of Groningen, a large populous city, and a place of trade, having a very good harbour. From hence they have a fine proſpect of the ocean and the adjacent country. The houſes are high and well-built, and the town-hall a magnificent ſtructure. They are at preſent a free ſtate, under the protection of the Dutch; but were ſubject to their Count till the year 1595, when, taking an advantage of his abſence, they publiſhed an act of Common-council, That he ſhould no longer have his reſidence in the city, and decreed themſelves to be a free ſtate, independent of this Prince. This revolt was occaſioned by the Count's profeſſing Lutheraniſm, the inhabitants being generally zealous Calviniſts. Here the Engliſh had a mart for cloth, till upon ſome diſguſt taken it was removed to Hamburg, ſince which Embden has been upon the decline. 2. Norden, a well-built town, pleaſantly ſituated on the ſea, ten miles north of Embden, formerly a good harbour, but not capable of receiving ſhips of burthen at preſent. 3. Aurich, ten miles north-eaſt of Embden, which gives name to the territory called Auricherland, conſiderable for ſeven great fairs of cattle which are annually kept here, and a caſtle, the uſual reſidence of a branch of the houſe of Embden, where is alſo held the ſupreme court of judicature for the county, conſiſting of a Preſident, who is a nobleman, a Stadtholder, or Chancellor, who is a Doctor of law, and nine Aſſeſſors, three of whom are noblemen, and the other ſix civilians. In a vacancy of their ſeſſions the Preſident follows the Count's court, and determines all controverſies within the verge of the palace. 4. Jever, or Jevern, a handſom trading town, thirty miles north-eaſt of Embden, the capital of a barony, forty miles in circumference, containing ſeveral fine ſeats of the nobility and gentry. The Barons anciently pretended to an independency, but were brought under the dominion of the Counts of Oldenburg, and conſequently are now ſubject to Denmark. 5. Eſens, the capital of the diſtrict called Harlingerland, ſituate on a river of the ſame name, twenty-four miles north-eaſt of Embden, formerly an independent principality, but annexed to the territories of the Counts of Embden by marriage, about the year 1581. 6. Wittimund, the capital of a barony, five miles to the eaſtward of Eſens. 7. Leer, or Lera, a fine market-town, ſituate on the Ems: and, 8. Fredeburg, about thirty miles north-eaſt of Embden.

Bentheim county.

Bentheim town.

The counties of Bentheim and Steinfort were anciently ſubject to different Lords, but are both at preſent under the dominion of the Count of Bentheim. The county of Bentheim is bounded by the United Provinces on the north and weſt, and by Steinfort on the ſouth; being about forty miles in length, and ten in breadth; both counties, like the reſt of Weſtphalia, are covered with foreſts, but have very few hills, except near the towns of Bentheim and Neinhus. The only town of any conſequence is Bentheim, the ancient ſeat of their Counts, which ſtands in the middle of a foreſt, thirty miles north-weſt of Munſter.

Steinfort county.

Borchſtenfort.

The county of Steinfort lies to the ſouthward of Bentheim, about twelve miles long and ſix broad; the chief town whereof is Borchſtenfort, ſituate on the river Aa, fifteen miles north-weſt of Munſter.

Linge or Lingen county and town.

The county of Lingen, ſubject to the Biſhop of Munſter, has Oſnabrug on the eaſt, and Bentheim on the weſt, extending about fifteen miles in length, and ten in breadth; the chief town whereof is Lingen, ſubject to the late Princes of Orange, and claimed by the King of Pruſſia, as heir to that family; tho' the Biſhop of Munſter is Sovereign of the country about it. The town of Lingen is ſituate on the river Ems forty miles north of Munſter, the inhabitants generally Calviniſts.

Tecklenburg county and town.

The county of Tecklenburg lies on the weſt of Oſnabrug, extending about ſixteen miles in length, and eight in breadth, and is ſubject to the Counts of Bentheim. The capital of the ſame name is a large open town, ten miles to the weſtward of Oſnabrug, ſaid to be the ancient *Teſelia*, the city of the *Angriveri*, but not very conſiderable at preſent.

Dortmond city.

Dortmond, ſaid to be an Imperial city, under the protection of the King of Pruſſia, is ſometimes ſtyled the capital of the county of March, but being omitted there, I take the opportunity of mentioning it in this place. It is a ſmall, but populous city on the river Empſter, thirty-five miles to the ſouthward of Munſter, and about as much to the northward of Cologne; and however it may pretend to be a free Imperial city, the King of Pruſſia claims the ſovereignty of it, and is in effect maſter of the place.

Corbey abbey and territory.

With the abbacy of Corbey I ſhall conclude this tedious, but neceſſary deſcription of the German territories, which lie between the biſhoprick of Paderborn on the weſt, and the river Weſer on the eaſt, extending about ſixteen miles in length, and eight in breadth. The town of Corbey, in which the abbey is ſituated, ſtands on the river Weſer, twenty five miles to the eaſtward of Paderborn, and, with the whole territory, is ſubject to the Abbot, who is a Prince of the Empire. The town of Hoxter, or Huxer, ſituate on the banks of the Weſer, five miles to the ſouthward of Corbey, is ſubject alſo to this abbey, a handſom city, and a place of ſome trade.

Hoxter city.

Circle of Burgundy.

THE Circle of Burgundy, which made the tenth Circle of the Empire, conſiſting of the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands and the Franche Comte, being now ſubject to other Princes, and independent of the Empire, I ſhall deſcribe hereafter in it's preſent ſtate: in the mean time I ſhall add ſome things in relation to Germany, which have been but lightly touched upon, and may need ſome particular deſcription. And firſt the matriculation-book ſo often mentioned, which is a regiſter kept by the Chancellor of the Empire, the Elector of Mentz; containing the names of all the Princes and States who are members of the Empire, with the time of their inveſtiture, the forces and treaſure every one is obliged to contribute for the defence or ſupport of it. Here alſo are entered the admiſſion of all perſons to honours or offices in the Empire, which is called a matriculation, and gives them the poſſeſſion of their eſtates and dignities.

The matricula of the Empire.

By this matricula every Circle was at firſt obliged to contribute the following forces, or a ſum of money in lieu of them, viz.

	Horſe	Foot	or Florins.
The Circle of Auſtria	174	907	5714
Circle of Bavaria	231	1060	6934
Circle of Franconia.	249	1219	8100
Circle of Upper Saxony	278	1167	7972
Circle of Lower Saxony	$321\frac{1}{2}$	$1053\frac{1}{2}$	8992
Circle of Suabia	341	$2100\frac{1}{2}$	12623
Circle of the Upper Rhine	433	1950	12280
Circle of the Lower Rhine	$190\frac{2}{3}$	$885\frac{1}{6}$	5828
Circle of Weſtphalia	309	2019	8964
Circle of Burgundy.	180	831	5484
Total	2707	$13192\frac{3}{6}$	82891

N. B. Every German florin is forty pence, which is double the French florin or livre.

There is another tax the States of the Empire are obliged to pay towards the charges of the Imperial chamber or ſovereign courts of Spire and Vienna, amounting to 48925 florins.

The firſt diviſion of the Empire into Circles.

The Empire was at firſt divided into ſix Circles only, by the Emperor MAXIMILIAN I. anno 1500, namely, into the Circles of Franconia, Bavaria, Suabia, the Upper Rhine, Weſtphalia, and Lower Saxony; and twelve years afterwards he added the Circles of Auſtria, Upper Saxony, the Lower Rhine, and Burgundy. This laſt diviſion of the Empire was confirmed by CHARLES V. at the Diet of Nuremburg, anno 1522; and by the matricula above-mentioned, he appointed what each Circle, and every Prince and Member of each Circle, ſhould contribute towards the defence and ſupport of the Empire: and thoſe who did not ſend in their quota of troops, inſtead thereof, for each horſeman were to pay twelve florins, and for a foot-ſoldier four florins: afterwards it was enacted, that ſixty florins ſhould be advanced in lieu of every trooper wanting, and twelve for every foot-man: and theſe payments obtained the name of Roman months, on account that the forces or money abovementioned, was at firſt applied towards the raiſing a body of horſe and foot, to guard the Emperor in his progreſſes to Rome, and probably was raiſed monthly. This tax the States of the Empire at this day augment or alter as they ſee occaſion. There are, as hath been intimated, in every Circle one or two directors, who ſummon the States of their Circle, and have the command of the above-mentioned militia, regulating their march, quarters, &c. and putting the decrees of the Empire in execution, where any Prince or Member refuſes to comply with their reſolutions. The States of each Circle, beſides a General, (who is uſually their Director) elect five Lieutenants to aſſiſt him, or ſupply his place in his abſence. They chooſe alſo a Treaſurer, a Receiver, and a Secretary, for the ſervice of each Circle. When all the Circles meet it is called a general aſſembly; but uſually the Circles which lie neareſt together meet every year, from whence they are called the correſponding Circles; of which there are three claſſes, viz. 1. The Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, and Weſtphalia. 2. The Upper and Lower Saxony. And, 3. Franconia, Suabia, and Auſtria. That of Upper Saxony aſſembles uſually at Leipſick; that of Franconia at Nuremburg; and that of Suabia at Ulm. They treat of the regulation of their coin, the publick peace, their treaſure, magazines, fortifications, and commerce, rectifying the matricula, putting the decrees of the Empire in execution, and appointing Judges of the Imperial chamber of Wetzlar or Spire, and of the Aulick council at Vienna, and have a power of enacting laws which are not inconſiſtent with the conſtitutions of the Empire.

The Roman month.

As to the forces, which the ſeveral Princes of the Empire are able to maintain and pay, the author of the Atlas Hiſtorique ſeems to have made a very moderate calculation. Beginning with the eccleſiaſtical Princes, he ſuppoſes, that

The forces each Prince and State in the Empire is able to raiſe.

	Men
The Elector of Mentz may maintain	6000
The Elector of Triers	6000
The Elector of Cologne	6000
The Biſhop of Munſter	8000
The Biſhop of Liege	8000
The Archbiſhop of Saltzburg	8000
The Biſhop of Wurtzburg	2000
The Biſhop of Bamburg	5000
The Biſhop of Paderborn	3000
The Biſhop of Oſnabrug	2500
The Abbot of Fulda	6000
The other biſhopricks of the Empire	6000
The abbeys and provoſtſhips of the Empire	8000
Total of the eccleſiaſtical Princes	74500
The Emperor for Hungary	30000
——For Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia	30000
——For Auſtria, and his other dominions	30000
The King of Pruſſia	40000
The Elector of Saxony	25000
The Elector Palatine	15000
The Duke of Wirtemburg	15000
The Landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel	15000

The

The Prince of Baden	10000
The Elector of Brunſwick	30000
The Duke of Holſtein	12000
The Duke of Mecklenburg	15000
The Princes of Anhalt	6000
The Prince of Lauenburg	6000
The Elector of Bavaria	30000
The Dukes of Saxony	10000
The Princes of Naſſau	10000
The other Princes and Imperial towns	50000
The ſecular Princes	379000
The eccleſiaſtical Princes	74500
Total	453500

If we reflect on the vaſt addition which has been made to the Emperor's hereditary dominions ſince this computation, on the frontiers of Turky, in the Netherlands, Italy, and Sicily, we may very well throw in 50,000 men more to his ſhare; and then the forces of the Empire will will amount to 500,000 men and upwards, two thirds whereof are uſually kept in pay, though they are in a profound peace. A body of troops ſufficient to give laws to the reſt of the world, if they were united under one head; but a country divided among ſo many petty Princes, of different religions and intereſts, can never be formidable to the neighbouring Powers, or endanger the liberties of Europe; they may ſometimes be unanimous in oppoſing foreign invaſions, but will ſcarce ever unite in an offenſive war.

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE NETHERLANDS.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the Netherlands in general, and ſhews how the ſeven United Provinces came to be ſeparated from the other Ten, and form a diſtinct State.

CHAP. I. Of the Netherlands in general.

FROM Germany, travelling weſtward, we meet with the ſeventeen Provinces of the Netherlands, or Low Countries; ſo denominated from their low ſituation, at the mouths of ſeveral great rivers; the maritime provinces whereof were almoſt one continued moraſs, till drained of late years by the induſtry of the numerous people, who retired hither for ſhelter, from the perſecutions and oppreſſions of their reſpective Princes.

Their ſituation and extent.

The ancient name.

The Batavi.

Theſe provinces are bounded by the German Ocean on the north, by the circle of Weſtphalia, the biſhopricks of Triers and Liege, and the duchies of Juliers and Cleve on the eaſt, by France and Lorrain towards the ſouth, and by the Britiſh ſeas, and other provinces of France, on the weſt: and are ſituated between the fiftieth and fifty-third degrees, thirty minutes north latitude; extending three hundred miles in length, viz. from the confines of Picardy to the mouth of the river Ems, in Eaſt-Frieſland; and two hundred miles in breadth, viz. from Gravelin to Triers, but in many places they are not of half that breadth. The ancient name of this country was *Belgia*, ſo called from the *Bellovaci*; whom it is ſuppoſed were the moſt conſiderable people here when Cæſar wrote, and probably might have the reſt of the provinces under their dominion: Theſe provinces were anciently divided between Gaul and Germany, as they were ſituated ſouth-weſt or north-eaſt of the Rhine; thoſe of them which were ſituated ſouth-weſt of the Rhine, were with the reſt of Gaul reduced under the obedience of the Roman Empire by JULIUS CÆSAR: afterwards the *Batavi*, the Hollanders, and Zealanders ſubmitted alſo to the Romans, but were looked upon rather as allies than ſubjects. When the Franks of Germany eſtabliſhed a new kingdom in Gaul, theſe provinces were at firſt united to it; but when Germany was afterwards ſeparated from France, moſt of them fell to Germany. The northern nations (ſays a celebrated writer) having broken in upon the Roman Empire, and extended themſelves beyond the Rhine; by their marches and counter-marches, ſo waſted and haraſſed that tract of land now called the Low Countries, as they paſſed by them to greater conqueſts, that the inhabitants grew thin: and being ſecure of nothing, fell to ſeek the ſupport of their lives, rather by hunting or violence, than by labour and induſtry: whereby the grounds came to be uncultivated, and in courſe of years either turned to foreſts or marſhes. Flanders, under which name was comprehended moſt of the provinces which belonged to Gaul, was for many years before the reign of CHARLEMAIN one great foreſt. And Holland, an iſland made by the branches of the Rhine, (then called *Batavia*) was only a great marſh or fenn, and eſteemed rather a part of Germany than Gaul, in regard of it's being planted by the Catti, an ancient people of Germany: this iſland, ſays the ſame writer, probably changed it's inhabitants, and cuſtoms, upon the irruptions of the northern nations; but chiefly of the Normans and Danes, from whoſe countries and language the names of Holland and Zealand ſeem to be derived.

The Foreſter of Flanders had moſt of theſe provinces under his juriſdiction.

The Franks, having made an entire conqueſt of Gaul, diſtributed moſt part of the lands among their Generals and Officers; to one of whom great part of the Low Countries were given, under the title of Foreſter of Flanders, which officer continued for ſeveral deſcents, who having ſuppreſſed the robbers and banditti who infeſted the country, and in ſome meaſure civilized the inhabitants, CHARLEMAIN, or rather CHARLES the Bald, made Flanders a county, and changed the title of Foreſter into that of Count, or Earl, without interrupting the ſucceſſion. But what the extent of this country was, or how far the juriſdiction of the Foreſter reached, my author ſays is very uncertain: it is generally agreed, however, that it bordered upon or included part of that famous foreſt of Ardenne, which in the time of CHARLEMAIN extended beyond the city of Aix-la-Chapelle in Germany.

The ancient Foreſters (in imitation of their northern anceſtors) ſubdivided the country, and parcelled it out among their creatures and dependants; reſerving certain ſervices from the Grantees, obliging them to bring into the field a certain number of troops when required, or to defend their caſtles and fortreſſes againſt the invaſions of enemies, or by ſome ſuch military tenure. Another conſtitution which the northern people eſtabliſhed, it is obſerved, where-ever they came, was the erecting three eſtates or orders; conſiſting of the nobility, clergy, and people, under the limited ſovereignty of one perſon, ſtyled King, Prince, Duke, or Count: which kind of government had prevailed for time immemorial in the Low Countries, before the Spaniards endeavoured to ſubvert it. Several other privileges were granted to the cities and inferior diſtricts of this country by their Princes, ſuch as the choice of their magiſtrates, civil judicature, and excluſion of all foreigners from places of truſt and profit, and an exemption from all taxes and impoſitions but what were conſented to by the States. Their Princes alſo agreed, never to introduce foreign troops among them.

The 17 provinces, governed by as many Princes anciently.

They are united again in the houſe of Burgundy.

Poſſeſſed afterwards by the houſe of Auſtria.

Made part of the circle of Burgundy.

The provinces which enjoyed theſe great privileges and immunities were ſeventeen in number, and were long governed ſeparately by diſtinct Princes under various titles: the provinces of Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Guelderland, had each of them a Duke for their Sovereign; Flanders, Artois, Hainault, Holland, Zealand, Namure, and Zutphen, were Earldoms; Friezland, Mechlin, Utrecht, Overyſſel, and Groningen, had the title of Lordſhips; and Antwerp, that of a Marquiſate of the Holy Roman Empire. Theſe in a long ſeries of time, by inheritance, marriages, or contracts, became united under one head, and firſt in the houſe of Burgundy: PHILIP the Good, about the year 1430, enjoyed the titles of Duke and Earl of Burgundy, Duke of Brabant, Limburg, and Luxemburg; Marquiſs of the Holy Roman Empire; Earl of Flanders, Hainault, Holland, Zealand, Artois, and Namur. CHARLES the Warlike, his ſon, ſucceeded him anno 1467, on whom devolved the duchy of Guelderland and Zutphen: who being killed in a battle againſt the Switzers anno 1475, left iſſue only one daughter, MARY, who married MAXIMILIAN of Auſtria, ſon to the Emperor FREDERICK III, to whom he ſucceeded anno 1482: PHILIP, the ſon of the Emperor MAXIMILIAN and MARY, married JOAN the daughter and Heir of FERDINAND and ISABEL King and Queen of Spain, the firſt Monarchs of that whole kingdom: CHARLES their ſon, afterwards elected Emperor, by the name of CHARLES V, ſucceeded to the duchy of Burgundy, of which the Low Countries were part, in the right of his father, anno 1506, to which he added Overyſſel and Utrecht; and ſucceeded to the kingdom of Spain, in the right of his mother anno 1516; and to the Empire (as has been mentioned already) anno 1519: conſtituting the countries above-mentioned one of the circles of the Empire, by the name of the Circle of Burgundy.

The trade of Europe centered here.

The cauſes of the revolutions in the Netherlands.

Theſe provinces being extremely well ſituated for trade, and the natives living under a mild and gentle government, extended their commerce far and near, Bruges, Ghent, and Antwerp were the great marts of Europe; when CHARLES the Warlike or Hardy, as he was called, being engaged in the war againſt France, and the Switzers demanding larger taxes and contributions of his ſubjects than they had been uſed to pay, gave ſome interruption to their proſperity, and occaſioned diſcontents amongſt them. In the reign of the Emperor MAXIMILIAN their privileges were again invaded by the bringing German troops into the Low Countries on pretence of defending them againſt France: and in the time of CHARLES V, greater forces, conſiſting of Spaniards and Italians, as well as Germans, were introduced into Flanders on the like occaſion, which was a thing ſcarce ever practiſed in preceding times; but the Emperor CHARLES V, being a fortunate Prince, and beloved by the people for his generous actions; and having the advantage of being born amongſt them, and verſed in their cuſtoms and language, and conferring on them many poſts of honour and profit throughout his large dominions; there was ſcarce any murmuring either at the numbers of foreign troops kept up in the Low Countries, or at the taxes levied to maintain them, in his reign. And upon the reſignation of his dominions he left the Low Countries to his ſon PHILIP II, in as peaceable and ſettled a condition as could be wiſhed; but PHILIP determining to retire into Spain, and leave the Low Countries under the government of a Viceroy, which had till CHARLES the Fifth's time been the conſtant reſidence of their Princes, being alſo a Spaniard born, and partaking of the ſeverity and gravity of his nation, which the Flemings denominated pride and reſervedneſs; and taking only Spaniards into his councils even in Flanders, continuing alſo the Spaniſh and Italian forces on foot, and inſiſting on ſupplies to maintain them even after the peace with France was concluded, he ſoon ceaſed to be beloved, ſays my author, and became dreaded by his Flemiſh ſubjects: while he thinking it beneath him to attend to the grievances and diſcontents of ſo inconſiderable a people, or to be limited by their ancient forms of government, created in them ſuch a diſguſt to his perſon and adminiſtration as rendered that people ripe for a revolt. Nor did WILLIAM Prince of Orange, a crafty and ambitious man, (according to PUFFENDORF) a little contribute to foment their diſcontents. For when King PHILIP had reſolved to go into Spain, and to commit the adminiſtration of the Netherlands to a governor; the Prince of Orange propoſed the making CHRISTINA Ducheſs of Lorrain Regent, hoping to marry her daughter, and to have the direction of all affairs of ſtate; but miſcarrying in both his deſigns by King PHILIP's conſtituting his natural ſiſter the Ducheſs of Parma Regent of the Netherlands, and refuſing his conſent to the match with the Duke of Lorrain's daughter, the Prince of Orange became a malecontent, and only waited for an opportunity of being revenged. The Counts of Egmont and Hoorn, and many others of the nobility, were extremely diſſatisfied alſo on account of the Spaniards being preferred to the moſt beneficial employments, and influencing all their councils. Nor were the clergy leſs offended with the King for taking away the revenues of the abbeys, and endowing ſeveral new biſhopricks which he had erected, with their revenues. For before this time it ſeems there were but three biſhopricks in all the Low Countries, to which King PHILIP added fourteen more, making the number of Sees equal to the number of provinces. But what contributed more than any thing to inflame this people, was the great change of religion which happened about this time: many of the Flemings had forſaken the Popiſh communion, ſome profeſſing the Lutheran doctrine, ſome that of Calvin, and others the errors of the Anabaptiſts, &c. which CHARLES V. had endeavoured to check by ſevere proclamations, that ſerved only to exaſperate the minds of the people; and his ſon PHILIP determined by ſtill more violent methods to root out theſe hereſies, as they were called. In order to which he revived his father's proclamations, and was about ſetting up a court of juſtice, reſembling that of the Spaniſh inquiſition; the very mention whereof created the utmoſt horrour in the minds of the Flemings; for in this court they underſtood the lives, eſtates and reputation of every ſubject were to be put into the hands of unmerciful Prieſts, who gloried in the inhumanity and rigour of their proceedings, and might puniſh any man on ſuſpicion without producing his accuſer, or acquainting him with the charge againſt him. While they were under theſe diſmal apprehenſions a religious war breaking out in France, compelled great numbers of Calviniſts to fly that kingdom and retire to the Netherlands, as great numbers of Lutherans had already done from Germany, and Engliſh from Britain on account of the perſecution there in Queen MARY's reign. Theſe accidents filling the Netherlands with ſwarms of Proteſtants; the admiration of their zeal, compaſſion for their ſufferings, or the humour of the age, gained them many proſelytes daily among the nobility, as well as the meaner ſort of people, but principally in the cities, where trade and riches were much increaſed by theſe new inhabitants, who brought their fortunes with them. This gave frequent opportunity to the judges of the inquiſition to exert their authority, and inflict the ſevereſt puniſhments on the unhappy Proteſtants; with which proceedings the Flemings were the more terrified, becauſe in this court none of their privileges, the indulgences of the King, or interceſſions of the Grandees could avail them, and they were conſcious they had given a great deal of liberty to their tongues, and thereby rendered themſelves obnoxious to their enemies. The Spaniards, it is ſaid, were not ill ſatisfied to find the Flemings oppoſe theſe violent proceedings, whereby they were furniſhed with a handle to reduce them under their abſolute dominion, and by ſuppreſſing their liberties and privileges propoſed to make them ſubſervient to their deſigns againſt England and France, which King PHILIP had determined to invade. Whereupon Queen ELIZABETH of England, who had diſcovered his intentions, it is ſaid, fomented the diviſions of the Low Countries, in order to find the Spaniard employment, and divert him from his intended deſcent upon England: for Spain was at this time arrived to that height of power as to become terrible to all her neighbours; and univerſal monarchy, as generally dreaded from this quarter, as it was afterwads in the reign of LEWIS XIV from the ſide of France.

Thus, ſays Monſ. PUFFENDORF, were the ſeeds of civil diſcord ſown among the Flemings, when PHILIP II went into Spain, having left the 1559.
government in the hands of the Regent and council of State, whereof the Prince of Orange, the Earl of Egmont, and others were members; but Cardinal GRANVILLE, a Burgundian, a ſubtile Stateſman, was moſt relied on by the King: and the Regent had poſitive orders to govern ſolely by his advice, which the reſt of the Lords of the council obſerving, oppoſed the Cardinal in whatever he moved, eſpecially when he preſſed the putting in execution the King's orders concerning the eſtabliſhing the new biſhopricks, and extirpating the Proteſtant religion; the Flemiſh Lords ever adviſing a toleration, and that the people might be treated in a milder manner: and ſo univerſal was the hatred of the people againſt the Cardinal, that the Earls of Egmont and Hoorn wrote to the King, that unleſs he was removed it was impoſſible to preſerve the peace of that country.

Whereupon his Majeſty ſo far complied with them as to remove the Cardinal, but at the ſame time directed the Regent to be guided by the preſident of the council VIGILIUS and the Earl of Barlemont, who in every reſpect purſued the Car- 1564.
dinal's rules: inſomuch, that it was commonly ſaid, tho' the body of the Cardinal was removed, his ſpirit ſtill remained in the council; and proclamations and acts of ſtate ſtill continued to be publiſhed againſt the new religion, which the people oppoſed, and would not ſuffer them to be put in execution; the Earl of Egmont thereupon was ſent into Spain by the Regent and the Senate, to repreſent the ſtate of affairs to his Majeſty: but the King would remit nothing of the ſeverities he had directed to be uſed in relation to religion; and it was given out in the Low Countries, that he had agreed with CHARLES IX of France to extirpate all hereticks (Proteſtants) out of their dominions, which put the Flemings in the utmoſt conſternation, and occaſioned their coming to a reſolution to oppoſe the Spaniſh court with all their might.

Several of the nobility entered into an aſſocia- 1566.
tion, which they ſtyled a compromiſe, whereby they engaged to ſuppreſs the inquiſition, and ſtand by each other in the defence of their religion: proteſting however at the ſame time, that they had no other end in view but the glory of GOD, the

grandeur of the King, and the peace of their native country. This aſſociation was ſubſcribed by four hundred perſons of quality, among whom the chief were the Lords Henry Brederode, Lewis Earl of Naſſau, brother to the Prince of Orange, the Earls of Cuylenburg and Berg, &c. who met at Bruſſels, and delivered a petition to the Regent, deſiring that the proclamations concerning religion might be recalled. She anſwered them in courteous and general terms; but promiſed no more than that ſhe would know the King's pleaſure in the matter; and it was commonly reported that the Earl of Barlemont, who ſtood near the Regent, acquainted her that they were a parcel of beggars, and that ſhe had nothing to fear from them; which rendered the name of *Geuſen*, or beggars, very famous afterwards, the malecontents taking for their arms a beggar's pouch.

In the mean time ſeveral pamphlets were publiſhed on the ſubject, which ſtill more exaſperated the people, who finding the King inexorable in the point of religion, aſſembled in a tumultuous manner, plundered the churches, and broke down the images they found there; and tho' the Prince of Orange and the Earl of Egmont did their utmoſt to appeaſe the tumult, King Philip could never be perſuaded but that they were at the bottom of it, who finding themſelves ſuſpected, held ſeveral conſultations for their own ſafety, but came to no reſolution. The Regent in the mean while having raiſed ſome troops either by threats or fair words, prevailed with moſt of the malecontents to ſubmit and reconcile themſelves to the King, others fled into foreign nations, and ſome few were exemplarily puniſhed, whereby the country was reſtored to it's former tranquillity, and the Prince of Orange retired into Germany.

The Regent hereupon adviſed his Catholick Majeſty to come into the Netherlands in perſon without many forces, and endeavour to reconcile his Flemiſh ſubjects to him: but his Majeſty being influenced by the Duke of Alva, determined to take this opportunity of reducing the Netherlands entirely under his power, and accordingly ſent D'Alva with a body of Veteran troops from Italy into the Netherlands, where he was no ſooner arrived but he took the Earls of Egmont and Hoorn into cuſtody, whom he charged with being the authors of the late inſurrection, declaring all that had been concerned in the late aſſociation, and the demoliſhing of images, to be guilty of high treaſon.

He proceeded alſo to erect a court of judicature, conſiſting of twelve judges, for the trial of theſe matters, from the ſeverity of whoſe proceedings this court obtained the name of *The Bloody Council*. Before this tribunal the Prince of Orange, and ſome other Lords who had fled, were ſummoned, and on their not appearing were declared traitors, and their eſtates confiſcated; nor were the common people treated with leſs ſeverity, which ſo terrified the inhabitants, that they quitted their dwellings in crouds, and fled to foreign countries; while Duke D'Alva erected citadels in ſeveral great cities, the better to awe the people and prevent any future inſurrection.

The Prince of Orange in the mean time aſſembled a conſiderable force in Germany, with part of which he detached his brother Lewis to fall into Frieſland, where he defeated Count Aremberg the Governor of the province; but Duke D'Alva having cauſed the Earls of Egmont and Hoorn to be beheaded, marched againſt him in perſon, and having routed his troops, fell upon the Prince of Orange, who had invaded Brabant, and entirely diſperſed his forces. Upon which ſucceſs D'Alva erected a magnificent ſtatue of himſelf at Antwerp, in memory of his victories, where he was repreſented trampling on the States of the Netherlands; and having formed a deſign of ſubduing this people with their own money, he levied a tax upon them of the hundredth peny of their whole eſtates, the twentieth peny of their immoveables, and the tenth of all moveables, as often as they were ſold, which provoked the Netherlanders to the laſt degree; and while he was buſy in raiſing theſe taxes by force on the inhabitants of Bruſſels, who refuſed to pay them, he received advice that the exiled Flemings, denominated the *Sea Geuſen*, being turned privateers, had with twenty-four ſhips under the command of the Earl of March, ſurpriſed the city of Briel in Holland, and that many other towns in Holland 1571. had revolted from the Spaniards; and it is looked upon to be one of the greateſt errors in the Duke of Alva's conduct, that he did not in four years of his regency make any proviſion for the ſecurity of the ſea-coaſts.

But to return, the revolted towns having choſen the Prince of Orange for their General, and ſworn allegiance to him as the King's Stadtholder, were joined by many privateers from England and France; inſomuch, that in the ſpace of four months they increaſed to a fleet of an hundred and fifty ſail, who had their rendezvous at Fluſhing in Zealand, and diſtreſſed the Spaniards more than all the forces of the malecontents by land.

About the ſame time the Earl of Berg took ſeveral places in Guelderland, Frieſland, and Overyſſel; and Lewis of Naſſau, with the aſſiſtance of the French, ſurpriſed the city of Mons, which the Duke D'Alva ſoon after retook, notwithſtanding the utmoſt efforts of the Prince of Orange to relieve it, who found himſelf obliged to retire into Holland. D'Alva afterwards repoſſeſſed himſelf of Mechlin, which city had declared for the Prince. He alſo retook Zutphen, and having made himſelf maſter of Naerden and Haerlem, treated the citizens with the utmoſt barbarity; and if D'Alva be not miſrepreſented, he uſed to boaſt that beſides the numbers he had deſtroyed by the ſword during his ſix years adminiſtration, he had cauſed eighteen thouſand of the natives to be executed by the hangman; but the Spaniſh court finding that the Netherlands were never like to be reduced by theſe violent methods, thought fit to recal D'Alva in the year 1573, and to appoint Lewis Requesenes a man of a milder temper, to ſucceed him.

Requesenes at his entry on the government 1573. of the Netherlands, finding the city of Middelburgh beſieged by the Prince of Orange, ſent a fleet to it's relief; but had the miſfortune of ſeeing it deſtroyed, and the town ſoon after ſurrendered to the Prince. On the other hand the Princes Lewis and Henry of Naſſau, brothers to the Prince of Orange, bringing a reinforcement of troops to the confederates from Germany, were attacked and defeated by the Spaniards near Grave, and both of them killed in the field of battle. The Spaniards afterwards ſat down before Leyden, and reduced the place to great extremities; but the beſieged cutting their dykes, overflowed the country, and obliged the

Spaniards to riſe from before it. About the ſame time the Spaniſh troops mutinied for want of pay, and lived upon free quarters at Antwerp and other places, which ſtill more incenſed the Netherlanders againſt the government; and the following year 1576, REQUESENES dying, the council of ſtate took the adminiſtration into their hands, when the outrages of the Spaniſh ſoldiers continuing, they were declared enemies, and the Flemings were permitted to take up arms againſt them, which however could not prevent Maeſtricht and Antwerp's being plundered by them.

Theſe diſtractions induced the council to enter into a treaty of pacification with the Prince of Orange at Ghent, wherein it was agreed, that peace ſhould be reſtored, and the proclamation iſſued during the regency of the Duke of Alva revoked, and the Spaniſh troops be withdrawn out of the country; which treaty was ratified by the King, and he ſoon after conſtituted his natural brother Don JOHN Governor of the Netherlands; of whoſe adminiſtration the Prince of Orange was extremely jealous, and cautioned the Netherlanders againſt admitting him amongſt them; but upon his ſubſcribing the treaty of pacification made at Ghent, and engaging to diſmiſs the Spaniſh ſoldiers, he was received as their Viceroy by a great majority.

The Prince of Orange hereupon retired with his friends into Holland and Zealand, and Don JOHN ſoon diſcovered that their fears were not altogether groundleſs, by his ſurpriſing the caſtle of Namur. The Flemings endeavoured to retake the city, and ſent for the Prince of Orange to command their forces, conſtituting him Grand Bailiff of Brabant, which created the Prince ſome envy among his confederates, and particularly the Duke of Arſchot ſeemed to be highly offended at the conferring on him this mark of diſtinction; whereupon they invited MATTHIAS, Archduke of Auſtria, to be their General, who was received as well by the party of the Prince of Orange as the reſt of the confederates, as their Governor, upon condition that the Prince ſhould be his Lieutenant, and that the Archduke ſhould not tranſact any thing of moment without the conſent of the States.

In the mean time ALEXANDER, Duke of Parma, being ſent into the Low Countries to the aſſiſtance of Don JOHN, defeated the army of the confederates near Gemblours, and afterwards took the cities of Louvain, Limburgh, Philippville, and ſeveral other places, whereby the allies were reduced to great extremities; and finding themſelves an unequal match for the veteran troops lately arrived from Spain and Italy, they offered to put themſelves under the protection of HENRY III. King of France; who refuſing to be concerned with them, they next offered to ſubmit to the Duke of Alençon his brother, who thereupon immediately repaired to the Netherlands, and took upon him the government of the confederated States, but found ſuch diviſions and miſunderſtandings among the chiefs of the party, who ſeemed to be unwilling to be under any command, that he could effect nothing of moment. There appeared alſo an irreconcileable enmity between the Proteſtants and Papiſts at this time, the one being for allowing liberty of conſcience to all perſuaſions, and the other oppoſing it; particularly the provinces of Artois and Hainault, and ſome other cities, appeared ſo very zealous for eſtabliſhing the Roman Catholick religion, that they ſet up a new faction, which obtained the name of the Malecontents, about which time Don JOHN of Auſtria died, leaving the regency to the Duke of Parma, who was confirmed therein by the King of Spain.

The Duke began his regency very ſucceſsfully, with the taking of Maeſtricht, and by treaty prevailed with the provinces of Artois, Hainault and the Walloon Flanders to ſubmit to the King of Spain. Whereupon the Prince of Orange finding from the difference of religion, and the factions among the heads of the party, that it was not practicable to unite all the provinces of the Netherlands in one confederacy, applied himſelf chiefly to the provinces of Holland, Frieſland, Zealand, Guelderland and Utrecht, over whom he had the greateſt influence; and having procured an Aſſembly of their deputies, or repreſentatives at Utrecht in the year 1579, formed an alliance or confederacy amongſt them, which afterwards obtained the name of *The Union of Utrecht*, and was the foundation of that ſtate which is at preſent known by the name of *The United Provinces*; and in this union were afterwards included the provinces of Overyſſel and Groningen.

The original of the United Provinces. 1579.

The first terms of their union.

The principal terms of which confederacy were, that theſe ſeven provinces ſhould unite themſelves, as if they were but one province, never to be divided by teſtament, donation, exchange, ſale, or agreement; reſerving however to every particular province, all their reſpective rights, liberties and cuſtoms; in determining whereof, or any other differences which ſhould ariſe in any of the provinces, the reſt ſhould not intermeddle further than by their interceſſion for an agreement. They alſo mutually bound themſelves to aſſiſt each other with their lives and fortunes againſt all attacks made upon them on pretence of ſovereignty, religion, &c. And it was agreed, that all frontier towns belonging to the union ſhould be fortified at the charges of the Province where ſituated, but where new fortreſſes ſhould be erected, the generality ſhould bear the charge. That all duties and cuſtoms ſhould be farmed out to the beſt bidder, and the royal revenues employed in their common defence. That all the inhabitants of the provinces from eighteen to ſixty ſhould be muſtered and diſciplined; and neither peace or war be concluded, or taxes levied without the conſent of all the provinces; and all differences that ſhould ariſe thereon ſhould be ſubmitted to the Stadtholder. As to religion, the reſpective provinces might regulate it as they ſaw fit, provided a free toleration were allowed, and no perſon examined or called in queſtion for his perſuaſion in that point. The States, it was agreed, ſhould be aſſembled as heretofore; and if any differences ſhould ariſe in the interpretation of theſe articles, they ſhould be determined by the States, and in caſe they could not agree, by the Stadtholder.

Diſtreſs of the United Provinces.

Theſe Confederated Provinces were reduced to that diſtreſs at this time, that on a medal, which was ſtruck on occaſion of their union, they repreſented their new ſtate as a ſhip without ſails or rudder, left to the mercy of the waves, with this inſcription, *Incertum quo fata ferant*. In the mean time a general peace was treating of at Cologne by the mediation of the Emperor, which the Prince of Orange endeavoured by all means poſſible to obſtruct, being aſſured that if it took place, the Spaniards would ſooner or later revenge themſelves upon him and his party. As his fortune therefore wholly depended on eſtabliſhing the aboveſaid union, his firſt endeavour was to render a reconciliation with their Sovereign, the King of Spain, impracticable; whereupon he prevailed with the Provinces to renounce all allegiance to his Catholick Majeſty, who he put them in mind had violated their privileges which he had ſworn to obſerve, and put them upon making choice of the Duke of Alençon for their Sovereign, with whom it is ſaid he had made a ſecret treaty to ſhare the Netherlands between them. And the judicious Puffendorf aſſures us, that the States of Holland, Zealand and Utrecht were at this time for making the Prince of Orange their Sovereign, and would certainly have effected it afterwards, if his unexpected death had not prevented it.

In the mean time the Spaniards continued very ſucceſsful in the Netherlands, taking the cities of Bois-le-Duc, Breda, Tournay, Valenciennes, Mechlin, &c. which induced ſeveral great men among the malecontents to go over to their party; but the Duke of Alençon having the ſovereignty thus conferred upon him, was ſo fortunate as to raiſe the ſiege of Cambray, which was beſieged by the Spaniards, and cauſed himſelf the next year to be proclaimed Duke of Brabant at Antwerp, and Earl of Flanders in Ghent; but his power being limited within very narrow bounds by the States, he was adviſed by his friends to endeavour to render himſelf abſolute: whereupon he took a reſolution of ſurpriſing Antwerp, and ſome other cities of the Confederates; but notwithſtanding ſeveral thouſands of his French troops had privately gotten into Antwerp, they were driven out again by the Burghers with conſiderable loſs. The like attempts were made by the French the ſame day on ſeveral other towns, but they had not the fortune to ſucceed any where except at Dunkirk, Dendermonde and Dixmude: but by this ill-concerted attempt, the French having loſt all their credit in the Netherlands, the Duke of Alençon, in the utmoſt confuſion at his diſappointment, returned to France, where he died not long after, and the Duke of Parma retook the towns of Dunkirk, Newport, Winoxbergen, Menin, Aloſt, and the reſt of the places in Flanders which had declared for the Confederates, and Ypres and Bruges ſubmitted to him without ſtriking a ſtroke.

The Prince of Orange aſſaſſinated. 1584.

The ſame year (anno 1584) the United Provinces received a fatal blow by the death of the Prince of Orange, who was aſſaſſinated by Balthazar Gerhard, a Burgundian, in his palace at Delft; whereupon the States of Holland made his younger ſon, Prince Maurice, their Stadtholder, who being then but ſeventeen years of age, the Earl of Hohenloe was conſtituted his Lieutenant. But ſuch was their diſtreſs, that they offered the ſovereignty of their provinces again to the King of France, who being involved in a civil war, could not aſſiſt them; and the Duke of Parma taking advantage of their confuſion, reduced Antwerp, Dendermond, Ghent, Bruſſels, Mechlin and Nimeguen to the obedience of King Philip, which ſo terrified the Confederated States, that they implored the protection of Queen Elizabeth in the moſt abject terms.

An alliance between England and the United Provinces.

The Queen, notwithſtanding ſhe did not think fit to accept the ſovereignty of the Netherlands, which was offered her, entered into a treaty with the Confederate States, whereby ſhe ſtipulated to aſſiſt them with five thouſand foot and a thouſand horſe, which together with the forces of the States were to be commanded by an Engliſh General: that the Engliſh forces ſhould be paid by the Queen during the war, but the charges ſhe ſhould be at ſhould be repaid upon a peace in manner following, viz. In the firſt year of the peace ſhould be repaid the expences of the firſt year of the war, and the reſt within four years afterwards, and that in the mean time, Fluſhing, the iſland of Briel, with the city and two forts upon it, with the caſtle of Ramekins in Walcheren, ſhould be delivered up to the Queen as cautionary towns. That the ſaid places, after the money repaid, ſhould be reſtored again to the States, and not delivered to the Spaniards, or any other enemy of their ſtate. That the Engliſh General and two others of the ſame nation ſhould be admitted into the council of the Confederate Provinces; and that the States ſhould not enter into any league with any other power without the concurrence of her Majeſty; nor the Queen, on the other hand, enter into any treaty without their approbation. That ſhips for their common defence ſhould be fitted out by both nations in equal numbers, to be commanded by the Admiral of England; and that the ports of both countries ſhould be open to either party, with ſome other leſs material articles. In memory of which treaty the Zealanders in a tranſport of joy coined money ſtamped with a Lion (their arms) riſing out of the waves with this inſcription, *Luctor & emergo*, and on the reverſe were the arms of the ſeveral cities of Zealand with this motto, *Authore Deo, favente Regina.*

The Queen's declaration thereupon.

The Queen at the ſame time publiſhed a declaration to juſtify her conduct in aſſiſting the Netherlanders, wherein ſhe ſays, that notwithſtanding ſovereign Princes are only accountable to God for their actions, ſhe choſe to acquaint the world, eſpecially her friends and allies, with the juſtice of her proceedings in relieving the natives of the Low Countries, who had been long oppreſſed by wars and perſecutions, and were now in danger of being brought into perpetual ſervitude by the Spaniards.

She ſets forth, that for time immemorial, England and the Low Countries had conſtantly traded together and entered into alliances for their mutual advantage, even when the country was governed by diſtinct Sovereigns, and every province had it's peculiar Lord: That when they became united in the houſe of Burgundy, treaties of perpetual amity and for mutual commerce were entered into between the Kings of England and the Dukes of Burgundy, and the ſubjects of either ſide had ever entertained the greateſt kindneſs and friendſhip for each other, and trafficked together to their mutual advantage, and the enriching of their reſpective ſtates, till the Spaniards and other foreigners being introduced into the country, contrary to the conſtitution of the government, had in a tyrannous manner, without any colour of law or juſtice, baniſhed, murdered or deſtroyed the nobility and principal inhabitants; and though the beginning of theſe perſecutions proceeded, as was pretended, from a zeal for the Romiſh religion, yet they ſpared not the catholicks or even eccleſiaſticks; particularly they had executed Count Egmont, a gentleman well affected to the popiſh religion, and the glory of his country, who had been often victorious in the ſervice of the King of Spain, and deſerved another kind of treatment at his hands. That the Spaniards and other foreign troops had rendered the country deſolate, CHAP. I.

ſolate, and deſtroyed thoſe wealthy trading towns, which in the time of Charles V. were held to have yielded him as great a treaſure as his Indies.

That the French King obſerving the oppreſſions of this people, had promiſed them his protection; and when he was diverted from it by the ſucceeding civil wars, had recommended them to the care of her Majeſty. That ſhe had frequently repreſented to the King of Spain the ill conſequences of treating his ſubjects in that barbarous manner, which muſt unavoidably compel them to look out for another Sovereign to protect them; which they might be juſtified in by the laws and conſtitutions of the country, that abſolved the inhabitants of the Netherlands from their allegiance in caſes of ſuch general injuſtice and notorious breach of their privileges.

That the Queen was obliged in point of policy to prevent the Spaniards making a conqueſt of the Netherlands, which muſt very much endanger her own kingdoms; eſpecially ſince his Catholick Majeſty had already thought fit to foment and encourage the rebels of Ireland, and joined them with his own troops, which was alone ſufficient to juſtify her conduct in aſſiſting the Dutch upon their continual and lamentable requeſts for ſuccour to defend them againſt the rage and cruelties of the Spaniards and other foreigners.

The firſt troops ſent to their aſſiſtance.

Sir John Norris commanded the firſt troops which were ſent over to the Low Countries; but the Earl of Leiceſter, then the great favourite in the Engliſh court, ſoon procured that command to be conferred upon himſelf, with the title of General of the Queen of England's auxiliary forces. The Dutch received him with joyful acclamations, erected trophies to his honour, and pretended to eſteem him their deliverer, conſtituting him Supreme Governor of the Confederate Provinces, and Generaliſſimo of their armies, and ſwore obedience to him. They alſo gave him the title of his Excellency, an honour till then never beſtowed upon a ſubject of England. Leicester looking upon the Dutch to be ſincere in their profeſſions, and that they really intended he ſhould have the ſole government of their ſtate, aſſumed a ſuitable authority, but ſoon found the great titles they had given him to be little more than compliment, being, in all matters of moment, controlled and oppoſed by a deputation of the States; which when he reſented, they applied themſelves to the Queen of England, inſinuating that he deſigned to render himſelf abſolute, and uſurp the dominion of their country.

The Earl of Leiceſter made governor of the Netherlands.

Thus while the Engliſh General drew one way, and the chiefs of the Dutch another, it was not to be expected that their affairs ſhould be managed to any great advantage, which gave frequent occaſion for complaints on both ſides; but this good effect however, the ſending the Engliſh auxiliaries into Holland had, that their People were now no longer under apprehenſions of being ſubdued by the Spaniards, and were at leiſure to improve their foreign trade. The Squadrons the Queen ſent to the Weſt-Indies, alſo diverted the Spaniards from ſending their fleets to the coaſts of Holland, and gave the Dutch great opportunities of encreaſing their ſhipping and extending their commerce.

Complaints againſt Leicester coming over daily from Holland, her Majeſty thought fit to reprehend him for attempting a power ſhe never intended him; and expoſtulated with the Dutch, for that without her knowledge, they had conferred the abſolute government of the Confederated Provinces upon Leicester her ſubject, which ſhe had refuſed herſelf; and by her manifeſto declared, that ſhe intended no more than to relieve her neighbours in diſtreſs, and not to take the ſovereignty upon her. But however ſhe might pretend to be angry both with the one and the other, Leicester was ſoon reſtored to her favour, and the States were effectually ſupplied from time to time both with money and troops, to oppoſe the Spaniards; who having diſcovered their intentions of invading England, ſhe apprehended the Dutch might be of great uſe to her in oppoſing a deſcent; as they afterwards really were in the year 1588, by ſending their ſhips to join her fleet, when the Invincible Armada, as it was called, was upon the Engliſh coaſt. As to Leicester, finding that he had only an appearance of an authority, and that in effect he muſt be ſubject to a clowniſh people, whom he infinitely contemned, he choſe to reſign his command, and return to England.

1588. Prince Maurice Generaliſſimo.

Upon Leicester's laying down his commiſſion, the States thought fit to create Prince Maurice, ſon to the late Prince of Orange, their Generaliſſimo; who being a good ſoldier, and ſupplied from England with money and recruits, and entirely confided in by the Dutch, began to act with great advantage againſt the Spaniards: Breda he took by ſtratagem, anno 1590, and in the following year he reduced Zutphen, Deventer-Halſt, and Nimeguen, under the power of the States. In the year 1592 died that fortunate General the Duke of Parma; whereupon the Spaniſh troops grew mutinous, and the Dutch advanced their conqueſts, almoſt without oppoſition, taking Stenwick, Coeverden, and Gertruydenburg; and in 1592 Groningen was reduced, which made the United Provinces intire and ſecure.

In the year 1596, Albert, Arch-duke of Auſtria, was made Governor of the Spaniſh Netherlands; and in the year 1598, King Philip gave his daughter Isabella-Clara-Eugenia to him in marriage, and with her, as a dowry, Burgundy and the Low-Countries; in hopes that the Netherlands, being thus, in appearance at leaſt, freed from a foreign ſubjection by having a Prince of their own, Holland and the other Confederated Provinces, would be the eaſier induced to return to their allegiance. But the Hollanders, who had now taſted the ſweets of ſovereignty, and from the condition of diſtreſſed ſubjects were become a High and Mighty State, were not to be wrought upon by any artifice, but remained immoveably determined to maintain the dominion they had acquired; to which they were the more encouraged, from the vaſt ſucceſſes they met with in their attacks of the Spaniſh and Portugueſe ſettlements in the Indies at this time, where they found ſo immenſe a treaſure, that their State grew incredibly rich, even while they were engaged in a war with the moſt potent Monarch of Europe.

The loſſes the Spaniards ſuſtained at ſea, and the apprehenſion of further miſchief to their plantations in the eaſt and weſt, made them at this time very deſirous of peace, to which the Confederated Provinces ſeemed no leſs averſe; nor would they enter into a treaty with Spain, or the Archduke, till he declared he would acknowledge them as free independent States, and condeſcended ſo far as to ſend his Plenipotentiaries to the Hague, where they were received by the States with much coldneſs and arrogance. The ſucceſs of their arms by land for thirty years, the vaſt increaſe of their trade and naval power, made their people in general averſe to peace: they could never expect to meet with greater advantages by a treaty, than they reaped from their prizes and daily acquiſitions in the eaſt; by which many of the natives had made their fortunes, and many more were in expectation of raiſing them, if the war continued.

There were ſome conſiderations however, which prevailed with the wiſeſt among them at length to entertain more pacific thoughts: one whereof was the growing greatneſs of the French King, who, if he ſhould make a conqueſt of the Spaniſh Netherlands, was likely to become an uneaſy neighbour to them; and the Spaniard was in no condition to prevent it, while he was engaged in a war with Holland. Another was a jealouſy that Prince MAURICE, who had the chief command of their armies, and was become exceeding popular, as well by his own perſonal merit, as the memory of his father, who was aſſaſſinated for his ſervices to the States, ſhould aſpire to make himſelf Sovereign of the country; which he would not want an opportunity of effecting, if he remained at the head of ſo conſiderable an army of veterans devoted to his ſervice.

A truce between Spain and the States. 1609.

Such conſiderations as theſe, even in the midſt of their victories, prevailed with this cautious people to liſten to terms of accommodation: and in the year 1609 a truce was concluded between Spain and the Confederate Provinces for twelve years, by which the latter were to be treated as free States, and each party to remain in poſſeſſion of what they had taken.

Thus much ſeemed neceſſary to premiſe, before I entered upon the deſcription of the United Provinces, to ſhew the original of this mighty ſtate; which aroſe to that grandeur in the ſpace of fifty years, as to rival the moſt formidable Powers in Europe; to diſpute the dominion of the ſea even with Britain, which raiſed them from obſcurity to engroſs almoſt every valuable branch of trade.

A full account of theſe provinces will, 'tis preſumed, afford an agreeable entertainment to the Britiſh reader, and in ſome meaſure make him amends for the tedious deſcription of the petty principalties and ſtates of Germany that preceded it; which could not however be avoided in a work of this nature, the deſign whereof was to give the modern hiſtory of all nations, and people on the face of the globe, and eſpecially thoſe of Europe.

CHAP. II.

Treats of the ſituation and extent of the United Provinces of the Netherlands; of their ſeas, harbours, lakes, rivers, dikes, and canals; and of the air, winds, ſeaſons, and diſeaſes.

CHAP. II. The extent and limits of the ſeven United Provinces.

THE ſeven United Provinces, conſiſting of Holland, Zealand, Frieſland, Groningen, Overyſſel, Guelderland with Zutphen, and Utrecht, are bounded by the German Ocean on the north and weſt, by the Circle of Weſtphalia on the eaſt, and by Flanders, Brabant, and the duchy of Cleve towards the ſouth; extending from 51 degrees 35 minutes, to 53 degrees 40 minutes, N. L. and from 3 degrees 20 minutes, to 6 degrees 30 minutes in longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London; being about an hundred and fifty miles in length, and as many in breadth: but then the Zuiderſee, which ſeparates North Holland from Frieſland and Overyſſel, takes up a great part of this ſpace; and perhaps if all their ſeas and lakes within the limits above-deſcribed were excluded, the whole country could not appear to be above an hundred miles over either way. Indeed thoſe parts of Flanders and Brabant, which they have made themſelves maſters of, and lie contiguous to theſe provinces, are a conſiderable enlargement of their dominion; but theſe will be treated of in another place.

The face of the country, and the changes it has undergone.

Chief rivers.

Theſe countries, according to ſome writers, have great part of them been gained out of the ſea, by caſting up banks and draining them. Others are of opinion that there has been a great deal of them loſt by inundations of the ſea and tempeſtuous ſeaſons, and both of them are certainly in the right; for their ſeas and rivers appear to be in many places above the land at high-water, and are only kept out by prodigious banks of earth; and there have been inundations even in the memory of man, that have laid great tracts of land under water. The tops of ſteeples, or other high buildings, where towns and villages formerly ſtood, have been ſeen upon their coaſt at low-water; and the Zuiderſee, as Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE judiciouſly obſerves, never having been mentioned by any Roman writer, makes it reaſonable to believe that it was formed by ſome great inundation, breaking in between the Texel and other iſlands which lie near together in a line, and look like the ſhattered remainders of a continued coaſt; and this is rendered the more probable, he further obſerves, from the ſhallowneſs of that ſea, and flatneſs of the ſand upon the whole extent of it. Other changes, he ſuppoſes, have happened in the face of theſe countries ſince the time of the Romans, by the ſands which have gathered at the mouths of their three great rivers, viz. the Rhine, the Maes, and the Scheld; for the ancient Rhine divided itſelf into two branches where the fort of Skenk, or Skenkenſcans, now ſtands, whereof one preſerved the name of the Rhine, and running by Leyden, diſcharged itſelf into the ocean at Catwick, where may ſtill be ſeen at low-water the ruins of an ancient Roman caſtle, which commanded the mouth of that river; but this branch is now choaked up, a great canal where the river once ran, only preſerving the name of the Old Rhine at preſent. The Maes ſeems to have kept it's ancient courſe, which, running by Dort and Rotterdam, diſcharges itſelf into the ocean near the Briel, as it did anciently, with a mighty torrent of water; but the ſands thrown up for three or four leagues upon this coaſt, make the harbour too dangerous to be entered without a pilot, and my author thinks it probable, that theſe ſands obſtructing the courſe of that river, have ſometimes occaſioned or increaſed thoſe inundations, by which ſo many iſlands have been formed in this part of the country. The Scheld the ſame writer thinks formerly fell into the ſea near Walcheren in Zealand, which was an iſland in the mouth of that river, till the waters of the Maes and Scheld were united together by ſome inundations of the ſea, by which the whole country was laid under water, and formed that inland ſea, which waſhes the coaſts of Holland, Zealand, Flanders, and Brabant, and ſerves for a paſſage between them. It is obſerved alſo, that the ſea for ſome leagues from Zealand lies upon ſuch banks of ſand as are found at the mouth of the Maes, but divided by deeper channels.

The occaſion of ſtopping up or obſtructing the paſſages of theſe rivers is held to proceed from the weſterly winds, which generally ſit upon theſe ſhores; for one year with another it is obſerved, they

The Rhine.

The Leck.

The Waal

Meruwe.

The Maes.

The Iſſel.

The leſſer Iſſel.

The Scheld and Lis.

The Hont

they blow weſterly here three parts of the year, and are much more violent than the eaſt winds, which uſually bring calm fair weather, and ſettled froſts. But to return to their rivers; that of the Rhine has been deſcribed already in the ſtate of Germany as far as Skenkenſchans, where it enters this country, and divides itſelf into two branches, one whereof retains the name of the Rhine, and continues it's courſe to Arnheim, and ſo to Dueſter de Wyck, where it mixes with. 2. The Leck, which afterwards continues it's courſe to Schonhoven, and unites it's waters with the Maes a little above Rotterdam. 3. The Waal, the other branch of the Rhine, which begins at Skenkenſchans, runs by Nimeguen and Brommel to Gorcum; and having joined the Meruwe, or New Maes, paſſes by Dort, and uniting with the Leck and the ſmaller Iſſel, runs on to Rotterdam, were it is called, 4. The Maes, from a river with which it joins there, whoſe ſource is in Burgundy, from whence it runs to Namur, where it receives the Sambre; and then paſſing by Liege, Maeſtricht, Venlo, and Grave to Worcum, joins with the Waal, and runs in an united ſtream to Dort, where they divide again and form an iſland, but meet afterwards at Vlardigen, and diſcharge themſelves into the ocean near the Briel. 5. The Iſſel, which riſing in Weſtphalia paſſes by Doeſburg, where it is vaſtly augmented by a canal cut from the Rhine by the order of DRUSUS NERO, as 'tis ſaid, from whence it runs by Deventer, ſeparating the provinces of Guelderland and Overyſſel, and falls into the Zuiderſee near Campen. There is, 6. Another ſmall river called the Iſſel, which is rather a branch of the Leck, dividing from it near Vianen, and running towards Rotterdam, falls into the Maes. 7. The Scheld, which riſing in Picardy, runs by Cambray, Valenciennes, and Oudenard to Ghent, where it joins the Lis, and paſſes on to Dendermond and Antwerp, which was once a good harbour, and one of the greateſt marts in the Netherlands. A little below Antwerp it divides itſelf into two branches, one whereof is called the Weſterſcheld, or the Hont, which divides Flanders from Zealand, and diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at Fluſhing. The other called the Oſterſcheld, dividing from the Weſterſcheld at Santvliet, runs by Bergenopzoom, and afterwards between Tolen and South Bevelandt falls into the ſea with a violent torrent.

Seas.

Dikes.

Inundations.

The ſeas which border on the ſeven provinces are either the German or the Britiſh ocean, which waſh the northern and weſtern ſhores; the Zuiderſee, encloſed almoſt on every ſide, having the iſlands of Schelling, Ameland, &c. on the north, the provinces of Frieſland and Guelderland on the eaſt, Utrecht and part of Holland on the ſouth, with another part of Holland and the iſlands of the Texel and Flie upon the weſt; being about ſeventy miles in length, and half as much in breadth, exceeding ſhallow and full of ſands, as has been intimated already; ſo that the entrance of it at the Texel, and the paſſage over it, according to a late writer, is more dangerous than a voyage to Spain. And ſuch is the violence and rage of the ſea, when the wind blows a ſtorm at north-weſt, if it happens to be a ſpring-tide, that their ſtrongeſt dikes ſometimes give way, and threaten the deſtruction of all the maritime provinces; for the land lies ſo exceeding low and flat, that the flood often appears above it; and were it not for the iſlands of the Flie, the Texel and Schelling, and ſome ſand-hills, which break the force of the ſea, inundations would be much more frequent than they are. Their dikes to keep out the ſea are generally ſeventeen ells thick at bottom, and ſeven ells high, made as ſtrong to the landward as wood and ſtone can make them; and towards the water they cover them with matts, ruſhes, and ſea-weed, and ſometimes with ſail-cloth; but the raging waves often force their way through all. In the year 1530, the ſea broke in and overflowed great part of Zealand; and in 1568, it roſe to that height, that it covered ſome of the iſlands of Zealand, drowned great part of the coaſt of Holland, and almoſt all Frieſland, ſwallowing up ſeventy-two villages, and deſtroying twenty thouſand people in Frieſland only; but many people however were ſaved by getting up trees, the tops of houſes, or riſing grounds, who were afterwards brought off in boats. Another inundation happened in 1655, and a much greater in 1665; when the ſea broke in with ſuch violence between the Texel and the Helder, that it carried away part of the village of Huyſdunen, laid all the country under water between Wiring and Zyp, broke the dike of Horn in pieces at two places, and came up to the gates of Medenblick, drowning many villages, and turning a large tract of land into a continued ſea, whereby numbers of people and cattle were deſtroyed. The dike of Muydenberg was alſo broken down, and all the country round Naerden, Myden, and Weſop, as far as Loren in Goyland, and Balecorn in the province of Utrecht, were laid under water. The gates and fortifications of Naerden were ruined, and that ſtrong rampart of ſtone called the Aſſes Back driven away in a moment, and a hole left where it ſtood thirty-ſix feet deep. In Amſterdam the Newen-dike, with the ſtreet upon it, and the adjoining market-place was over-flowed. The dike betwixt Amſterdam and Haerlem broke in the middle thirty or forty rods, ſo that there was thirty-three foot of water in thoſe parts, and a great part of Waterland was entirely ſwallowed up. Other inundations happened in the years 1682 and 1717, which 'tis ſaid did as much miſchief as any of thoſe mentioned already. The banks of their rivers are alſo broken down, ſometimes by ſhoals of ice and land-floods, as it happened in 1638, when the Iſſel-dike near Utrecht giving way, moſt part of Holland was laid under water; but the dike was ſpeedily repaired, and the country drained by their wind-mills, of which they have great numbers on purpoſe for carrying off the winter's rain and melted ſnow, which in the ſpring overflows the country, and makes it appear like a ſea, the towns and villages built upon the riſing grounds looking like ſo many iſlands: and indeed after the greateſt inundations from the ſea, when part of the coaſt ſeems to be irrecoverably loſt, they will by their mills throw out the water, and repair their dikes, and in a few months the country recovers much the ſame face as it had before.

Harbours.

Notwithſtanding this country is ſo famous for it's trade and multitude of ſhipping, there is ſcarce a good harbour upon the coaſt; the beſt are ſaid to be Fluſhing, Helvoetſluys, and Rotterdam. As for Amſterdam, which has in a manner engroſſed the trade of the world, there cannot be a more incommodious haven, being ſeated in ſo ſhallow a water, that ordinary ſhips cannot come near it, unleſs at high-water, nor veſſels of burthen without unlading.

Lakes.

After the ſeas already mentioned, their lakes may deſerve to be remembred, which are only leſſer ſeas ſurrounded by the land, of which there are a great many in the United Provinces; the chief whereof is Haerlem-Meer, extending almoſt from Amſterdam to Leyden, being ſixteen or eighteen miles long, and about half as broad, but grows larger every day, encroaching on the lands contiguous to it, which has occaſioned ſome to project the draining of it, as other lakes have been, and proved to be a very good ſoil, when laid dry; particularly one of two leagues broad Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE mentions in North Holland, which has been made firm land; being that part of the country called the Bemſter; now the richeſt ſoil in the province, lying upon a level divided by canals, and the ways through it planted with rows of trees, which make a moſt agreeable ſummer's landſkip. Indeed the whole country is cut through with canals, which lead to every town and village, and even to every farm-houſe almoſt; and we ſee ſuch an infinite number of ſails, ſays my author, ſteering every way through the land, that one would be tempted to think there were as many people live upon the water as on ſhore; which he obſerves is a great advantage to their trade, and not to be imitated by any other country, where there is not the ſame level and ſoftneſs of earth, which makes the cutting of canals ſo eaſy as to be attempted by almoſt every private man.

Their ſeas, rivers, and canals afford them plenty of fiſh; but there are ſome kinds which they are obliged chiefly to the coaſt of Britain for, particularly herrings, oiſters, and many other kinds of ſhell-fiſh: but I deſign to treat particularly of their fiſheries hereafter, and therefore content my ſelf with the bare mention of them here, and proceed next to enquire into the air and ſeaſons.

The air, winds, and ſeaſons.

The air of this country, ſays Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE, would be all fog and miſt, if it was not purified by the ſharpneſs of their froſts, which never fail to viſit them with every eaſt wind for about four months in the year, and are much ſeverer than with us, though there be ſcarce any difference in the latitude, becauſe this wind comes to them over a long tract of frozen continent; but is moiſtened by the vapours, or ſoftened by the warmth of the ſea's motion before it reaches us. This, ſays the ſame writer, is the greateſt diſadvantage of trade occaſioned by their ſituation, tho' it be extremely neceſſary for their health; for their harbours are frequently ſhut up two or three months together in winter by the ice, when ours are open, eſpecially thoſe in the Zuiderſee. The ſpring is much ſhorter and leſs agreeable in the United Provinces than in England. The winter colder, and ſome parts of the ſummer much hotter; nor is it uncommon for the violence of the one to give way to that of the other, without any intermediate temperate ſeaſon. The moiſtneſs of the air, the ſame ingenious writer is of opinion, was originally the occaſion of that great neatneſs obſerved in their houſes, and the cleanneſs of their ſtreets, for without this their country would ſcarce be habitable, the air would corrupt upon every hot ſeaſon, and expoſe the natives to infectious diſtempers; which they ſeldom eſcape three ſummers together as it is, eſpecially at Leyden, where the waters ſtagnate more than in any other part of the country; and this is ſuppoſed to be the reaſon why Leyden is one of the cleaneſt towns in Holland. This moiſture of the air alſo cauſes metals to ruſt, and wood to mould ſooner than in other places, which occaſions their perpetual rubbing and ſcouring; and this is the reaſon of that brightneſs and cleanneſs which ſeems affected in their houſes. DE WITT their countryman obſerves, that the winters in Holland are ſharp and long, and conſequently that they have more occaſion for light, firing, clothing, and food than in warmer countries: That their cattle are forced to be houſed and fed with dry meat great part of the winter; when in other countries in the ſame latitude they remain all winter in the field. The ſeaſons alſo are ſo ſhort, that they muſt be punctually obſerved, if they expect their arable lands ſhould yield them any profit. And the neighbourhood of the ſea does not only occaſion unwholeſom weather in ſpring and autumn, but cold winds blaſt moſt of the fruit; and in autumn great part of their unripe fruit is blown down by furious ſtorms of wind.

Diſeaſes.

The diſeaſes of the country are chiefly the gout and the ſcurvy, but in hot and dry ſummers they are viſited with malignant fevers, eſpecially at Amſterdam and Leyden. Theſe diſtempers lie moſt in the head, and frequently occaſion ſudden death. If the patient recovers he continues a great while in a languiſhing condition. The plague is ſeldom known here, or at leaſt all talk of it is ſuppreſſed, and no diſtinction made, as with us, what diſtemper every one dies of. Nor do they take much care of their ſick; which my author aſcribes to their firm belief in predeſtination, or to their preferring trade and buſineſs even to life itſelf. Foreigners, it is obſerved, are frequently ſubject to the ſpleen in this country, which the natives ſeldom are, being too buſy a people, it is ſuppoſed, to be affected by this diſtemper; this ſeeming to be the diſeaſe of the idle, or of thoſe who think themſelves ill entertained, who are never out of humour or diſcompoſed, but they attribute it to a formal diſeaſe: whereas ſuch dull fits frequently happen from the changes of the wind or weather, which affect the finer ſpirits of the brain before they grow ſenſible in other parts, and are apt to alter the ſhapes and colours of whatever is repreſented to us by our imaginations, while we are ſo affected. Yet this effect is not ſo ſtrong, but buſineſs or intention of thought will either reſiſt or divert it, in the opinion of my author, who obſerves further, that this is a diſeaſe too refined for this heavy people, who are well when they are not ill, and pleaſed when they are not troubled; content becauſe they think little of it, and ſeek their happineſs in the common ſatisfactions and conveniences of life, or the increaſe of riches, not amuſing themſelves with more ſpeculative entertainments, or refinements of pleaſure. But to return: Long life is a bleſſing ſeldom known in this country, both men and women begin to decay very early, eſpecially at Amſterdam; and Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE ſeems to remark it as an uncommon thing, that he had ſeen at the Hague (the beſt air in Holland) two men above ſeventy; which may poſſibly proceed from their diet, and want of exerciſe, as well as from the badneſs of the air; for dried and ſalted fleſh and fiſh are their uſual food, and brandy and geneva very commonly drank. They ſcarce know what rural ſports mean; neither do they ride on horſeback, or walk from one town to another about their buſineſs, but are drawn along by a horſe in a covered boat upon a ſmooth canal, ſcarce ſenſible of any motion; which too I take to be the occaſion that they are generally corpulent and full of groſs humours.

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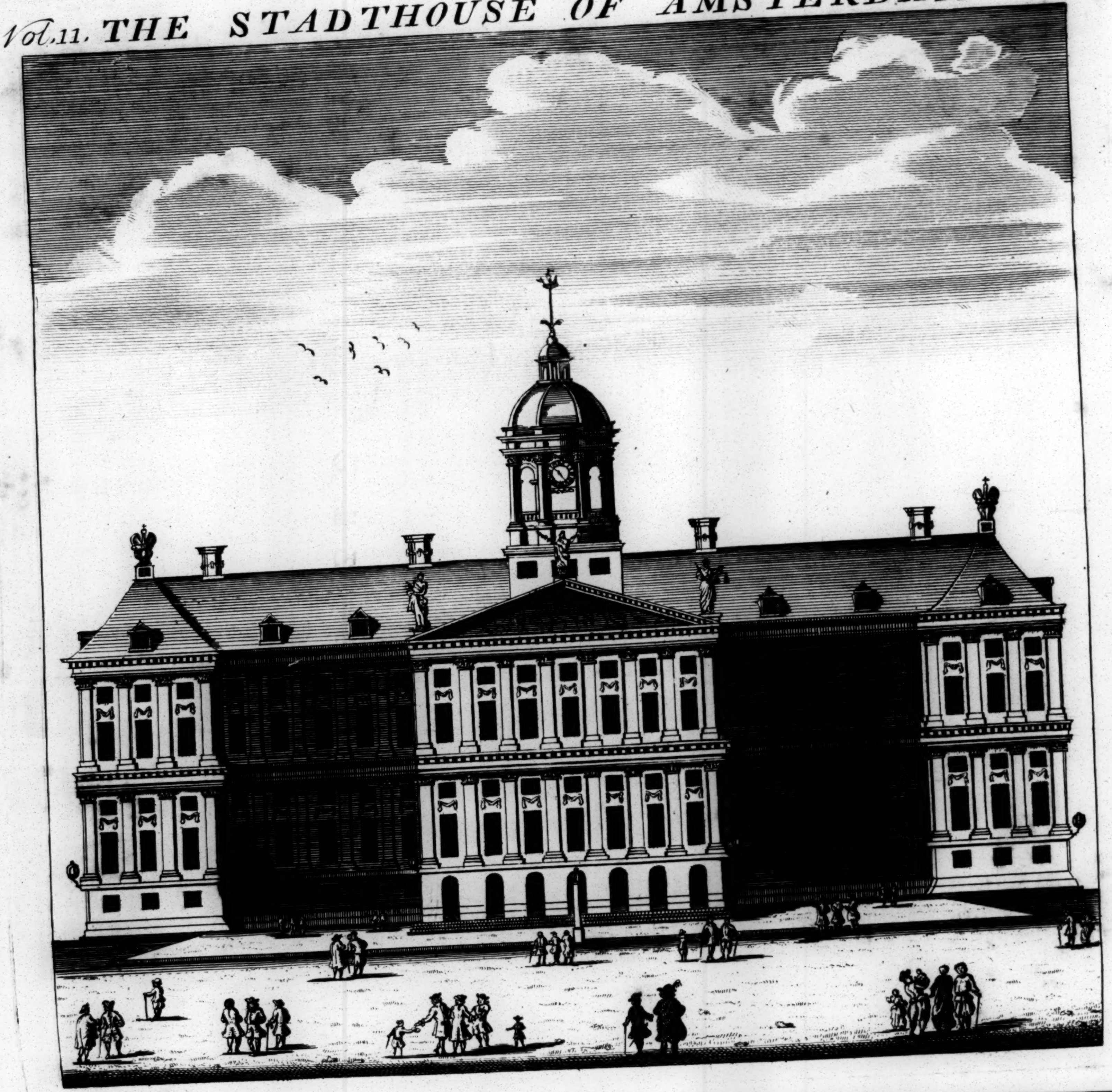

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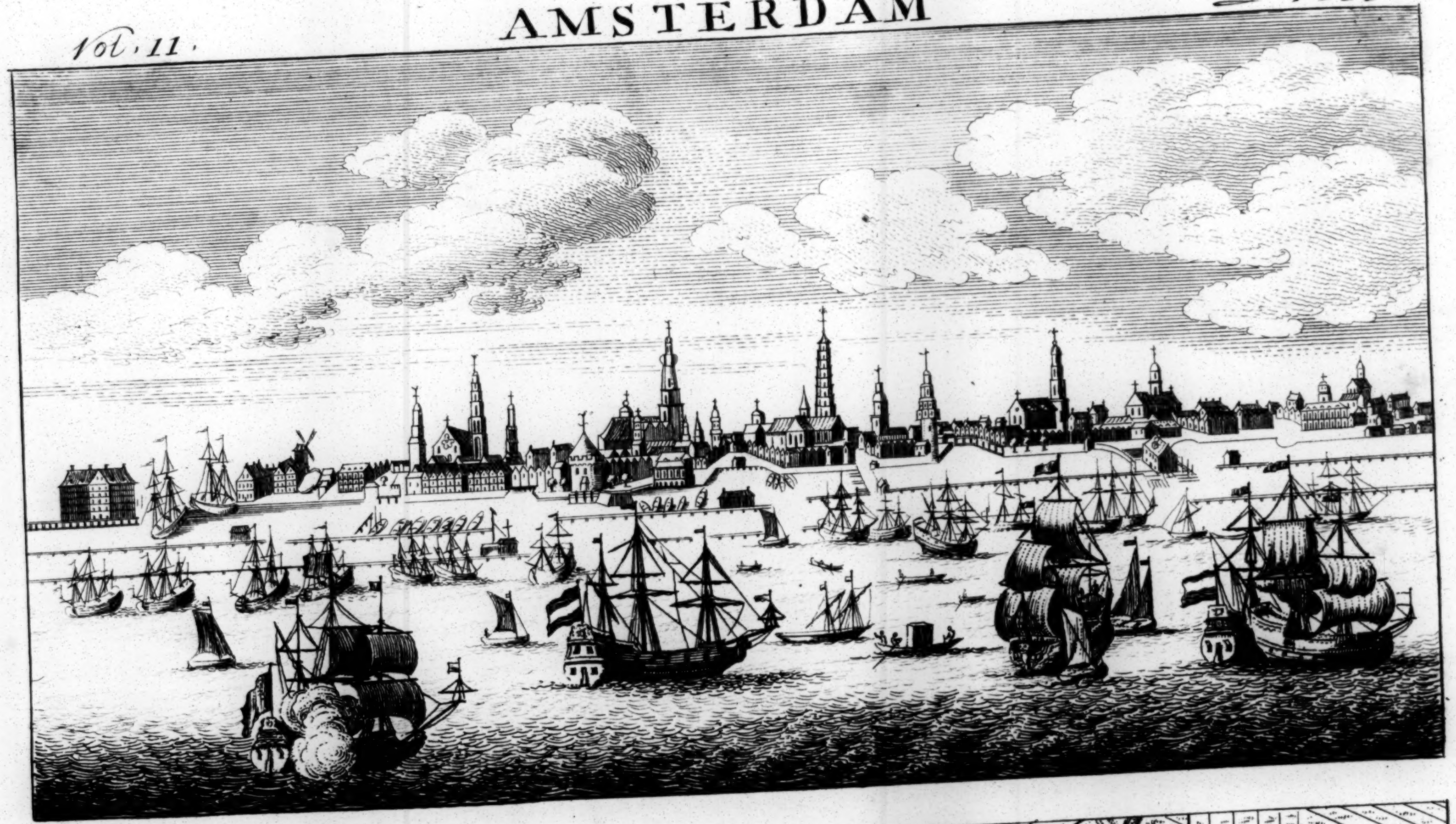
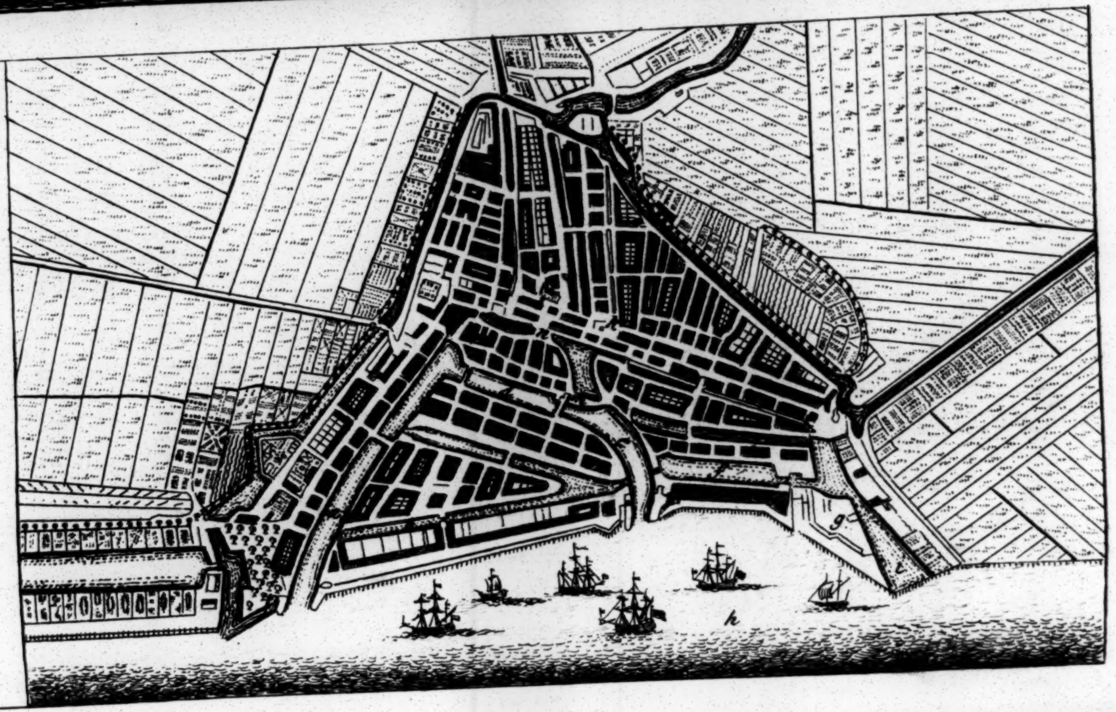




ROTTERDAM

a. Leene Haven
b. Scheep makers Haven
c. Wyn Haven
d. De Bleack
e. De Oude Haven
f. Harinck vliet
g. Staten Timmewerf
h. De Maes River
i. De Niewe Haven
k. t'Stadt Huys
l. S.t Laurents Kerck
m. De Beurs
n. De Koperen Erasmus

CHAP. III.

Contains a deſcription of the particular provinces, and of their chief towns, with their publick and private buildings and furniture.

CHAP. III.

Holland province, the ſituation and extent.

THE moſt conſiderable of the ſeven provinces is that of Holland, in many reſpects equal to the other ſix; bounded by the Zuiderſee on the north; by the ſame ſea and the province of Utrecht and Betawe on the eaſt; by Brabant and Zealand on the ſouth; and by the Britiſh Ocean on the weſt; extending in length from north to ſouth about eighty miles, and in breadth from eaſt to weſt forty miles in ſome places, but in others not above twenty; and is uſually divided into South and North Holland. South Holland contains all that country between Zealand and Brabant, and that arm of the ſea which uſually goes by the name of the river Y or Ty; and North Holland reaches from the ſame river Y to the ocean.

Divided into South and North Holland.

Chief towns of South Holland.

The principal towns in South Holland are Amſterdam, Haerlem, Rotterdam, Dort, Delft, Leyden, Goude, Gorcum, Scheidam, Schoonhoven, Graveſand, Gertrudenburg, Hueſden, Worcum, Vianen, Woerden, Oudewater, Yſelſtein, Aſperen, Hockelem, Leerdam, Naerden, Weſep, Muyden, Klundert, Williamſtat, the Hague, Catwyckopzee, and Nortwick. The iſlands belonging to South Holland, are thoſe of Voorn, Goree, Overflaikee, Putten, Beverland, Korndyck, and Iſelmond; the chief whereof I ſhall endeavour to deſcribe.

Iſlands.

Amſterdam, the capital city.

1. Amſterdam, the capital of Holland, and of the ſeven provinces, is ſituate on the little river Amſtel, which runs through it, and falls into that arm of the ſea called the Y, that lies on the north ſide of the town, and forms a large harbour. It is in the latitude of fifty-two degrees twenty minutes, four degrees and a half to the eaſtward of London, twelve miles eaſt of Haerlem, and about thirty N. E. of Rotterdam. This city is almoſt in the form of a creſcent, the foundations laid upon vaſt piles of timber, drove into the earth at a prodigious expence, the place where it ſtands being a perfect moraſs or bog. The firſt mention of this place in hiſtory is about the year 1300, when it was a poor fiſher-town; in 1342 the buildings were pretty much encreaſed on the eaſt ſide of the Amſtel; and in 1400 ſome buildings were added on the weſt ſide of the river. In 1482, their Princeſs MARY of Burgundy encompaſſed it with a ſtrong brick-wall of extraordinary workmanſhip, as appears by two gates ſtill remaining. In 1585 we find it ſtill farther enlarged, and become the chief town of trade in theſe provinces. In 1656 a large ſpace of ground was taken in and built upon, and the whole ſurrounded with a new wall of brick and gates of ſtone, which gave it the preſent form of a creſcent, and it's circumference is now computed to be about half as much as London and Weſtminſter: others aſſure us that it ſtands upon two thouſand acres of ground. A great addition was made to the fortifications in the year 1672, when LEWIS XIV. invaded their country, which occaſioned the deſtruction of ſeveral fine gardens: but the town was thereby made as ſtrong as it was capable of being by art. Three parts of it are defended by a ſtrong wall, baſtions, and outworks, and a large graff or ditch, and the fourth ſecured by that arm of the ſea already mentioned, called the Y or Ty. The houſes are generally well-built with brick and ſtone, the ſtreets broad and neatly paved, with canals in the middle of many of them, planted with rows of trees, and handſom ſtone-bridges over their canals.

Their fineſt ſtreets are the Heer-graff, the Keyſergraff, and the Prince's-graff, where many of the houſes are of free-ſtone, and adorned with columns of the Corinthian Order. The ſtreet of Haerlem alſo is admired for it's length and breadth, and three ſtone-bridges laid acroſs the canal. The harbour always contains an infinite number of ſhips, eſpecially in the ſpring, when may be ſeen fifteen or ſixteen hundred veſſels ſetting ſail for the Baltick only. There are not however in this great city more than thirteen churches for thoſe of the eſtabliſhed religion, which is that of JOHN CALVIN, or the Preſbyterian, with two French, one High Dutch, and one Engliſh church, all Preſbyterians; theſe only are allowed bells, and their preachers maintained by the government. Thoſe of this ſect are computed to make one third of the inhabitants of the city. The Papiſts, who have upwards of fourſcore chapels or private meeting-houſes, are ſuppoſed to make another third. Theſe have a ſquare in the town inhabited by nuns, who are at liberty however to leave their cloyſter, and marry if they pleaſe. The Roman Catholicks are leaſt in favour with the government of any of the inhabitants, and their chapels are ſometimes ſhut up by the Scout or Sheriff, and opened again upon application made to the magiſtrates. The Lutherans, Arminians, Jews, Engliſh Independents, Anabaptiſts, and Quakers take up another third part of the town; and all theſe, except the diſciples of CALVIN, are reſtrained from celebrating their marriages according to their reſpective rites, till the parties have been firſt married before a magiſtrate, nor are any admitted to offices or places of truſt but Preſbyterians.

Their churches are generally handſom ſtructures, that of St. CATHERINE's is eſteemed the fineſt, having been burnt down in the year 1645, and ſince magnificently built; in the paintings of the windows is repreſented the Emperor MAXIMILIAN giving them an Imperial crown, as a creſt to their arms. The pulpit is ſaid to be a maſter-piece of it's kind, adorned with the moſt exquiſite carvings; and the organ the largeſt and beſt in Europe, at leaſt at the time it was ſet up, and is ſupported by marble pillars. The partition which ſeparates the church from the chancel is of poliſhed braſs, kept as bright as poſſible; but to ſay the truth, we muſt not expect to find the churches of the Dutch Preſbyterians comparable to thoſe in Roman Catholick countries, either for the elegancy of the building, paintings, carvings, ornaments, or the richneſs of the materials, and therefore I ſhall not tire the reader with a further deſcription of this or the reſt, but proceed to the Stadt-houſe or Guild-hall, on which building alone the Dutch ſeem to have laid out much more money than on all the churches in this great city.

The Stadt-houſe is a handſom oblong ſquare building of free-ſtone; the front, which is the length of it, extending two hundred and eighty-two feet, the breadth two hundred and thirty-two feet, and the height of the roof one hundred and ſixteen feet. The pillars are of the Corinthian Order; and it is founded upon above thirteen thouſand vaſt piles of wood, driven into the earth with incredible labour. In the middle of the front, over the cornice, is a noble piece of carving in marble, eighty-two feet in length, and eighteen in height; where the city of Amſterdam is repreſented by a woman, with Neptune on her right hand, and two ſea-nymphs offering her the fruits of the earth, and on her left are two Naiades, preſenting her with laurels and palms, and before her are two Tritons, dancing and ſounding their horns; over theſe is a ſtatue of braſs repreſenting Peace, with Juſtice on one ſide, and Providence on the other; each figure twelve foot in height. On the back part of the building is a piece of carved work, anſwerable to that in the front; in the middle whereof ſits a woman with the wings of a MERCURY and a hat on her head; behind her are ſeen the maſts, ſails, yards, and tackling of ſhips, with all kind of mathematical inſtruments uſed in navigation; round about her and at her feet lies that arm of the ſea called the Y, and the river Amſtel; and on each ſide the inhabitants of the four quarters of the world offering her fruits; over theſe alſo are placed three images of braſs, of the ſame dimenſions with thoſe in the front; one whereof is an ATLAS, bearing a large globe of copper ten feet diameter, having on the right a ſtatue repreſenting Temperance, and another perſonating Juſtice on the left. Over the four corners of the building ſtand four eagles of braſs finely gilt, ſupporting an Imperial crown; and in the middle of the building is a handſom round tower, which riſes fifty foot above the roof, ſupported by pillars, and adorned with ſtatues, and in it is a fine chime of bells, on which are plaid all manner of tunes on their feſtivals and rejoycing days: but the bells in the Low Countries are never rung out as they are in England. The portico, which is not anſwerable to the magnificence of the building, is entered by ſeven little arched doors; within the portico are two large gates or doors, which lead into the houſe. At the entrance on the right-hand is a noble hall, where a tribunal is held for the trial of criminals, adorned with marble ſtatues, whoſe dejected looks ſeem to expreſs a concern, ſay ſome, for the unhappy wretches that are brought before this court; or, as others, that they repreſent the priſoners themſelves full of that confuſion, which is natural to perſons in their circumſtances, expecting their doom. The cornices and cielings of moſt of the rooms are finely carved, painted, and gilded, and the floors laid with marble. Below ſtairs is the office of the bank, and the priſons both for debtors and criminals, with a guard-chamber, where the citizens have their main guard, and where the keys of the city are locked up every night. From hence a handſom broad pair of ſtairs, but ſomething dark, leads into the Burghers hall, which is an hundred and twenty foot long, fifty-ſeven broad, and ninety-eight foot in height; the marble-floor whereof is ſo laid as to repreſent, without any other lines than the veins of the ſtone, the celeſtial and terreſtrial globes, the conſtellations in the heavens, and the ſituation of every country upon earth. Each of theſe marble-maps, as they are ſtiled, being two and twenty feet diameter. At the end of this hall is the Schepens or Aldermens's chamber, where civil cauſes are tried: and in the galleries, which ſurround two ſquare courts, are ſeveral other chambers and offices belonging to the government; as the chamber of their ſenate or council, the Burgomaſters chamber, the treaſury, the chamber of accounts, &c. Over theſe chambers in the ſecond ſtory is a large magazine of arms; and on the top of the building are eight large ciſterns of water, which are conveyed to any room in the houſe by pipes in caſes of fire, and the very chimneys, by way of prevention, are lined with copper. On a pedeſtal of black marble, whereon is placed a ſtatue of the bleſſed Virgin, is a Latin inſcription, importing that the firſt ſtone of this noble ſtructure was laid on the 28th of October, 1648; when the war, which the States had maintained in almoſt every part of the world above fourſcore years, in defence of their religion and liberties, againſt the three PHILIPS of Spain, was happily concluded. Their magiſtrates firſt aſſembled in it in the year 1655, but it is not yet entirely finiſhed; which ſome conjecture proceeds from an old prophecy, that from the time their Stadthouſe is finiſhed, their ſtate ſhall begin to decline.

Other publick buildings in Amſterdam which travellers take notice of, are the admiralty-office, the Eaſt-India-houſe, the arſenal, the hoſpitals for widows and orphans, from which baſtards are not excluded, for madmen, ſick and aged, the houſe of correction, ſpin-houſe, or work-houſe, the publick ſchools, where lectures are read on ſeveral faculties, and the Exchange. In their hoſpitals of all kinds, it is ſaid, there are not leſs than twenty thouſand ſouls maintained: and it is obſerved of them, as of thoſe in England, that they reſemble Princes palaces rather than the habitations of poor people. There are houſes alſo where a perſon may have his diet and lodging for life on the advancement of a ſmall ſum of money, which are called the Proveniers-houſes: and at every houſe almoſt in the city there hangs a poor's box by a chain, in which people put money as they are diſpoſed, eſpecially on a ſale of goods, or any conſiderable bargain; and the deacons go once a quarter round the city, and take the money out of theſe boxes: there are alſo twice a week men that belong to the hoſpitals who go round the city with a bell, and aſk relief at every houſe, and are ſeldom diſmiſſed without ſome pence. They have ſeveral other ways of raiſing money for their poor, as by the play-houſes, that pay half their gains to this uſe: every rope-dancer, puppet-player, and perſon pretending to divert the people at fairs by any means whatever, alſo pays a third part of his gains to the poor. Every perſon who paſſes through a gate after candle-light pays a peny to the uſe of the poor: and what theſe, and ſome other little taxes fall ſhort of maintaining their hoſpitals, is ſupplied out of the publick revenue. As to the government of this city, I ſhall have occaſion to enlarge upon it hereafter under another head, and proceed next to deſcribe ſome other conſiderable towns in this province.

Haerlem.

2. Haerlem, a large populous city, twelve miles to the weſtward of Amſterdam, and four to the eaſtward of the ocean, ſurrounded with a wall, and other fortifications, but of no great ſtrength. The buildings are of brick, the ſtreets wide and ſtrait, and canals in the middle of ſeveral of them, as at Amſterdam. It was made a Biſhop's See in the year 1559, but loſt that honour ſoon after, on the States throwing off their allegiance to the Spaniard, and embracing Calviniſm. The cathedral church, now called the great church, is eſteemed the largeſt and moſt beautiful in Holland. Their manufactures conſiſt chiefly in ſilks, velvet and linens: the linen they make here is eſteemed the fineſt and whiteſt in the province. They have alſo a conſiderable trade for thread and

tapes. Here the famous Lawrence Coster dwelt, to whom the Dutch aſcribe the invention of printing, anno 1440; which is diſputed with them by the citizens of Mentz in Germany. This town is famous alſo for the brave defence it made againſt the Spaniards in the year 1573, when the women formed themſelves into regiments and companies to aſſiſt the burghers; but being obliged to ſurrender after ten months gallant defence, the Spaniards exerciſed great cruelties on the inhabitants, deſtroying many of them in cold blood. To the ſouthward of the town lies the lake called Haerlem-meer, which extends eaſtward almoſt as far as Amſterdam, and ſouthward to Leyden, a ſhallow, but dangerous water for the paſſage-boats, which was probably the occaſion of cutting canals from this city to Amſterdam and Leyden, on which people travel with all the ſafety and eaſe imaginable.

Rotterdam.

3. Rotterdam, eſteemed the chief town in Holland next to Amſterdam, ſituate on the north ſide of the Maes, about thirty miles to the ſouthward of Amſterdam, and fifteen to the eaſtward of the Briel, is a large city of a triangular figure, and very populous, lying mighty convenient for trade, the canals, which run thro' the town, bringing up their ſhipping to their doors. Another great advantage they have, is, that the Maes is open, and the paſſage free from ice much ſooner in the ſpring than in the Y and Zuiderſee that lead to Amſterdam, which is the reaſon that the Britiſh merchants frequent this port much more than that; inſomuch, that after a froſt, when the ſea was open, there hath been ſeen three hundred ſail of Britiſh veſſels ſteering out of this harbour at once. The town is handſomly built of brick, the ſtreets wide and well paved; and there are four churches beſides that of the Engliſh (where the ſervice is performed according to the rites of the church of England) and a kirk for the Scots. Here are conſtantly reſiding great numbers of the ſubjects of Britain, who live in much the ſame manner as on this ſide the water, not being confined to Dutch diet, as in ſome other towns. The publick buildings taken notice of by travellers are, the great church of St. Lawrence, the Stadt-houſe, the Exchange, the Admiralty-office, and the Eaſt-India-houſe, which are handſom ſtructures, but not thought worth a particular deſcription: upon the great bridge in the market-place is a noble braſs ſtatue of Erasmus, in a furred gown and a round cap, with a book in his hand. The ſituation of this place is pleaſant, and from the top of the great church may be ſeen the Hague, Delft, Leyden, Dort, and moſt of the towns of South-Holland. But the canals in Rotterdam having little or no current in ſummer, the ſtagnated water proves very offenſive as well as unhealthful.

Leyden.

4. Leyden, or *Leyda*, the *Lugdunum Batavorum* of the Latins, four miles to the eaſtward of the Ocean, and eighteen miles ſouth of Amſterdam, ſtands on the old channel of the Rhine, the mouth whereof being now choaked up, occaſions the waters to ſtagnate, which renders the air unhealthful. It is however eſteemed one of the neateſt and pleaſanteſt towns in the Low Countries, and the largeſt in Holland next to Rotterdam: the buildings beautiful and magnificent, the ſtreets broad and exceeding clean, with canals in the middle of them planted with rows of trees. This city is ſurrounded with a wall, and regularly fortified, and endured a ſiege of five months in the year 1574, when finding themſelves in danger of being taken by the Spaniards, they laid the country round about it under water, and compelled the enemy to riſe from before it. In the middle of the town is a round ſtone tower, ſix hundred and ten feet in circumference, aſcended by fifty ſteps, and according to the tradition of the place, was built by the Romans, but of no great ſtrength at preſent. Thoſe who give a particular deſcription of the place obſerve, that it hath eight gates, that there are twenty-three wards in the city ſubdivided into ninety leſſer parts; that there are thirty iſlands, twenty-four canals, an hundred and eighty ſtreets, ninety-five bridges, and forty towers on the walls. The principal churches are thoſe of St. Peter, St. Pancras, and the New Church, the laſt of which is of a circular form. Theſe hoſpitals are many and large, that of the orphans only maintaining nine hundred children. A univerſity was founded here by the States General in the year 1575. The ſchools conſiſt of a large pile of brick buildings three ſtories high, in the uppermoſt whereof the famous Elzevir had his printing room. The ſtudents of this univerſity are computed to be about two thouſand; but there are only two endowed colleges, moſt of the lads boarding in the town. Adjoining to the ſchools is a phyſick garden, where the Profeſſor in botany reads his lectures. The Profeſſors never wear gowns but at lectures, and when they preſide in publick diſputations. Nor are the Students at all diſtinguiſhed by their habit. The Rector, who is choſen out of three preſented to the States, is elected annually; there are beſides three Curators, and twelve Profeſſors, three in each faculty. The Rector with the four Burgomaſters, his Aſſeſſors, and ſome of the Aldermen, determine all cauſes civil and criminal. Their library is in great eſteem for it's manuſcripts; and the anatomy theatre is ſaid to exceed that of Padua, or the Surgeons hall in London, having a vaſt number of ſkeletons of all kinds and ſizes, ſeveral mummies, and particularly one of an Egyptian Prince eighteen hundred years old, with Pagan idols and relicks, and habits of people of the moſt diſtant countries. The principal manufacture in Leyden is woollen cloth and camblets; and their gardens yield them a conſiderable profit, their garden ſtuff being ſo much valued as to be carried as far as Amſterdam. Theſe gardens are ſaid to have four or five crops in one year, and an acre of garden ground to be worth two hundred and fifty, or three hundred pounds, an acre of arable two hundred, and an acre of meadow an hundred and forty pounds. In the Rhineland-houſe the Dikegrave, one of the moſt conſiderable officers in this country, and his aſſociates, meet in conſultation about the repair of the dikes, banks and canals in the diſtrict of Rhineland, of which Leyden is the capital. In the church of St. Mary's is a monument of Joseph Scaliger, and another of Clusius the herbaliſt, with a Latin inſcription, importing, that he was called hither to adorn the academy, where he lived ſixteen years, and died anno 1609, in the eighty-fourth year of his age, under which is this diſtich;

Non potuit plures hic quærere Clusius *herbas,*
Ergo novas Campis quærit in Elyſiis.

Engliſhed thus by a late writer;

Since no more herbs the earth to Clusius *yields,*
He's gone a ſimpling to th' Elyſian fields.

The Hague.

5. The Hague, or *Gravenhage*, i. e. the Earl's-grove, eſteemed a village, becauſe it has no walls, but the moſt conſiderable of the kind in Europe, ſituate nine miles ſouth-weſt of Leyden, fourteen north-weſt of Rotterdam, and two miles to the eaſtward of the Ocean, encompaſſed with fine meadows and pleaſant groves, in the midſt whereof is a pleaſure-houſe belonging to the Princes of Orange. The place is governed by it's own magiſtrates, and enjoys all the privileges of a city of Holland, but the ſending it's repreſentatives to the States. In this village alſo the States-General and the council of State always aſſemble. Here are held the ſupreme courts of judicature. Foreign miniſters are admitted to their audience, and reſide here; and all publick affairs are tranſacted, which draws a multitude of people hither, and occaſions it's being a very flouriſhing town. The palace is a handſom brick building, making two angles of a ſquare, in the middle whereof is a large hall, equal to that of Guildhall in London. In this palace was an apartment for the late Princes of Orange; the chambers of the States-General and Provincial, and of the council of State. And adjoining to it is a noble ſtone building, called the palace of Prince MAURICE of Naſſau, who built it. On the north ſide is a large ſquare pond called the *Vijver*, and on the weſt the palace opens to a large plain ſurrounded with magnificent houſes, and regularly planted with trees, which have made ſome compare it, not improperly, to St. JAMES's-park: and every city of the United Provinces has a houſe here for their reſpective deputies. Notwithſtanding it is evident from what hath been already obſerved, that the place muſt be large and extremely populous, yet are there but two churches in it; one of them called the Old Church is a handſom fabrick of the uſual form. The other a new building of a round figure without a pillar, which ſeems to be a kind of building that the modern Dutch affect, for there are other temples lately built in Holland of the ſame form. On the north ſide of the Hague is a walk paved with bricks, and ſhaded with lime-trees for two miles, extending as far as Scheveling, a village on the ſea-ſhore, where King CHARLES II. took ſhipping for England at his reſtoration. Scheveling was once a conſiderable town, but lying upon a tempeſtuous ſea, has been extremely leſſened by the waves beating on it's ſhores. About ten miles ſouth-weſt of the Hague lies Honſlaerdyke, a magnificent palace of the late Prince of Orange, having noble gardens adorned with fountains and ſtatues, ſome of which it is ſaid were taken from a palace on this ſide the water, as well as the furniture within doors. Here are two galleries full of beautiful paintings, and the cloſet of the late Princeſs is wainſcotted with Japan-work. Within two miles of the Hague lies the village of Ryſwick, where the Prince had another palace. The treaty of peace between the confederates and the French was concluded here in the year 1697. This palace alſo is admired for it's ſtately front of free-ſtone, it's marble ſtaircaſe, marble floors, exquiſite paintings, &c. Another village called Looſduyne, about ſix miles north-weſt of the Hague cannot be omitted mentioning in this place, ſince every traveller is full of the monſtrous birth ſaid to have happened here: the account we have of this occurrence is, That MARGARET Counteſs of Henneberg, daughter of FLORIS Count of Holland and Zealand, and ſiſter to WILLIAM King of the Romans, having reproached a poor woman as guilty of adultery on account of her having twins, inſinuating that ſhe could not have two children by one man at a time, the woman provoked at this uſage, wiſhed that the Counteſs might have as many children as there were days in the year, which it is ſaid happened accordingly in the year 1276, in the fortieth year of the Lady's age, when ſhe was delivered of three hundred and ſixty-five children, equally divided as to ſex, only the odd one was a boy. They were afterwards chriſtened in the pariſh church in two braſs baſons (which they pretend ſtill to ſhew to travellers) the boys by the name of JOHN, and the girls by the name of ELIZABETH; and in the church wall there is a ſtone with an inſcription, giving the aboveſaid relation: but it is obſerved by travellers to be a modern writing, and different from the inſcription given us by hiſtorians an hundred and fifty years ago, which was much ſhorter than the preſent. The ceremony of baptiſm was performed, according to tradition, by GUIDO, ſuffragan to the Biſhop of Utrecht.

A monſtrous birth.

Delft.

6. Delft, called by the Latins *Delphum* and *Delphi*, ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of the Hague, and eight north-weſt of Rotterdam, pleaſantly ſituated among the meadows, the ſtreets ſpacious, with canals running through them, planted with trees. It is about two miles in circumference, and ſurrounded by an old wall and ditch. The earthen ware of this place is eſteemed the beſt next to China-ware; and they had formerly a good trade in cloth and beer, but it is more conſiderable for being a quiet town, the retreat of wealthy merchants who have left off their buſineſs, than for it's trade at preſent. The publick buildings taken notice of are, the Stadt-houſe and the arſenal of the States, the magazine of powder belonging to which accidentally blew up and deſtroyed great part of the town in the year 1654, but it has been ſince rebuilt to great advantage. There are but two churches in the place, the Old and the New; in the latter whereof is the tomb of WILLIAM firſt Prince of Orange, who was aſſaſſinated in this city: his ſtatue in marble is upon the tomb, and another in braſs armed *cap-a-pe* ſtanding by it, and a Fame ſounding over him with this motto, *Te vindice tuta Libertas.* At his feet lies a dog, which, according to tradition, died of grief on the murder of his maſter. There are alſo many other braſs and marble ſtatues about the tomb, which ſerve to adorn it. Delphs-Haven, which belongs to this city, lies within two miles of Rotterdam, and has a communication both with Delft and Rotterdam by a canal. It is ſtrongly fortified, and has three dams to defend it againſt inundations.

Dort.

7. Dort, or *Dordrecht*, an ancient city, the firſt in dignity of thoſe which compoſe the States of Holland, and the capital of a ſmall country called the Bailiwick of Dort, is ſituate on the river Meruwe, forty miles ſouth of Amſterdam, and fourteen ſouth-eaſt of Rotterdam. This city, with the diſtrict about it, became an iſland by an inundation which happened in the year 1421, throwing down the banks of the Maes and Meruwe, and laying a large tract of land under water between Dort and Brabant, deſtroying near fourſcore villages, and twenty or thirty thouſand people. It's ſituation between the Maes and Meruwe makes it naturally ſtrong; and the natives pretend that it was never yet taken: but the waters are it's greateſt ſecurity; for beſides the rivers abovementioned,

mentioned, which are of a very great breadth near this city, a large lake called the Bieſbos encloſes it on the ſouth and eaſt. The place is large and populous, the ſtreets broad and well paved, and the houſes high and built of brick. Here was held a ſynod in the year 1619, for examining the opinions of the Armenians and Calviniſts, and it is eaſy to imagine which ſide had the beſt of it, when the magiſtracy was in the hands of the diſciples of CALVIN. The room where this Synod was held is ſtill ſhewn to travellers as a curioſity, though it does not ſeem to deſerve a particular deſcription. The Britiſh merchants have two churches in this city, and particular privileges, it being the ſtaple for their cloth, as well as for Rheniſh-wines, corn, wood, and other commodities, brought down the Rhine and the Maes.

Gertrudenberg.

8. Gertrudenberg, ſo named from St. GERTRUDE, ſituate in the diſtrict of Dort, on the ſouth ſide of the lake called Bieſbos, twelves miles ſouth-eaſt of Dort, and ten north of Breda, and belongs to the houſe of Orange. It is ſtrong by nature as well as art, having a marſh on one ſide, and the river Meruwe on the other, which in this place looks like a ſea.

Goude.

9. Goude, or *Tergow*, the ſixth city in dignity of thoſe which compoſe the States of Holland, ſituate on the rivers Gow and Iſſel, twelve miles north-eaſt of Rotterdam, and twenty-four ſouth of Amſterdam, a handſom large city, and a place of ſtrength, eſpecially on account of it's low ſituation, the country about it being liable to be overflowed by their ſluices whenever they apprehend any danger.

Naerden.

10. Naerden, a ſmall, but ſtrong town, ſituate in a moraſs near the Zuider-ſea, twelve miles to the eaſtward of Amſterdam, and fifteen north of Utrecht. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1572, when the enemy, in revenge for their having ſubmitted to the Prince of Orange, ſummoned all the inhabitants to the market-place, and there cut them to pieces in cold blood; which did the Spaniards no ſervice, for the Hollanders thereupon became deſperate and irreconcilable; and it is to ſuch acts of cruelty as theſe that the loſs of the Seven Provinces is generally attributed.

Williamſtadt.

11. Williamſtadt, a little fortified town belonging to the houſe of Orange, having been built by WILLIAM I. anno 1583, from whom it received it's name. It is ſituated on the water called the Roo Vaert, which ſeparates the iſland of Voorn from the continent, and ſecures the communication between Holland and Zealand. The iſlands above mentioned to belong to South Holland, lie at the mouth of the Maes, the principal whereof is Voorn, or the land of Voorn, as it is called, on which ſtands,

The Briel.

12. The city of the Briel, a fortified town, twelve miles to the weſtward of Rotterdam. The buildings are old, but regular; the ſtreets broad, and the walls planted with trees. It has a pretty good harbour, and a tolerable trade, but not comparable to Rotterdam or Dort, which lie higher up the river. This was the firſt town on the coaſt of Holland which the Geuſes, or Malecontents, took from the Spaniards, and occaſioned the revolt of the reſt; and this was one of the cautionary towns which the States delivered into the hands of Queen ELIZABETH, for repaying the expences ſhe was at in defending them againſt the King of Spain, and was afterwards reſtored to them, with the reſt, by King JAMES in his neceſſities, for a very ſmall part of the money that remained due to England. The iſland whereon it ſtands is about twenty miles in length, and ſix in breadth, and is generally fruitful in corn.

Helvoetſluice.

13. Helvoetſluice, on the ſame iſland of Voorn, ſtands about four miles to the ſouthward of the Briel, and is eſteemed the ſafeſt harbour in the country. Here are uſually ſome of the States largeſt men of war, which come up to the middle of the town; and hither the Engliſh pacquet-boat comes and takes in the mail; and though it be one of the moſt convenient places to embark at, yet has the place but little trade, merchant-men chooſing to go higher up the river before they unlade. To the ſouthward of the land of Voorn lies the iſland of Overvlacke, about fifteen miles long and five broad, on which are ſeveral towns and villages, the chief whereof is,

Overvlacke iſland.

14. Summerſdyke, ſituate on the north ſide of the iſland, formerly a town of ſome trade, but upon the decline at preſent. To the weſtwaert of Overvlacke lies the little iſland of Goree, the chief town whereof is of the ſame name, but not conſiderable for it's trade or any thing elſe at this day. This is uſually the firſt land we make on the coaſt of Holland in a voyage from England to Helvoetſluice. Between the land of Voorn and Rotterdam lies the iſland of Iſſemond, or Overmaes, about ten miles in length and four in breadth, the chief town of the ſame name ſtanding almoſt over-againſt Rotterdam. As for Putten and Byerland, I comprehend them under the title of the land of Voorn, from whence they are ſeparated but by a ſmall ſtream.

Summerſdyke.

Goree iſland and town.

Iſſemond iſland and town.

Byerland and Putten.

The chief towns and iſlands of North Holland.

I come next to North Holland, being that part of the province which lies north of that little arm of the ſea called the Y, or Ty, the towns whereof are Hoorn, Enckhuyſen, Alckmaer, Edam, Munickedam, Medenblick, Purmerendt, Beverwick, Wormer, Schermer, Beemſter, Egmont, Petten, Schagen and Ninckel: and the iſlands belonging to North Holland are, the Texel, Eyerlandt, Flielandt or Vlielandt, Schilling, Grind, Vieringen, Ureck, Ens. The chief of which towns and iſlands I am now to deſcribe, and,

Hoorn.

1. Hoorn, twenty miles north of Amſterdam, a large wealthy city, pleaſantly ſituated on the Zuider-ſea, almoſt ſurrounded by gardens and paſture grounds, and ſecured againſt the fury of the ſea by a vaſt dam. The produce of the country about it is chiefly butter and cheeſe, which they export to ſeveral parts of Europe.

Enckhuyſen.

2. Enckhuyſen, ſituate alſo on the Zuider-ſea, ten miles north-eaſt of Hoorn, and as many ſouth-eaſt of Medenblick, a large handſom city with a capacious port, from whence great numbers of ſhips yearly ſet ſail for the Baltick and herring-fiſhery, by which, and ſhip-building, the town is grown very rich.

Medenblick.

3. Medenblick, an ancient city, once the capital of North Holland, now but a little town ſituate on the Zuider-ſea, ten miles north of Hoorn, is ſtill a commodious harbour, and defended by an old caſtle. Here are the ſtrongeſt dams and banks of the country to defend it from the fury of the waves, which beat violently on theſe ſhores when the wind blows a ſtorm from the northwards. The country about this place is taken notice of for it's rich paſtures.

Alcmaer.

4. Alcmaer, twenty miles to the northwards of Haerlem, an ancient town, but one of the beſt built in this part of the country, and pleaſantly ſituate in the midſt of gardens, groves, and paſ-

ture grounds, which laſt produce vaſt quantities of cheeſe and butter, which enriches the natives.

Sardam.

5. Saenredam, or Sardam, ſituate on the Y, or Ty, ſeven miles north-weſt of Amſterdam, and almoſt oppoſite to it, very conſiderable on account of the numbers of ſhips which are annually built here, though it be but an open town.

Edam.

6. Edam, ſituate on the Zuider-ſea, ten miles ſouth of Hoorn, a ſmall town, but conſiderable alſo upon account of the ſhips that are built here.

Purmer.

7. Purmer, a neat fortified town, five miles weſt of Edam; the country about this place and Edam was formerly a lake, which having been drained, makes a pleaſant fruitful country, that goes by the name of Purmerendt; and to the ſouthward of this lies the Beemſter, already mentioned, which was formerly a lake, but now a fine country, containing ſeven or eight thouſand acres of ground. Of the like kind are the Wormer, which lies ſtill further ſouthward; the Schermer and the Huygen Waert to the weſtward of the Beemſter; as alſo the Zype, the moſt northerly part of this province, the ſea being kept out by a vaſt mole formed by beams of timber driven into the ground, and the ſpaces filled up with huge ſtones and cement.

Texel iſland.

Between the ocean and the Zuider-ſea lie the iſlands above mentioned to belong to North Holland; and firſt, the Texel, a fruitful iſland, about ſix miles long, and five broad, lying a little to the northward of the continent of Holland, between which and this iſland is one of the principal paſſages out of the Zuider-ſea into the Ocean: the chief town is Burch, ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, ſtrongly fortified and gariſoned; the natives apply themſelves pretty much to the herring fiſhery.

Flie iſland.

Schelling iſland.

To the northward of the Texel lies the Vlie, or Flie iſland, nine miles long, and two broad; and north-eaſt of this the iſland of Schelling, in which was a village containing about a thouſand houſes, burnt by Sir ROBERT HOLMES, who commanded an Engliſh ſquadron in the Dutch war, with near an hundred ſail of merchant ſhips. Theſe iſlands, and ſome banks of ſand that lie at the entrance of the Zuider-ſea, a little break the fury of the Ocean when the wind ſits north-weſt, or the whole province of Holland would be very much in danger of being laid under water every ſtorm that happens from that quarter.

The Wierrings.

Wierin-iſland.

Eyerland.

The Wierrings are ſeveral ſmall iſlands which lie in the Zuider-ſea within the Texel; to the eaſtward of which lies the iſland of Vieringen or Wieringen. The iſland of Eyerland lies between the iſlands of the Texel and the Flie, but of theſe I meet with nothing particular. I ſhall only add that there is a tolerable harbour in the Texel, and another in the Flie, in the firſt of which the ſhips bound to the ſouthward uſually rendezvous, and in the latter thoſe bound to the north; and when the homeward bound veſſels can recover either of theſe ports, they look upon themſelves to be ſecure from the enemy.

Zealand Province.

Zealand, the ſecond of the ſeven provinces I propoſed to deſcribe, conſiſts of ſeveral iſlands, and is held to have obtained the name Zealand, or rather Sealand, from the Danes when they over-run this part of the world, as reſembling ſome iſlands of their own country ſurrounded in like manner by the ſea, and carrying the name of Zealand.

Compoſed of eight iſlands.

The iſlands which compoſe this province are eight in number, four whereof are ſaid to belong to the weſtern branch of the Scheld, and four to the eaſtern branch of the Scheld. Thoſe of the weſtern Scheld, are Walcheren, South Bevelandt, North Bevelandt, and Wolferdyke: and thoſe of the eaſtern Scheld, Schowen, Duvelland, Tolen and Oreſand.

Situation and extent.

The whole province comprehending the ſeas and channels which divide the ſeveral iſlands, is bounded by the Ocean, and the iſlands of Holland on the north, by Brabant on the eaſt, by Flanders on the ſouth, and by the ocean towards the weſt; and extends thirty miles in length, reckoning from Tolen to the moſt weſterly part of Walcheren, and twenty miles in breadth, viz. from the ſouthern ſhore of South Bevelandt to the northern ſhore of Schowen.

Walcheren iſland.

Middleburg city.

The principal of theſe iſlands is that of Walcheren, lying at the mouth of the Scheld, about nine miles in length, and eight in breadth, almoſt of an oval figure. The chief town of the iſland of Walcheren is, 1. Middleburg, the capital of the whole province; ſo named, it is ſaid, from it's ſituation in the middle of the iſland. It lies in the latitude of fifty-one degrees forty minutes, forty miles ſouth-weſt of Rotterdam, and as many of Breda, and twenty-five north-eaſt of Bruges. The city is large and populous, and abounds in wealthy merchants: a canal has been cut from an arm of the ſea to the city, whereby they bring merchant ſhips into the middle of the town. The ſtreets are broad and well-paved; the publick buildings magnificent, particularly the ſtadthouſe and churches, of which laſt there are no leſs than twenty; that called the New Church, admired for it's beauty, is of an octogonal figure, and has a noble cupola over it; the whole town is ſurrounded with a wall, a moat, and other fortifications. King PHILIP II. made it a Biſhop's See in the fifteenth century: but the Dutch malecontents ſoon after gaining the poſſeſſion of it, converted the palace to ſecular uſes, and ſequeſtered the revenues, as they did in other parts of the United Provinces where biſhopricks were eſtabliſhed.

Rammekins.

2. Rammekins, or Zeburg, a fortreſs, ſituate at the mouth of the harbour of Middleburg, and three miles ſouth-eaſt of it, once a conſiderable town, and one of thoſe cautionary places delivered up to Queen ELIZABETH; at preſent an inconſiderable village.

Fluſhing.

3. Fluſhing, or Vliſſingen, ſituate in the moſt ſoutherly part of the iſland, five miles ſouth of Middleburg, a conſiderable city, and a place of great trade, having a good harbour, and fortifications for it's defence. This was another of the cautionary towns delivered to Queen ELIZABETH by the Dutch as a pledge of their fidelity, and a ſecurity for the money ſhe had advanced them to reſiſt the Spaniard.

Ter Vere.

4. Ter Vere, three miles north of Middleburg, a fortified town, and a good harbour; but lies pretty much expoſed to inundations.

Armuyden.

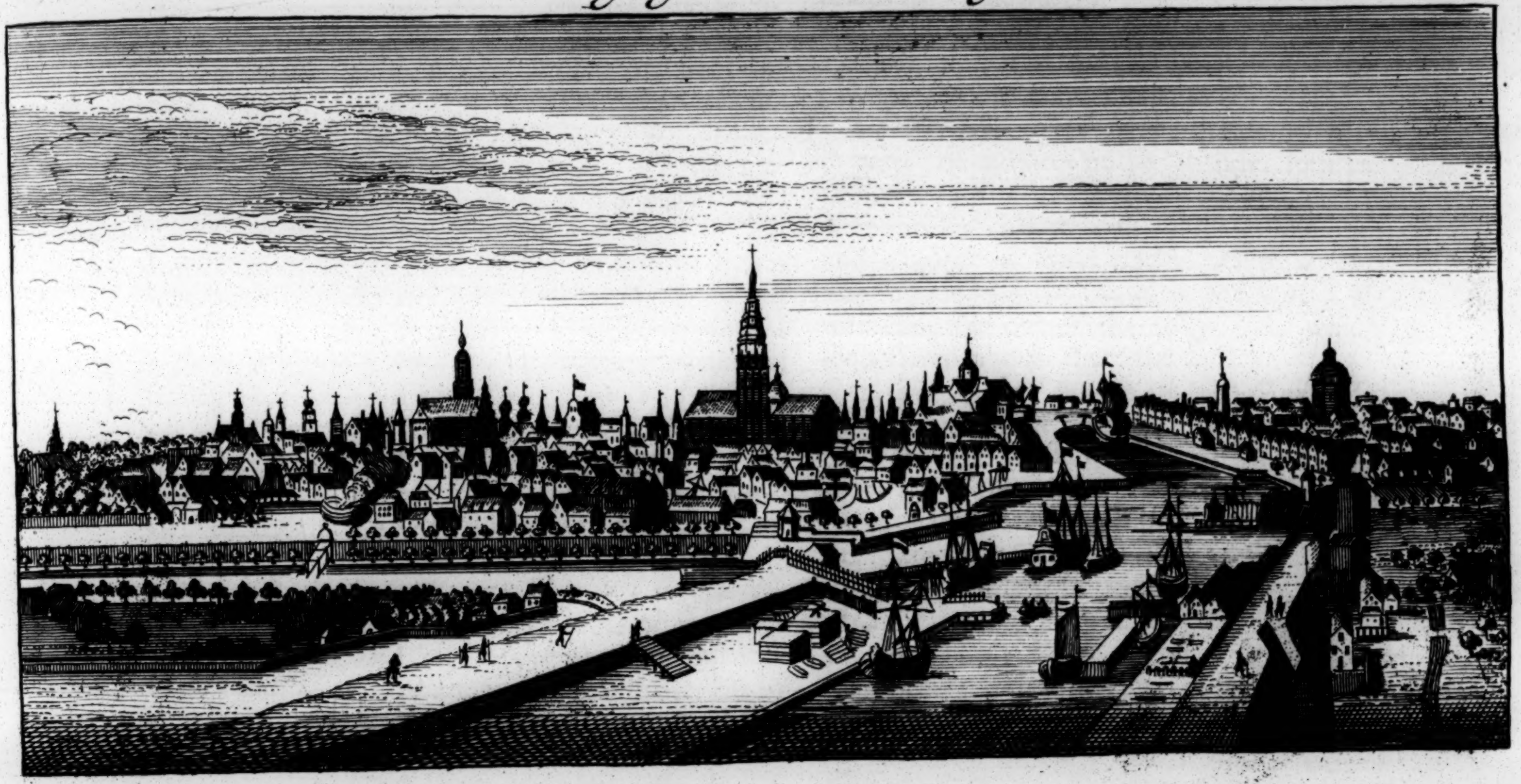
5. Armuyden, ſituate at the mouth of the river which comes from Middleburg, and two miles eaſt of it. It had once a good harbour, and was a place of trade, but the harbour being choaked up, it is but an inconſiderable town at preſent.

South Bevelandt iſland.

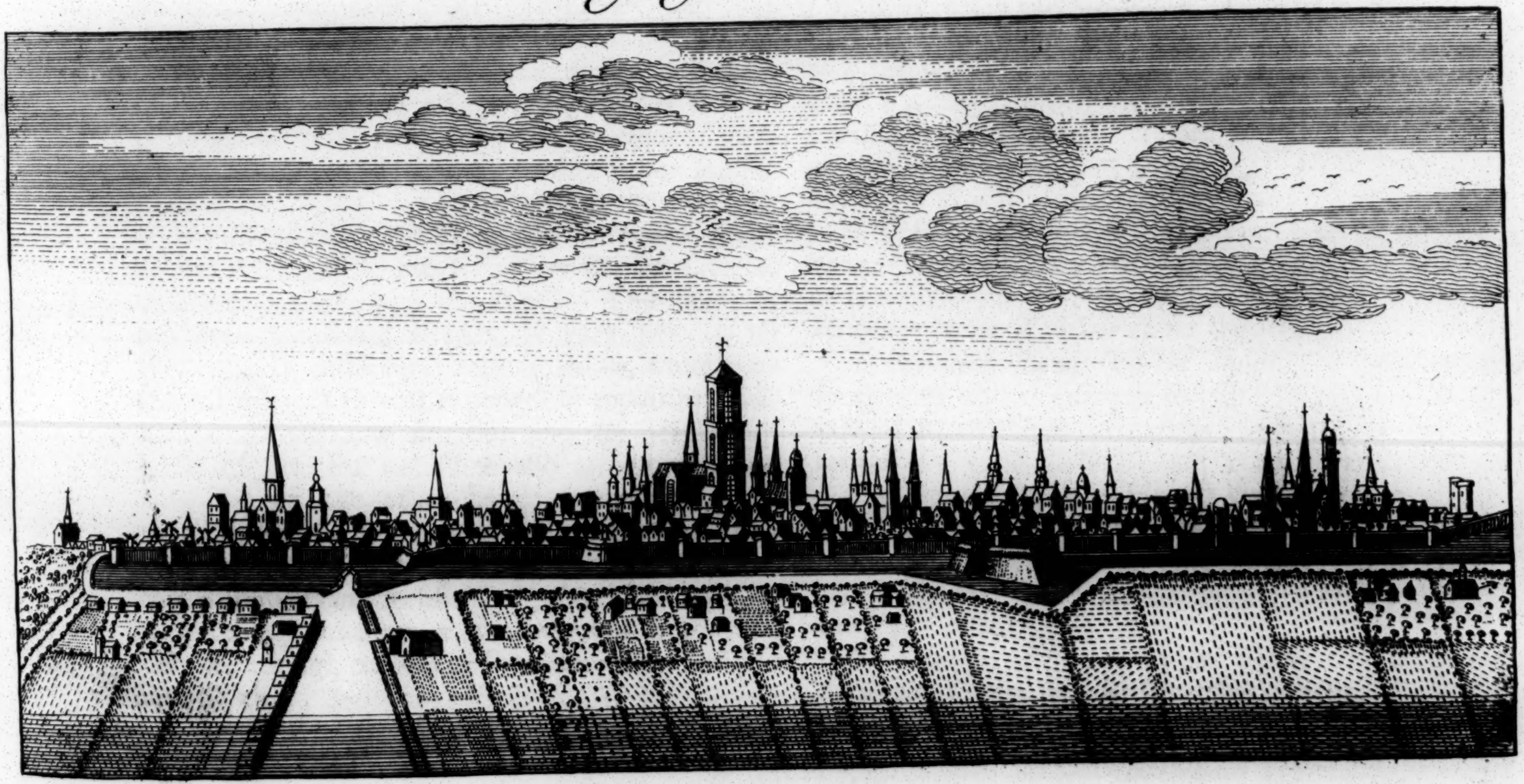
The iſland of South Bevelandt lies to the eaſtward of Walcheren, and is the largeſt of the Zealand iſlands; being about fifteen miles long, and ſeven or eight broad, and was much larger till part of it, in the year 1532, was laid under water by an inundation.

Ter Goes.

The only town of any conſequence in it is, 4. Ter Goes, on the north part of the iſland, twelve miles eaſt of Middleburg, and fifteen weſt of Bergen op Zoom. There are beſides above thirty villages, and ſeveral



The City of Utrecht



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Wolferdyke Iſland.

ral Gentlemen's ſeats. The iſland of Wolferdyke lies between North and South Bevelandt; and is about five miles in length, and one in breadth; having at preſent only three or four villages upon it, great part of it has been laid under water by inundations.

North Bevelandt iſland.

To the northward of Wolferdyke lies North Bevelandt; about five miles in length, and two in breadth, great part whereof alſo has had the misfortune to be ſwallowed up by the ſea, before which the country was ſo pleaſant, that it was called the garden of Zealand. There is no town of any note upon it at preſent.

Schowen.

To the northward of North Bevelandt lies the iſland of Schowen, the largeſt of thoſe on the ſide of the Eaſtern Scheld; being fifteen miles in length, and ſix in breadth, and was much larger till worn away by inundations; the chief town whereof is,

Zirickzee.

5. Zirickzee, ſaid to be the moſt ancient in Zealand, ſituate on the channel which divides Schowen from Duvell, and fifteen miles north-eaſt of Middleburg. It has a tolerable harbour, and is a place of ſome trade.

Browerſhaven.

6. Browerſhaven, ſituate on the north ſide of the iſland, five miles north of Zirickzee; the natives whereof ſubſiſt chiefly by fiſhing and huſbandry.

Bommenee.

7. Bommenee, two miles to the eaſtward of Browerſhaven, over-againſt Goree, eſteemed a ſtrong fortreſs.

Duvelland iſland.

To the eaſtward of Schowen lies Duvelland, ſeparated from it by a very narrow ſtream; there are ſeveral villages upon it, the chief whereof is of the ſame name with the iſland, but not one conſiderable town.

Tolen iſland and town.

The iſland of Tolen is ſeparated from Brabant by a very narrow channel, called *Het Slaeck*; being about ſix miles in length, and five in breadth: the chief town whereof is Tolen, eſteemed a ſtrong fortreſs, ſituate four miles north-weſt of Bergen op Zoom, and twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Zirickzee.

Oreſand iſland.

The ſmall iſland of Oreſand lies between Schowen, and North Bevelandt, and has ſome villages upon it, but no town of any note.

Theſe iſlands of Zealand were anciently ſubject to the Earls of Holland, and afterwards to the houſes of Burgundy and Auſtria; but enjoyed very ample privileges all that time till Philip II. invaded their rights, which occaſioned the civil war above-mentioned, and Fluſhing was the next town to the Briel which was ſeized by the Sea-Geuſes, or malecontents upon the coaſt. The land, as has been intimated already, is very low in all theſe iſlands, and ſubject to inundations, which puts the inhabitants to vaſt expences in repairing their banks. Their low ſituation and the neighbourhood of the ſea occaſions alſo an unwholeſom air; but on the other hand, the country is generally fruitful, abounding in good corn and paſture grounds, and the natives many of them being employed in the fiſheries, and other branches of foreign trade, are a wealthy and flouriſhing people, though they have ſcarce any manufactures among them.

Frieſland province.

The third of the United Provinces I propoſe to treat of is Frieſland: bounded by the Ocean on the north, by the province of Groningen on the eaſt, by the province of Overyſſel, and part of the Zuider-ſea towards the ſouth, and by other part of the Zuider-ſea towards the weſt. This was the country of the ancient Frizons, and formerly, 'tis ſaid, lay contiguous to North Holland, (ſometimes called Weſt Frieſland) from which it is now ſeparated by the Zuider-ſea, formed not many years ſince by an extraordinary inundation. Groningen with Eaſt Frieſland, or the county of Embden, was alſo part of the county of the ancient Frizons; and ſome affirm that it was ſtill of a larger extent, but the preſent bounds of this province are as above deſcribed: extending about forty miles in length from north to ſouth, and twenty-five in breadth from eaſt to weſt, and is uſually ſubdivided into Weſtergo, Oſtergo, and Seven Wolden.

Subdiviſion. Chief towns.

In Weſtergo, or the weſtern part of it, are the towns of Franeker, Harlingen, Bolſwaert, Sneek, Worcum and Staveren. In Oſtergo, or the north-eaſt part of it, are the towns of Leuwarden and Dockum, and in Seven Wolden, the ſouth-eaſt part of the country, a barren ſoil, and meanly inhabited, is only the town of Sloot, beſides villages.

Franeker city.

1. Franeker, *Franequera*, ſituate in fifty-three degrees ten minutes north latitude, four miles to the eaſtward of the Zuider-ſea, and eight to the weſtward of Leuwarden, a little handſom city, and a place of ſome trade. Here a univerſity was founded by the States in the year 1585, and well endowed out of the abby-lands which were ſequeſtered about that time.

Harlingen.

2. Harlingen, ſituate on the Zuider-ſea, five miles weſt of Franeker, it has a pretty good harbour for ſmall veſſels, and carries on a trade to Norway. The place is fortified, and naturally ſtrong, the country about it being eaſily laid under water in caſes of neceſſity.

Leuwarden.

3. Leuwarden, a fortified town, eight miles to the eaſtward of Franeker, the beſt city of the province in all reſpects, and the reſidence of the Stadtholder and ſovereign council. It is a place of trade, and admired for it's fine buildings, it's handſom ſtreets and bridges, and the pleaſant gardens about it.

Doccum.

4. Doccum, ſituate ten miles north-eaſt of Leuwarden, in a fruitful country, a place of ſome ſtrength, and tolerably well built; moſt taken notice of for a fine bridge, under which veſſels may paſs with their maſts up.

Sloot.

5. Sloot, or Sloten, ſituate upon a navigable canal; a league from the Zuider-ſea, nine miles north-eaſt of Staveren. It has but one church, and no other building of any note, but the Stadthouſe.

Bolſwaert.

6. Bolſwaert, formerly one of the Hans-Towns, about ſeven miles ſouth of Franeker. It's harbour at preſent is choaked up, but carries on a trade however in ſmall veſſels along their canals.

Staveren.

7. Staveren, ſituate on the Zuider-ſea on the ſouth-weſt point of Frieſland, four leagues north-eaſt of Medenblick in North Holland. It had formerly a good harbour, and a briſk trade, and was the third of the Hans-Towns, more anciently the capital city, and reſidence of the Kings of the Frizons; but the harbour being choaked up, it is fallen to decay, and but an inconſiderable town at preſent.

Iſlands of Frieſland.

The iſlands of Ameland and Schiermonikooge lie in the Ocean to the north of Frieſland, and both belong to this province; but here are only ſeven or eight villages which do not ſeem to merit a deſcription.

The air of Frieſland is cold, but more healthful than the ſouthern provinces, and though the land lies under water great part of the winter, inſomuch, that they are forced to go from town to town by banks and cauſeways, it is all driven out either by art or the hot weather which ſucceeds, and there appears to be a great deal of good arable and paſture in the ſummer ſeaſon. Their beſt, and almoſt only firing is turf, which burns as white, and gives as good a heat as wood: theſe turf meadows being mixed with a bituminous matter, have, as hiſtory relates, taken fire at certain times, and burnt up the country for ſeveral leagues, till a ſtop has been put to the conflagration by ſome lakes or rivers which happened to interpoſe and extinguiſh it. The natives of this province, it is obſerved, are martially inclined and chooſe to follow the camp rather than apply themſelves to trade. Their nobility and gentry avoid matching into the families of merchants, or mechanicks, and delight in rich clothes and equipages much more than their ſouthern neighbours. In their faſhions they follow the mode of France, and in drinking the Germans, good fellowſhip prevails.

Groningen province.

Chief towns.

The fourth province I ſhall deſcribe, is that of Groningen and the Omlands; which is bounded by the Ocean on the north; by the rivers Ems and the Dollart Bay, which ſeparates it from Embden, or Eaſt Frieſland, in Germany, on the eaſt; by the province of Overyſſel on the ſouth; and by Dutch or Weſt Frieſland, the province laſt deſcribed, towards the weſt: extending upwards of thirty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty miles in breadth from north to ſouth, and is uſually divided into Groningen Proper and the Omlands. In the former of which the chief towns are Groningen and Winſcheten; and in the Omlands, Dam.

Groningen city.

Groningen, formerly one of the Hans-Towns, ſituate on the confluence of the two rivers Aha and Huneſus, in the latitude of fifty-three degrees odd minutes, thirty miles to the eaſt-ward of Leuwarden, and twenty ſouth-weſt of Embden; a fortified town, about two miles in circumference; and beſides the rivers above-mentioned, it is watered with ſeveral artificial canals, by which it has a communication with the river Ems, the Ocean, and the neighbouring countries, by means whereof they carry on a briſk trade to Germany, &c. They have two or three ſpacious market-places, and about ſeven and twenty handſom ſtreets; and formerly there were twelve churches in the place, but the Dutch have converted nine of them to ſecular purpoſes. All the ground within the walls is not built upon, but there are ſeveral large gardens and orchards belonging to the principal citizens, which with the canals render it a pleaſant town in ſummer.

Dam city.

Winſchoten.

2. Dam, the capital of the Omlands, twelve miles north-eaſt of Groningen, ſituate on the canal called the Dampſter Diep, three miles weſt of the river Ems; a large well-built town, but without walls, the States of Groningen being jealous of the Omlanders, who ſometimes diſpute their authority, and pretend to an independency. 3. Winſchoten, a fortreſs, ſituate between the Dollart Bay and an impaſſable moraſs, which commands one of the paſſes out of Eaſt Frieſland into the United Provinces; is ſeventeen miles eaſt of Groningen, and twelve ſouth of Dam: there are alſo the Billingworder Schans, and the Bourtanger Fort, with ſeveral others which lie upon the frontiers, and ſecure the United Provinces againſt any attacks on the ſide of Germany: and indeed the Dutch are in a manner maſters of Emben in Eaſt-Frieſland, that city having put it ſelf under their protection, and admitted a gariſon of the States troops. The ſoil of this province is generally barren, and the air ſharp, but more healthful than that of the ſouthern provinces.

Overyſſel province.

Subdiviſion.

Chief towns.

The fifth province of the United Netherlands which I am to deſcribe, is, that of Overyſſel, ſo named from it's ſituation beyond the river Yſſel: this province is bounded by Groningen and Frieſland towards the north; by the biſhoprick of Munſter in Germany on the eaſt; by Guelderland and Zutphen on the ſouth; and by the Zuider-ſea on the weſt: extending near ſixty miles in length from north to ſouth, and forty in breadth from eaſt to weſt; and is uſually divided into three parts, viz. Iſelandt or Sallandt, Twente, and Drent. Of which, 1. Iſelandt, lies about the river Yſſel; the chief towns whereof are Deventer, Swoll, Campen and Haſſelt. 2. Twente, which lies to the eaſtward of Sallandt, on the confines of Munſter; the chief towns whereof are Oldenſael, Otmerſan and Enſcheden. 3. Drent, the moſt northerly part of Overyſſel; the chief towns whereof are Coverden, Mepple, Vollenhoven, Steenwick, Swarte Sluice and Blockzyl.

Deventer.

Zwoll.

Campen.

Coverden.

1. Deventer, or Daventer, ſituate on the river Yſſel, ſeven miles north of Zutphen, and thirty to the eaſtward of Amersfort, a large populous city, elegantly built, and well fortified, formerly an Imperial city, and one of the Hans-Towns, and ſtill a place of good trade. The inhabitants are many of them noblemen and perſons of diſtinction. There were in it formerly ten or twelve churches, which the States ſince their being maſters of it have reduced to three: PHILIP II alſo made it a Biſhop's See in the year 1559; but the Dutch aboliſhed the biſhoprick and ſequeſtred the revenues in 1580. The moſt remarkable ſtructure here is the tower of Noremberg of a round figure, built with brick and ſtone, the walls ſeventeen feet thick, and of ſuch large dimenſions, it is ſaid, as to require a gariſon of ſeveral thouſand men to defend it. 2. Swoll, or Zwoll, ſituate between the two rivers Yſſel and Vecht, eighteen miles north of Daventer. Another river runs through the town, by which the tide brings up veſſels from the Zuider-ſea, and makes it a place of tolerable trade. The fortifications which ſurround the town are well planted with trees, the ſtreets regular, and the buildings good, all which contribute to make it a very deſirable place. 3. Campen, pleaſantly ſituated near the Zuider-ſea on the ſouth ſide of the river Yſſel, eighteen miles weſt of Swoll, a large well built city, in which the publick buildings, ſuch as the Stadthouſe, the churches, and the cuſtom houſe, are ſaid to have an air of magnificence; but the trade of the town is much diminiſhed ſince the mouth of the river Yſſel has been choaked up with ſand. 3. Coverden, the capital of the diſtrict of Drente, ſituate on the confines of Bentheim in Germany, thirty miles to the eaſtward of Swoll, a fortreſs ſtrong by nature as well as art, ſituate in an unpaſſable moraſs, and as it commands a paſs out of Munſter in Germany into Groningen and Frieſland, is a place of great importance.

Guelderland province.

The next province we come to is that of Guelderland, formerly divided into Dutch Guelderland and Spaniſh Guelderland; but by the late treaty of peace a partition was made of the Spaniſh Guelderland between the Emperor, the Dutch, and the King of Pruſſia, of which I ſhall give a particular relation after I have deſcribed that part of the province formerly called Dutch Guelderland.

Dutch Guelderland.

Dutch Guelderland, of which the country of Zutphen is deemed a part, is bounded by the Zuider-ſea and the province of Overyſſel on the north, by the biſhoprick of Munſter on the eaſt, by Brabant and the duchy of Cleve towards the ſouth, and by the provinces of Holland and Utrecht

Subdiviſion and chief towns.

trecht towards the weſt, extending about fifty miles in length from north to ſouth, and is not much leſs in breadth from eaſt to weſt, being uſually ſubdivided into three leſſer parts or diſtricts, viz. the Veluwe, the Betuwe or Betawe, anciently Batavia, and the county of Zutphen.

The Veluwe. The Betuwe. Zutphen county.

1. The Veluwe is the northern part of this province, and ſituate between the Zuider-ſea, the Yſſel, and the Rhine, in which the principal towns are Arnheim, Wageninge, Harderwick, Hattem, and Elberg. 2. The Betuwe is almoſt encompaſſed by the rivers Rhine, Leck, Maes, and Meruwe, in which diſtrict the principal towns are Nimeguen, Tiel, Schenckenſchans, Bommel, Buren, and Cuylenburg. 3. The county of Zutphen, bounded by the province of Overyſſel on the north; by the river Yſſel, which ſeparates it from the Veluwe, towards the weſt; by the duchy of Cleve on the ſouth; and by the biſhoprick of Munſter on the eaſt; extends about thirty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty four in breadth from north to ſouth, in which the principal towns are Zutphen, Doeſburg, Groll, and Brevcort.

Arnheim. Palaces of Dieren and Loo. Harderwick. Nimeguen. Schenckenſchans. Tiel. Bommel. Loveſtein. Fort St. Andrew. Fort Voorn. Batavia.

1. Arnheim, pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the Rhine, about thirty miles ſouth of the Zuider-ſea, and ten to the northward of Nimeguen; a large fortified town, anciently the reſidence of the Dukes of Guelder. The air is more healthful here than in moſt of the provinces we have paſſed through; for here they begin to get out of that mooriſh ſoil, which is too common in the maritime provinces, and aſcend the hills, eſpecially on the ſide of the Veluwe, which occaſions it to be inhabited by people of the beſt quality. The buildings alſo are neat and elegant, which makes it in every reſpect a very deſirable place. The church of St. Euſebius is taken notice of by travellers as a handſom ſtructure; but there were many more churches as well as monaſteries in this city, while it remained under the dominion of the Spaniard, which are now run to ruin, or converted to ſecular uſes. However, it muſt be acknowledged, that the Dutch have in this, and moſt of their cities, erected ſeveral fine hoſpitals in the room of them. Ten miles north-eaſt of Arnheim ſtands the palace of Dieren, belonging to the late King William; and about ſeven miles further northward, the palace of Loo, ſituate in the middle of the Veluwe, in a healthful air, the country about it abounding with all manner of game: this therefore was the favourite place of that Prince, and his uſual reſidence when affairs of ſtate would permit him to retire. The gardens are much admired for their fine walks, grotto's, fountains and caſcades, and whatever may render ſuch a retreat deſirable. 2. Harderwick, ſituate on the coaſts of the Zuider-ſea, thirty miles north of Arnheim, a well-built town, and a univerſity erected in the year 1648, by the ſtates of this province. The Rector, who is the chief magiſtrate of the place, is choſen annually by ſix Curators. The great church of St. Mary's is ſaid to be a magnificent ſtructure, but I don't find any other publick buildings taken notice of. The French half ruined the place when they invaded the United Provinces anno 1672, and the Zuider-ſea daily encroaches upon it, ſo that it is now in a very declining condition. 3. Nimeguen, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Waal, (a branch of the Rhine) ten miles ſouth of Arnheim; eight north of Grave; and twelve to the weſtward of Schenckenſchans; a large populous city, built in form of a creſcent on five ſmall hills, by the river ſide. The ſtreets are wide, the houſes neatly built, and there are ſtill ten churches remaining in it, of which that of St. Stephen's is eſteemed a very handſom ſtructure. Here are two hoſpitals alſo for the maintenance and education of poor orphans, two others for ancient people, one for lepers, two for other infirm people, and one for lunaticks. The Stadthouſe is a magnificent pile, adorned with the ſtatues of ſeveral Emperors. The caſtle called Valckhoff, or Waalhoff, ſignifying a palace upon the Waal, was anciently eſteemed a palace of great ſtrength, from whence there is one of the fineſt proſpects of the neighbouring country that can be imagined. In the year 1608, a navigable canal of ten miles in length was dug from hence to Arnheim, at the joint charge of thoſe cities. Upon the French invaſion, anno 1672, this city ſurrendered to them after a ſiege of ſix days, and the gariſon were made priſoners of war; but the French abandoned it again in 1674. And here afterwards was that famous treaty of peace negotiated between France and the confederates in the years 1678 and 1679, called the treaty of Nimeguen. 4. Schenckenſchans, or Schenkſconce, ſo named from the Engineer Schenck, who projected this important fortreſs, which ſtands on that point of the Betuwe where the Rhine divides itſelf into two branches, one whereof takes the name of the Waal, and the other retains it's ancient name: thus ſituated, the fort commands both thoſe rivers, and is one of the principal paſſes between Germany and the United Netherlands. 5. Tiel, ſituate on the ſouth ſide of the Waal, twelve miles weſt of Nimeguen, is a marſhy ſoil, which renders it very unhealthful; but the place is reaſonably ſtrong, and the capital of a diſtrict called the Tieler Waert. 6. Bommel, ſituate on the ſouth ſide of the Waal, ten miles to the weſtward of Tiel, a pleaſant well-built city, ſurrounded with good fortifications and the capital of a country called the Bommel Waert, which is an iſland formed by the Waal and the Maes, about twelve miles long and four broad. On the weſt point of this iſland ſtands the caſtle of Loveſtein, and on the eaſt the two ſtrong fortreſſes of Fort St. Andrew, and Fort Voorn or Naſſau, which command the rivers Maes and Waal. Theſe are the chief towns of the Betuwe, or Batavia, the ſeat of the ancient *Batavi*, ſo often mentioned in Roman hiſtory, who according to Tacitus, deſcended from the tribe or nation of the *Catti*. The extent of ancient Batavia is ſuppoſed to have been from Rhinburg in the duchy of Cleve to Catwick near Leyden on the coaſt of Holland, which town is thought to have derived it's name from the *Catti*. The preſent Batavia, or Betuwe, extends from Schenckenſchans in the eaſt, to Worcum in the the weſt, being a tract of about forty miles in length; but the greateſt breadth from Arnheim on the Rhine to Grave on the Maes, is not much above ſixteen miles.

Zutphen city.

In the county of Zutphen, the third ſubdiviſion of Guelderland, the chief towns are, 7. Zutphen, or South Fen, ſuppoſed to have obtained this name from it's ſituation, when the Frizons were maſters of the whole country, viz. of Friezland, Groningen, &c. as well as of the provinces to the ſouthward of them. This city lies on the river Yſſel, fifteen miles north-eaſt of Arnheim, and twenty four miles almoſt north of Nimeguen. The river Berkel runs through the middle of the town and divides it into two parts, called the old and new town, and then falls into the Yſſel, over which there is a handſom bridge, beſides two others which join the old and new town together. The city is generally well built, and being in a good air, is inhabited by people of condition. The admired Sir WILLIAM SIDNEY was mortally wounded in an engagement with the Spaniards near this place, in the year 1586. It was taken by the French in 1672, but quitted again two years after; which was the fortune of moſt of the towns of this province. The great church dedicated to St. PETER is a noble building, and the brazen font in it much admired for the curious workmanſhip. Here is alſo a handſom old monument of Count OTHO the Third, who by ſome is ſuppoſed to have founded this church. There is ſtill the ruins of a palace, which, according to the tradition of the place, belonged to the ancient Counts of Zutphen, and near it a high brick tower of a pyramidal form, one of the greateſt ornaments to the city. The monaſteries and religious houſes which were formerly here, are part of them demoliſhed, and the reſt converted into hoſpitals or other ſecular uſes.

Doeſburg.

8. Doeſburg, on the Yſſel, eight miles ſouth of Zutphen, ſtrongly ſituated by nature, having the river on one ſide and a moraſs on the other, and only to be approached by a narrow neck of land, and yet was ſurrendered to the French anno 1672, in three days, who demoliſhed the fortifications when they quitted it the next year. This town is ſuppoſed to have been built by DRUSUS, lying near the place where he cut the channel to bring the Rhine to the Yſſel.

Groll.

9. Groll, about ſixteen miles to the eaſtward of Doeſburg, another conſiderable paſs from Germany to the Low Countries, taken by the Biſhop of Munſter in the year 1672, but yielded to the States again not long after. The air of Dutch Guelderland, as hath been intimated already, is much better than that of the maritime provinces, great part of the country being a gravelly ſoil and heath ground, and riſing gradually into hills, eſpecially the Veluwe. Zutphen however has good meadow and paſture ground, where great herds of lean black cattle, brought from Denmark and the north of Germany, are fatted for the market; and other parts of the province yields good corn. I proceed next to the deſcription of that part of the country till lately denominated Spaniſh Guelderland.

Auſtrian and Pruſſian Guelderland, &c. formerly Spaniſh Guelderland.

Chief towns.

This diſtrict lies at a little diſtance from the Dutch Guelderland, the weſtern part of the duchy of Cleve interpoſing, and is bounded by the ſaid duchy of Cleve towards the north, by part of the ſame duchy and the electorate of Cologne on the eaſt, by the duchy of Juliers on the ſouth, and by the biſhoprick of Liege towards the weſt; extending upwards of thirty miles in length from north to ſouth, and twenty miles in breadth where broadeſt, but in moſt places much leſs: the chief towns whereof are Guelder, Ruremond, Venlo, Wachtendonck, Stralen and Stevenſwaert: which, with the reſpective countries dependent on them, were thus parcelled out by the laſt treaty of peace, anno 1714; viz.

Partition of Spaniſh Guelderland.

1. His Imperial Majeſty ſurrendered to the King of Pruſſia all that part of the upper quarter of Guelderland which he was then poſſeſſed of, namely, the town of Guelder, the prefecture, bailiwick and lower bailiwick of Guelder, with all that belongs to it and depends upon it; as alſo the towns, bailiwicks, and lordſhips of Stralen, Wachtendonck, Midelaer, Walbeck, Aertſen, Afferden and Wiel, together with Racy and Kieyn, Kevelhar, with their appurtenances; the ammanie of Kriekenbeck, and it's appurtenances, and the county of Keſſel and it's appurtenances and dependencies, except only Erkelin with it's appurtenances and dependencies; to be enjoyed by his Pruſſian Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, in the ſame manner as the houſe of Auſtria, and particularly the late King of Spain poſſeſſed them. 2. His Imperial Majeſty ſurrendered to their High Mightineſſes the States General, for ever in full ſovereignty and propriety, the town of Venlo in the upper quarter of Guelderland, with it's precincts and juriſdiction, and the fort of St. MICHAEL: alſo the fort of Stevenſwaert, with it's territory and juriſdiction, and as much land as was neceſſary to augment the fortifications on this ſide the Maes: and his Imperial Majeſty promiſed never to permit any fortifications to be built within the diſtance of half a league from the old fortreſs. His Imperial Majeſty alſo yielded up to their High Mightineſſes the ammanie of Montfort, conſiſting of the little towns of Nieuſtadt and Echt, with the villages of Oke and Lack, Rooſtern, Bracht, Beſel, Belſeln, Vlodorp, Poſtert, Berg, Lin and Montfort, to be poſſeſſed by the ſaid States-General in the ſame manner they were enjoyed by CHARLES II. of Spain; provided always that this ſurrender be made with this expreſs clauſe, that the ſtatutes, ancient cuſtoms and privileges, civil and eccleſiaſtical, as well with reſpect to magiſtrates, as private perſons; the churches, convents, monaſteries, ſeminaries, hoſpitals, and other publick places, with their appurtenances and dependencies; as alſo the dioceſan rights of the Biſhop of Ruremond, and generally all that concerns the rights, liberties, immunities, functions, uſages, ceremonies, and the exerciſe of religion, ſhall be preſerved and ſubſiſt without any change or innovation, directly or indirectly, in all places given up as aboveſaid, in the ſame manner as in the time of King CHARLES II. And the offices of magiſtracy, or policy, ſhall be given to none but ſuch as are of the Roman catholick religion. The right of collation to benefices, which has been hitherto in the Sovereign, ſhall hereafter belong to the Biſhop of Ruremond, on condition they be not given to perſons obnoxious to the States. And it was further agreed, that the duties of import and export levied along the Maes ſhould not be encreaſed or abated but by common conſent; of which duties his Imperial Majeſty ſhould receive thoſe paid at Ruremond and Navaigne, and the States thoſe to be paid at Venlo. [A like clauſe as to the religion, liberties, and privileges of the natives of thoſe countries, made over to the King of Pruſſia in Guelderland, is inſerted in the ſurrender of them by his Imperial Majeſty.] As to the city of Ruremond, and all the reſt of the country lately called the Spaniſh Guelderland, this was left to his Imperial Majeſty to poſſeſs, in the ſame manner it was enjoyed by the late King of Spain, CHARLES II. It remains now that I give ſome deſcription of the principal towns already mentioned, and, 1. of Ruremond, or Roermond, ſituate on the confluence of the Roer and the Maes, about thirty miles north-eaſt of Maeſtricht, and twelve to the ſouthward of Venlo; a large populous city, well fortified and elegantly built, and the See of a Biſhop, being one of thoſe erected by PHILIP II. of Spain, a little before the revolt of the United Provinces. The cathedral

Ruremond to the Emperor.

Venlo to the Dutch.

Guelder to the King of Pruſſia.

Wachtendonck to Pruſſia.

Stevenſwaert to the Dutch.

dral is dedicated to the Holy Ghoſt, but I do not find the building ſo much admired as the fine Carthuſian monaſtery here, a noble fabrick, and richly endowed. This city was ſeized with the reſt of the Spaniſh Guelderland by the French, on the death of the late King Charles of Spain, but taken from them by the allies in the year 1702, and is now in the poſſeſſion of the Emperor. 2. Venlo, ſituate on the Maes, twelve miles north of Ruremond, a populous trading city, and well fortified, taken from the French by the confederates in the year 1702; and by the laſt peace ſurrendered to the States General by the Emperor, who are now Sovereigns of it. 3. Guelder, a ſmall city, ten miles north-eaſt of Venlo, ſituate in the middle of a moraſs, and by conſequence naturally ſtrong, but was ſurrendered to the confederates in the year 1703; and on the enſuing peace, anno 1714, was yielded by the Emperor to the King of Pruſſia, who is now Sovereign of it. 4. Wachtendonck, ſituate on the river Niers, in a marſhy ſoil, eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt towns in the province, yielded by the Emperor alſo to the King of Pruſſia on the laſt peace. 5. Stevenſwaert, a ſtrong fortreſs, ſituate on the Maes, about eight miles to the ſouthward of Ruremond, taken from the French by the confederates in the year 1702, and yielded by the Emperor to the Dutch, who are now Sovereigns of it.

Utrecht province and city.

Amerſfort.

Wyck de Dueſterde.

Rhenen.

Montfort.

The laſt of the Seven United Provinces I am to deſcribe, is that of Utrecht, bounded by the Zuider-ſea and part of Holland on the north, by Guelderland on the eaſt, by other parts of Guelderland towards the ſouth, and by Holland on the weſt; extending about twenty-five miles in length, and near as much in breadth; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Utrecht, the ancient *Antonina*, ſuppoſed to have been a Roman colony, pleaſantly ſituated on the channel of the Old Rhine, twenty five miles ſouth-eaſt of Amſterdam, and about as many north-eaſt of Rotterdam, a large, populous, and well-built city, with canals in the principal ſtreets; and as it ſtands in a healthful air, is much reſorted to by perſons of diſtinction, who have fine houſes in the place. The two principal canals which run the whole length of the city, are the Vaert, and the New Gracht, over which there are no leſs than thirty-five bridges; the buildings on the banks of the New Gracht being very magnificent. The market-place is large, and ſeveral handſom ſtreets centre in it; and without the town are beautiful walks of trees, to which the Engliſh have given the name of the Mall, as reſembling that in St. James's park: the fortifications are not ſtrong, upon which account, or as ſome inſinuate a much worſe, the Magiſtrates ſurrendered the city to the French without ſtriking a ſtroke, in the year 1672. They kept poſſeſſion of it a year and half, during which time the French King had prepared materials to build a citadel, but being obliged to withdraw his troops, that deſign was laid aſide; but he extorted two hundred thouſand pounds firſt from the inhabitants, notwithſtanding their ready ſubmiſſion. The great church, formerly the Cathedral, is dedicated to St. Martin, and has a tower of four hundred and ſixty ſteps, from whence there is a noble proſpect of the adjacent country, no leſs than fifty walled towns appearing at once in view. Their Univerſity, at firſt a publick ſchool only, founded by David of Burgundy, Biſhop of Utrecht, was in the year 1636 converted into a Univerſity by the States, and is now in a very flouriſhing condition, abundance of foreigners, and among the reſt ſome Engliſh, reſorting hither for education and degrees, the latter being more eaſily obtained here than at home; but a Dutch degree does not ſeem to be in any great repute at preſent. This Univerſity is entirely ſubject to the magiſtrates of the city, and has very few privileges to boaſt of. The ſtudents wear their ordinary habits, and board in the town, there being ſcarce any endowed colleges in Holland where they live in ſocieties, and common together, as in Oxford and Cambridge. 2. Amerſfort, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Ems, fifteen miles north-eaſt of Utrecht, and ſeven ſouth of the Zuider-ſea, about three miles in circumference. It ſtands in a fruitful country, abounding in corn and paſture grounds, huſbandry being the principal employment of the inhabitants. The town is large and populous, and ſurrounded by a wall, but the fortifications are not conſiderable; the private buildings are regular and handſom, and their churches and hoſpitals no mean ſtructures. To the ſouthward of Amersford ſtands Soeſdyke, a hunting ſeat of the late King William's, in a country abounding with game, the foreſt where the palace ſtands being near ten miles in length, and five in breadth. 3. Wyck de Dueſterde, the *Duroſtadium Batavorum* of the Romans, ſituate at the confluence of the Leck and the middle channel of the Rhine, twelve miles ſouth of Amerſfort; a little town, pleaſantly ſituated and well built, and ſurrounded with a wall, but retains little of it's ancient grandeur. 4. Rhenen, another ancient walled town, ſituate on the Rhine, fifteen miles to the ſouth of Amerſfort, which has ſcarce any thing in it that merits a particular deſcription at this day. 5. Montfort, a little well-built town, eight miles to the weſtward of Utrecht, capital of a ſmall territory in which it ſtands, and defended by a wall and other fortifications, but of no great ſtrength.

The province of Utrecht is one of the moſt pleaſant and healthful of the United Netherlands, for here they may be ſaid to tread upon firm ground, whereas the maritime provinces are almoſt all quagmire and bog, made habitable by incredible labour and expence. This province was entirely under the dominion of the French, in the years 1672 and 1673. Lewis XIV. keeping his court in the capital city; but the Germans coming to the aſſiſtance of the Dutch, he was obliged to withdraw his gariſons from moſt of the towns he had taken, and retire to defend his own frontiers.

Buildings of the United Provinces.

As to the buildings in the United Provinces, they are for the moſt part of brick, and differ but little from thoſe in Britain; only 'tis obſerved that the ground-floor is uſually of the largeſt dimenſions, and every ſtory, in proportion to it's height, grows leſs and leſs; the reaſon whereof may be, that their foundations ſtanding often upon a marſhy ſoil, will not bear a very weighty roof. It is obſerved alſo, that their kitchens, and moſt ordinary rooms, are frequently lined or wainſcotted, if I may uſe the phraſe, with white Dutch tiles, which make them look exceeding neat. Their other rooms they chooſe rather to adorn with pictures than hangings, and their paintings are not bad. Stoves are uſed in many houſes inſtead of chimneys, where a man may be as hot as in a bagnio in the coldeſt weather without ſeeing a fire. Their ordinary lodging is in many places very different from ours, for inſtead of beds they have little cabins or cupboards on the ſides of the room, placed ſo high that they are not eaſily mounted without a ladder or ſteps; and there are often ſix of theſe cabins cloſe together, eſpecially in their inns, where a gentleman's quality muſt be ſomething extraordinary, if he be permitted the favour of having a room to himſelf: but I muſt confeſs there are ſome houſes where the lodging and furniture are much the ſame as with us. They do of late begin to imitate their politer neighbours in theſe particulars as well as in their dreſs. Their kitchen-utenſils, whether pewter, braſs, or iron, are as bright as poſſible, and many of them muffled up in woollen to preſerve them from ruſt; and the china, and other fine earthen ware, is marſhalled in the exacteſt order in their houſes. Their table-linen and ſheets are always clean and fine, a man does not meet with a foul napkin in the country. Their children's cradles are flung with four ropes to a beam in the middle of the room, and hung above a yard from the ground, and their children conſequently rocked with a very eaſy motion, without noiſe or giving any diſturbance to the family.

CHAP. IV.

Treats of the perſons and habits, the genius and temper of the Dutch; of their vices and virtues, and of their diet, entertainments, diverſions, roads, carriages, and way of travelling.

CHAP. IV.

Perſons and habits of the Dutch.

THE Dutch are generally tall ſtrong-built men, but both men and women have the groſſeſt ſhapes that are to be met with any where, or rather no ſhape at all. Nor is their motion leſs diſagreeable than their ſhape; they move heavily and aukwardly, inſomuch that it is not difficult to diſtinguiſh a Hollander from a native of England or France, almoſt the length of a ſtreet by his mien. Their features or complexion are not to be found fault with, except among the boors and ſea-faring men, who are very numerous; but the badneſs of their complexions is to be aſcribed rather to their being expoſed to the weather than any thing elſe. Their garb is exceeding plain among all ſorts of people, except the officers of the army, and ſome few others, which affect to follow the French modes, otherwiſe they change their faſhions as rarely as in Spain. I did not obſerve any thing very particular in the dreſs of the men, unleſs it were that their coats had neither ſhape nor pleats, and their long pockets were ſet as high as their ribs; but that of the women appeared ſomething odd to us, their coats coming no lower than the middle of their legs. As to head-dreſſes they have little or none, many of them content themſelves with tying up their hair, and wearing three black knots upon their heads, one on each ſide, and the other on the hinder part of the head, and perhaps a hood over all when they go out; though I muſt confeſs I have ſeen ſeveral of them of late in a French dreſs, which in time will be probably followed there as much as in England; and it ſeems ſtrange that they have continued their old faſhions ſo long, when there is ſuch a multitude of foreigners in the country, eſpecially of the French nation. The ladies of pleaſure, who frequent their muſick-houſes, are generally dreſſed in a coat and jacket, pretty much reſembling the riding habits, which are worn at preſent by the women of England, which is not the moſt becoming dreſs to a Dutch ſhape.

Their genius and temper.

As to the genius and temper of the Dutch, I know my readers will have a great regard to the opinion of Sir William Temple in this particular, and therefore I ſhall give them the ſubſtance of his obſervations on this head; but ſhall take liberty, where I ſee occaſion, to make ſome reflections on the character he gives them, and add ſome things which he may have omitted. This gentleman divides the nation into five claſſes; conſiſting, 1. of boors or huſbandmen. 2. Seamen and watermen. 3. Merchants and tradeſmen. 4. Renteeners, or men who live in their chief cities on the rents or intereſt of their eſtates acquired by their anceſtors. And, 5. The gentlemen and officers of the army.

The boors dull and obſtinate, but honeſt.

The firſt are a people induſtrious enough, but ſlow of underſtanding; not to be dealt with by haſty words, but eaſily managed by ſoft and fair, and yielding to plain reaſon, if you give them time to underſtand it. At a diſtance from great towns they appear plain and honeſt, and entirely content with what they have; and if you ſhould give one of them a ſhilling, for what is uſually ſold for a groat, and bid him take it, he would however give you the change, and perhaps aſk if you were not a fool. They have no further views than the ſupplying themſelves with what nature requires, and the making ſome ſmall addition to their ſtocks. Their food is chiefly roots, herbs, or milk, which my author ſuppoſes is the reaſon that their ſtrength and vigour is not anſwerable to the bulk of their bodies.

The ſeafaring men rough and ſurly, and of few words.

The ſeamen are a plain, but a much rougher people, ſurly and ill-mannered, which is uſually miſtaken for pride, but ſuppoſed by our author to proceed chiefly from their converſing with winds and waves, that are not to be wrought upon by language. They ſeldom uſe more words than are neceſſary about their buſineſs: and as for their valour, it is rather paſſive than active, not being a very enterpriſing people at preſent.

The tradeſmen better poliſhed, but crafty and knaviſh.

As to the trading people in great towns, whether merchants or mechanicks, their wits are ſomething ſharper than thoſe of the former claſſes, improved by their converſation with foreigners who reſort thither; but even theſe are much better at imitation than invention; and indeed ſometimes they exceed the original by their unwearied induſtry, and conſtant application to the buſineſs they undertake. They make uſe of all their ſkill to take advantages of the folly and ignorance of thoſe they deal with; and are great extortioners where there is no law to reſtrain them; but where they deal with men of ſkill, and apprehend themſelves within the reach of the laws, there indeed they are the plaineſt and beſt dealers in the world.

Their ſtateſmen well educated and qualified for government.

Thoſe who live on their patrimonial eſtates in great cities, reſemble the merchants and tradeſmen in the modeſty of their dreſs, and their parſimonious way of living, but there is a wide difference in their education and manners; for after they come from ſchool, they go to the univerſities of Leyden or Utrecht, where they go through the common ſtudies of thoſe places, but apply themſelves chiefly to the civil law, which is the law of the country, at leaſt they are in a great meaſure governed by it. When young gentlemen have finiſhed their ſtudies at home, if their relations are wealthy, they are ſent abroad to England or France; not often to Italy, and leſs to Spain and the northern countries, the whole deſign of their education being to fit them for the magiſtracy in their towns and provinces; and of theſe men are the

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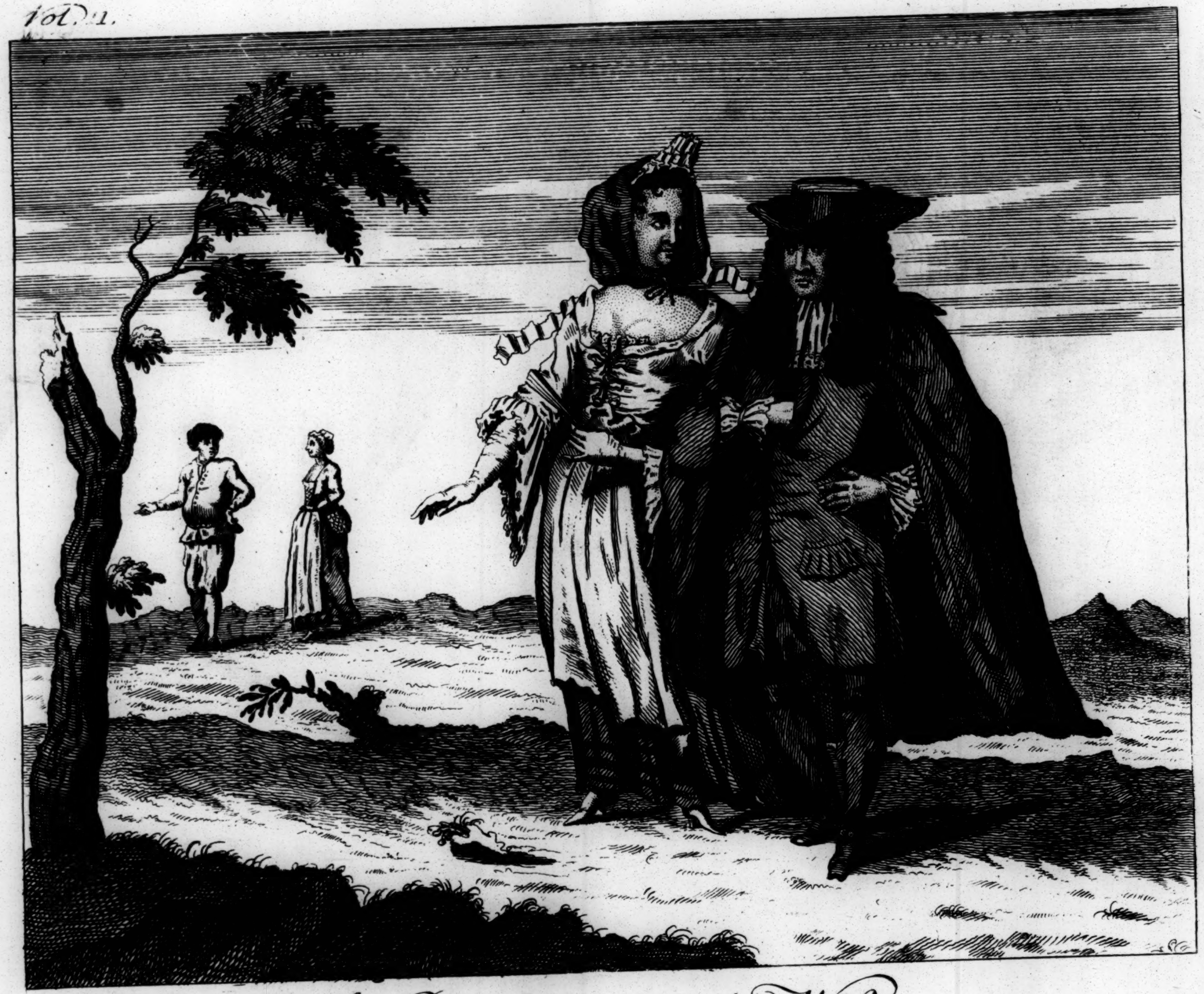

A Burghmaster & his Wife

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the civil officers of the State generally compoſed; namely, of men deſcended of families who have conſtantly been in the magiſtracy of their native towns for many generations, and not of mean or mechanick tradeſmen, as is ſometimes ſuggeſted; though, 'tis true, there are ſometimes merchants and wholeſale tradeſmen admitted into the magiſtracy, and made Deputies of the States. And the members of the States will ſometimes employ their money in carrying on a beneficial trade, by ſervants and houſes maintained for that purpoſe; but the generality of the States and Magiſtrates are of the other kind, whoſe eſtates conſiſt in the penſions of their offices, the rents of their lands, the intereſt of their money, ſtocks in the Eaſt-India Company, or in ſhares upon the adventures of great merchants; and it is ſeldom that theſe families, though they are continually in the magiſtracy, get great eſtates; the ſalaries of their offices being mean, intereſt but low, and the innumerable taxes charged upon their lands, making the neat produce of them much lower, ſeldom exceeding the profit of two in the hundred. They are contented with the honour of being uſeful to the publick, and in the eſteem of their country; and with the eaſe of their fortunes, which they ſeldom fail of by their frugal management, at firſt neceſſary, and ſince eſteemed honourable among them. The men of mighty wealth are their merchants and tradeſmen, who apply themſelves wholly that way, and are content with a ſmall ſhare in the government, provided they may have ſecurity in what they poſſeſs: they know no cares but thoſe of their private fortunes, and the management of their trades, and the reſt of their time is ſpent in their recreations and diverſions. Yet theſe, when they have acquired great eſtates, chooſe to qualify their ſons for ſome employments in the State, and marry their daughters in the families of the miniſters and great officers, and thereby introduce their poſterity to a ſhare in the government, and honours of their country, which conſiſts not in titles but in publick employments.

Their merchants wealthy, but not many of them magiſtrates.

Their gentry and military officers follow the French modes.

Their gentry or nobility are not numerous (in Holland eſpecially) many of theſe families having been extinguiſhed in the wars with Spain: thoſe that remain are uſually employed in the military ſervice, and ſometimes in civil charges in their reſpective provinces; and having lived much abroad, affect rather the garb of the neighbouring courts, than the popular air of their own country; and value themſelves more upon their nobility, than men do in other countries where it is more common. They look upon it diſhonourable to marry beneath their rank, and will ſcarce do it to make up a broken fortune. They imitate the French in their dreſs, their mien, their talk, their diet, and in their gallantry or debauchery, but mimick them very aukwardly. They are however an honeſt good-humoured gentleman-like ſort of men, and uſually acquit themſelves with honour in the ſervice of their country. The officers of the army follow the faſhions and cuſtoms of their gentry, as do many of the rich merchants ſons, who returning from their travels ſcarce ever apply themſelves to the ſervice of their country, but ſeem intent upon their pleaſure and making a grand appearance, in imitation of what they have ſeen abroad; and ſometimes perhaps they will accept a commiſſion in the army. But there are ſome cuſtoms and diſpoſitions, my author obſerves, which ſeem to run through every claſs of men, namely, a great frugality and order in their expences. Their riches conſiſting in always having more than they ſpend, or rather in every man's ſpending leſs than he has coming in, be that what it will, it is a conſtant maxim with them not to let the courſe of their expences equal their revenue; and if this ever happens, they think they have lived that year to no purpoſe, and their reputation is in ſome meaſure affected by it, as if they had been guilty of ſome great extravagance. Which frugality enables them to bear the exceſſive taxes laid upon them, and makes the people leſs ſenſible of the burthen; and from hence proceeds the beauty and ſtrength of their towns, and the commodiouſneſs of travelling in their country by canals, bridges, cauſeys, and pleaſant walks of trees, and the noble graffs or canals in and near all their cities, and even the beauty, convenience, and magnificence of their publick works, to which every man contributes as willingly, and takes as much pleaſure and vanity in them, as people do in other countries in building and planting on their private eſtates. What they can ſpare from their domeſtick expences, and the publick payment, and the common courſe of ſtill increaſing their ſtock, is laid out in the fabrick, ornament, and furniture of their houſes, rather than in keeping great tables, fine clothes, or equipages, which end wholly in a man's ſelf, and the gratifying his perſonal humour, whereas the other is for the advantage of his poſterity, and contributes much to the beauty and honour of his country. The order in caſting up their expences is ſo juſt, that no one undertakes any thing he is not prepared for, and maſter of the deſign before he begins; and it is very rare to hear of a publick or private building which was not finiſhed in the time it was intended; and ſo it is in their canals, cauſeys, and bridges; to which the Stadthouſe at Amſterdam perhaps may be an exception: but this ſeems to be deſignedly left to time without limitation, either of that, or the expence, that the genius and induſtry of their ſucceeding magiſtrates might be employed in the collection of all things that might add to the beauty or magnificence of it; and perhaps, ſays my author, upon a current prediction, that the trade of Amſterdam ſhould begin to decline the ſame year the Stadthouſe ſhould be finiſhed, as it did at Antwerp.

All degrees of men frugal and exact in their accounts.

They keep neither tables nor equipages.

Their charity national.

Their charity is rather national, and regulated by the orders of the State, than moved by the common objects of compaſſion; which is ſeen in the admirable proviſion that is made for all kind of people that can want, and ought to be relieved by any government. But among the many and various kinds of hoſpitals we meet with in the Low Countries, our author admired none more than that at Enchuyſen for aged ſeamen, which is ſo contrived, he ſays, as if it was intended, that thoſe who had paſſed their lives in the hardſhips and inconveniences of the ſea, ſhould find a retreat, ſtored with all the ſatisfactions and conveniences that old age was capable of enjoying.

Covetous, but not ſubject to paſſion of any kind.

Our author is of opinion, that all appetites and paſſions run lower and cooler here than in any other country, avarice excepted; quarrels are very rare, revenge ſeldom heard of, and jealouſy ſcarce ever known. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, nor any unuſual ſtrains of pleaſant humour, nor warm enough for love. This is indeed ſomething talked of among young fellows as a thing they have heard of, but never felt, and as a diſcourſe that becomes them rather than affects them. It is very rare for any of them to be really in love, nor do the women ſeem to care whether they are or no; which our author accounts for in the following manner: either, he ſays, the men are ſuch lovers of liberty as not to bear the ſervitude of a miſtreſs, or the dulneſs of the air renders them leſs ſuſceptible of more refined paſſions, or they are diverted from it by the intention every man has to his proper buſineſs; and the ſame cauſes may have had the ſame effects among their married women, who have the whole care and management of their domeſtick affairs, and live generally in good fame; a certain ſort of chaſtity being hereditary and habitual to them.

Very induſtrious.

The ſame dulneſs of air, this gentleman thinks, may diſpoſe them to that uncommon aſſiduity, and conſtant application of their minds, with that perpetual ſtudy and labour upon every thing they undertake; one man particularly he inſtances in, who employed four and twenty years in making and perfecting a globe, and another thirty about the inlaying of a table. Nor is it to be conceived how much may have been contributed towards the great things atchieved among them by this one humour, of never giving over what they imagine may be brought to paſs; nor leaving one ſcent to follow another they meet with, the fault of lighter and more ingenious people.

Drinking neceſſary to quicken a Dutchman's parts, as well as for his health.

The ſame quality of the air may incline them, he thinks, to the cuſtom of drinking, ſo much laid to their charge; which probably may not only be neceſſary to their health, as they generally believe it, but to the vigour and improvement of their underſtandings in a thick foggy air, and ſuch a coldneſs of temper and complexion; for though the uſe or exceſs of drinking may deſtroy men's abilities who live in better climates, and are of warmer conſtitutions; it may improve their parts who are of cold complexions, and live in a dull air, and perhaps be neceſſary to thaw and move the frozen or unactive ſpirits of the brain. Yet in Holland, he obſerves, that few of their magiſtrates or miniſters of ſtate are given to this vice; or if they drink much it is only at feaſts or great entertainments, and then rather to comply with the company than out of choice: and as for the merchants and tradeſmen, with whom it is cuſtomary, they never do it in a morning, or till they come from the Exchange, where the buſineſs of the day is commonly diſpatched; they ſcarce think it lawful to drink before that time, and will not ſo much as offer a ſtranger liquor at their houſes in a morning, but excuſe themſelves on account of the time of day. The afternoon, or at leaſt the evening, they give up to whatever may divert them; which this gentleman is of opinion is no more than is neceſſary, where the former part of the day has been ſpent in cares and buſineſs: thus far my honourable author Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE.

Remarks on their chaſtity and temperance.

I ſhall now proceed to make ſome obſervations on that part of theſe remarks, which relates to the government of their paſſions, eſpecially that of love, in which they are repreſented as perfect Stoicks: but perhaps were the ſame liberties allowed by publick authority to the youth of any other nation, as are to thoſe of Holland, they might be guilty of as few extravagancies in love and gallantry as the Dutch. For here are muſick-houſes, which pay a tax to the States for a licenſe to entertain as many wenches as they pleaſe, and the girls pay each of them another tax every time they are admitted into theſe venereal ſchools, whither the people reſort to them openly without fear or ſhame; the ſcandal is as little in being found at one of theſe houſes, as at a play-houſe with us. When a ſufficient company is met, an entertainment conſiſting of ſeveral nice diſhes, and the beſt of wines are ſet before them; where after they have eat and drank plentifully in a publick room, the diſhes are removed, and a ball or entertainment of muſick and dancing ſucceeds. When they have raiſed their deſires ſufficiently by theſe incentives, any gentleman that pleaſes takes his nymph, and retires into a little cloſet furniſhed with a bed and all conveniences, of which there are many on all ſides of the room; where having recreated himſelf as long as he ſees fit, he returns to the company again with his miſtreſs, and no more notice taken of it, than if he had gone out to ſpeak with a friend: and the entertainment concludes with dancing or drinking, as the company are diſpoſed. Of theſe houſes there are of all degrees, ſome for the better ſort, and ſome for the vulgar, who reſort to the one or the other, as they are able to bear the expence: and one related to me, that he ſaw a Dutch ſailor in one of theſe houſes, who had not patience to retire out of the publick room to cloſe quarters, but laid his miſtreſs down before them all, and gratified his luſt, while numbers of people were looking on, and went out again without ſaying a word. And indeed the States give that as one reaſon for encouraging theſe houſes, That conſidering the numbers of ſailors that reſort to their principal cities, who have been long kept on board their ſhips without women, and fed with ſalt-meats, if they ſhould not indulge them in this particular, they could never keep their wives or daughters to themſelves; and of two evils therefore they chooſe the leaſt. Now thus far I will agree with Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE, that the Dutch are not a people that deal much in ſpeculative love, or dwell much upon the virtues or accompliſhments of their miſtreſſes; any girl the man thinks that may eaſe his brutal paſſion, and make a good drudge in the family, is a wife fit for him, he is not very nice in other reſpects; and if his miſtreſs ſhould prove unkind, he would go to one of the muſick-houſes above-deſcribed, and think no more of her. On the other hand, the women, whom ſome cry up ſo much for their hereditary chaſtity, if a gallant attacks them that they like, and they intend him for their huſband, they make no manner of ſcruple of granting him the laſt favours before marriage. It is the commoneſt thing in the world for a woman of any quality to be married in Holland with a great belly; ſo that if a gentleman does ſucceed in his addreſſes, there is no manner of reaſon to run mad for love; and if he does not, a muſick-houſe is his remedy. And the indulging young fellows in theſe entertainments is thought to be one of the moſt effectual remedies to prevent their ſons making diſadvantageous matches. As for the religion of the matter, in tolerating or eſtabliſhing whoredom by a law, this objection has been long laughed out of the Low-Countries, where they have no other religion but what is political, as will be ſhewn hereafter under another head.

I ſhall here add a word or two more out of Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE, which ſhews the extraordinary neatneſs of the Dutch in their houſes, and the aſcendant the women have over the men on that ſide the water; notwithſtanding he has ſuggeſted in a former volume, that there is very little love between them. He relates, that being at the houſe of one of the chief Burgomaſters of Amſterdam, while he was Ambaſſador in Holland, and having a great cold, he obſerved that every time he ſpit, a clever handſom wench, who ſtood in the room with a clean cloth in her hand, preſently wiped it up and rubbed the board clean; and Sir William expreſſing ſome uneaſineſs at the trouble he gave, the maſter of the houſe told him, if his wife had been at home indeed he would not have eſcaped ſo well, for ſhe would probably have turned him out of doors for daubing her houſe, notwithſtanding he was an Ambaſſador; adding, that he had two rooms which he durſt never come into, and believed that they were never open but twice a year to be cleaned. My author obſerving thereupon, that the wives of Amſterdam generally governed their huſbands, and that this ſeemed part of their conſtitution; the Burgomaſter replied, it was true, and that all a man could hope for there was an eaſy governeſs. This occaſioning many ſtories to be told concerning the extravagant neatneſs of theſe Holland ladies in their houſes; the Secretary of Holland, who was in the company, pointed to a houſe over the way, where he ſaid one of their magiſtrates going to pay a viſit to the miſtreſs of it, a ſtrapping North-Holland laſs happening to open the door, as he was about to enter, the wench obſerving his ſhoes were not very clean, took him by both arms, threw him on her back, and carrying him croſs two rooms, ſet him down at the bottom of the ſtairs, and putting him on a pair of ſlippers, without ſpeaking a word to him before them, told him he might walk up to her miſtreſs, who was in her chamber.

Their diet

The diet of the Dutch boors or huſbandmen, as has been intimated already, is but mean; roots, herbs, ſour milk and pulſe, are a great part of their food. In towns the people have ſomething better diet. About November every year they purchaſe an ox, or more, according to the largeneſs of the family, and ſalt up or ſmoak-dry it to eat with bread and butter and ſallet. On Sunday a piece of ſalt-meat is uſually taken out of the powdering-tub, which comes every day to table all the week long, with ſome other little diſhes of garden-ſtuff, ſour milk, &c. which the peaſants feed on in the country: pickled herrings, Bologna ſauſages, and other ſavoury diſhes, are much admired; when they have freſh fiſh, they generally eat them with oiled butter upon choice, and I have heard ſome of our countrymen ſay, when they have been uſed to this kind of ſauce a good while, they have really liked it better than well-melted butter. They have ſeveral other ways of dreſſing their fiſh, which a little uſe may reconcile an Engliſh palate to; but ſeldom uſe anchovies, or any ſavoury ingredients, though they admire ſalted fleſh ſo much. Their butter and cheeſe is extremely good, and the common people ſeldom take a journey without a butter-box in their pockets. This box is made in the ſhape of a churn, and holds half a pound or a quarter of a pound, being ſhut down cloſe with a wooden lid, the butter never works out. As they travel upon their canals in drawn boats, a man with a roll and his butter-box will make a very comfortable meal; and ſo extravagantly fond of butter are this people, that I have ſeen ſome of them take it up and eat it by handfuls, without knife or ſpoon. But the Dutch do not live now on that plain ſimple diet they did formerly, they have introduced the luxury of every neighbouring nation: Engliſh and French diſhes may be had here with as much eaſe as with us. They ingroſs our oiſters every year at Feverſham, and carry them off in fleets, ſcarce leaving the natives of that part of Kent enough for their own uſe. Puddings, which before King William's reign they were ſtrangers to, they make as rich and as good as we do in England. And as for drinking, they had always the advantage of us; for they have not only very good beer, but wine and brandy in great plenty, almoſt as cheap as beer. Their geneva alſo is very good and cheap; I have ſeen an ordinary fellow make a delicious breakfaſt of half a pint of gin and a roll. Sir William Temple obſerves, that it is neceſſary theſe people ſhould tipple to improve their underſtandings, as well as for the preſervation of their healths; and by way of excuſe for the drunkenneſs of the Dutch, intimates, that ſtrong liquor has different effects on them to what it has upon other people, preſerving their healths, and brightning their parts to a very great degree.

Diverſions

The diverſions of the Hollanders are bowls, billiards, cheſs, and tennis, as with us; but they do not ſeem ſo much addicted to the games of chance, unleſs that of *Verheeven*, or trick-track reverſed: ſhooting wild-geeſe and ducks in winter, and angling in ſummer, make another part of their paſtimes. In the moſt rigorous ſeaſon of the year ſledges and ſkates are a great diverſion. It is incredible how ſwift ſome of them move in their ſkates, no running-horſe can keep pace with them; and the women as well as men uſe them to carry their goods to market, as well as for their pleaſure. The ſledge is drawn by a horſe, or puſhed along by a man in ſkates. When the ſnow is upon the ground and the ſtreets frozen, young gentlemen and ladies appear abroad in the moſt magnificent ſledges. The perſon drives his horſe himſelf, which is covered with a rich ſkin or capariſon, and a fine tuft of feathers, and the gentleman or lady wrapt up in furs, or a fine Indian quilt. The ſledges are of various ſhapes, finely painted, gilt, and varniſhed, and the horſe's harneſs rich and glittering: numbers of theſe being ſeen in the ſtreets together, eſpecially at Amſterdam, make one of the moſt beautiful ſhews we meet with any where. But of theſe entertainments I have already had occaſion to ſpeak more largely in the deſcription of the more northern countries, who excel in theſe diverſions; I ſhall only obſerve further here, that there are little machines of this kind, in which they put their children, puſhed along by their fathers, as people of faſhion are by their men or maid-ſervants in ſkates. Bandy is another play much uſed when the earth is covered with ice and ſnow, at which they are very dextrous: they ſeldom play for any thing but drink, and the tavern where they ſpend their winnings always concludes the diverſion of the day. Hans never cares to go to bed without his doſe. In ſummer we ſee multitudes of people walking out of town on the banks of fine canals, well planted with trees, or by the ſea-ſhore, or perhaps in the publick gardens; but the end of every walk is the tavern, where they do not fail to meet with a thouſand little amuſements and agreeable entertainments: as cool ſummer-houſes and grotto's, excellent wines and other liquors, fruit, cakes, and reliſhing meats; and here you meet with muſick of all kinds, vocal and inſtrumental. Nor are theſe pleaſures dear here; ordinary workmen indulge themſelves in this manner, while in other countries, it is obſerved, people of this claſs generally want bread to eat. Nor are there thoſe diſtinctions kept up between wealthy traders and the mechanicks in Holland as in other countries:

tries: they converſe pretty much upon the level, and it is not eaſy to know the man from the maſter, or the maid from her miſtreſs; ſuch liberties do they allow their ſervants, who may not be ſtruck or corrected by them, but the diſpute muſt be left to the magiſtrate, where any ariſes between maſter and ſervant; it not being fit they ſay that any one ſhould be judge in his own caſe. They ſometimes take a boat and their whole family with them, and go a conſiderable diſtance from home, to eat river fiſh at ſome publick houſe in the country. And it muſt not be forgotten, that the drinking of tea has long been univerſal here among all ſorts of people, and eſteemed none of the worſt of their entertainments.

Way of travelling.

Their uſual way of travelling is in *Trechtſchutes*, or covered boats, drawn by a horſe at the rate of three miles an hour, for which the fare does not amount to a peny a mile, and you have the conveniency of carrying a portmanteau, or proviſions, ſo that you need not be at any manner of expences at a publick-houſe by the way. You are not in the leaſt expoſed to the weather in theſe veſſels, and can ſcarce feel any motion; ſo that a man may read or divert himſelf upon his journey, as he ſees fit; and there is ſcarce a town but one may go to this way every day; and if it be a conſiderable place almoſt every hour, at the ringing of a bell; but they will not ſtay a minute afterwards for a paſſenger, though they ſee him coming. The greateſt inconvenience I found was the getting out of one boat into another at every great town; and paying a tax at every gate I paſſed through with my portmanteau, which was wheeled along from one boat to another, in a machine pretty like a wheelbarrow. And as one often paſſes through many of theſe towns in a day, this muſt be allowed to be ſome trouble and expence; but I think the conveniencies of this way of travelling out-balance the inconveniences. That of an open waggon inſtead of a coach, when we travel by land, I muſt confeſs is not ſo agreeable; and ſkating, which the country people are dextrous at, is not ſoon learnt by foreigners.

Their inns.

As to the inns and publick-houſes on the road, I have already ſaid we are ſure to meet with clean linen and ſoft beds; but their bedſteads, or rather cabins in the ſides of the wall, are placed ſo high, that a man muſt infallibly lame himſelf if he happens to fall out of them; and we muſt be content to lie with half a dozen people or more in the ſame room, and be diſturbed all night long by one or other, if the churl of a landlord pleaſes to have it ſo. Sir ROGER L'ESTRANGE travelling into this country, and having made choice of a room in an inn, it ſeems was ſo unreaſonable to look upon it as his ſole property, while he ſtaid there, and would admit no chamber-fellows to be impoſed upon him, but the governor of the caſtle, to ſpeak in DON QUIXOT's phraſe, ſoon gave him to underſtand his error, broke open the door and introduced half a dozen ſtrangers into his apartment; whereupon Sir ROGER drawing his ſword, they knocked him down, threw him down ſtairs, and dragged him about the ſtreet 'till they left him for dead, tho' he had the good fortune to recover afterwards: and indeed there is no diſputing with a Dutch innkeeper, either about the reckoning or any other particular, for he will enhance his bill if you find fault with it, and procure a magiſtrate to levy his demands by force if they are not paid readily. I obſerved alſo that a man pays for his paſſage always before he has well begun his journey; for as ſoon as the paſſengers are ſet down in the boat, a fellow comes round with a hat and collects the money, ſo that if any accident ſhould happen that he cannot carry you to your journey's end, yet ſtill he is ſure of his hire, and leaves you to procure another conveniency. I ſhall conclude this head with obſerving that the canals, highways, cauſeys and bridges, are always kept in excellent repair, which deſerves our imitation; for the cheapneſs of carriage it is, which, in a great meaſure, renders all commodities cheap, and enables the Dutch to carry on a trade from one part of the country to another, as well as with Germany, France, and other adjoining countries, at a very eaſy expence. And whoever can afford their merchandizes upon the moſt reaſonable terms, will infallibly have the greateſt demand for them. But the article of trade is to be the ſubject of another chapter, and therefore I forbear enlarging upon it here.

CHAP. V.

Treats of the government of the United Provinces.

CHAP. V.

Obſervations as to government in general.

JOHN DE WITT in his introduction to the government of the United Provinces endeavours to ſhew, that that is the beſt government where the well or ill-being of the governors neceſſarily depends on the well or ill-being of the ſubjects; and not where the well or ill-being of the ſubjects depends on the virtues or vices of the governors: for ſelf, he obſerves, is ever preferred in all ſocieties or aſſemblies of men; and all ſovereigns or ſupreme powers will, in the firſt place, endeavour to advance their own intereſts; or elſe, abandoning themſelves entirely to eaſe and pleaſure, ſuffer their government to fall into the hands of favourites and courtiers, who finding themſelves veſted with ſovereign power, do for the moſt part rule for the benefit of themſelves, and to the prejudice not only of ſuch voluptuous and unwary Princes, but alſo of their ſubjects: and infers, that a republican State is infinitely to be preferred to Monarchy; becauſe the governors of a commonwealth in promoting the welfare of the ſubject promote their own advantage, and while they ſtudy their particular intereſts muſt of neceſſity advance the people's, eſpecially in a country which depends upon trade and manufactures, where the governors reap a proportionable advantage with the ſubject: whereas a Monarch uſually is ſollicitous to promote his own grandeur or pleaſures, and finds it neceſſary frequently to oppreſs and impoveriſh his ſubjects on a proſpect of falſe glory or ſome ſelfiſh deſigns. But when we have enquired into the conſtitution of the ſeveral republicks in the United Provinces, we ſhall be better able to judge of the juſtneſs of theſe inferences.

The government of the United Provinces.

The United Provinces are a confederacy of many independent States; for not only every province is ſovereign and independent of any other power, but there are in each province ſeveral republicks independent of each other, and which are not bound by the decrees or acts of the States of the province until ſuch acts are ratified by each particular city or republick, which ſends deputies or repreſentatives to the provincial aſſembly.

As the States General can neither make war or peace, enter into new alliances or raiſe money without the conſent of every province; ſo neither can the States Provincial determine theſe things without the conſent of every city or republick,

publick, which by the conſtitution of the province hath a voice in the aſſembly. In ſome civil caſes indeed there lies an appeal from the courts of juſtice in cities to the provincial court of juſtice; but in criminal matters there lies no appeal. Nor can the States of the province exerciſe any juriſdiction, puniſh an offender, pardon and offence, or execute any general law within any of the cities or republicks of the province, but by the courts and officers of the place where it is to be put in execution.

The form of government in moſt of the provinces and cities being pretty near the ſame, I ſhall only give an account of two or three of the chief of them, from whence the reader will be able to make a tolerable judgment of the reſt; and firſt of the province of Holland, which in point of trade, riches, forces and great towns, may be eſteemed equal to all the reſt.

The government of the province of Holland

The great power of the firſt Statdtholders.

The States of Holland are compoſed of the deputies or repreſentatives of the nobility, and of eighteen cities or great towns, making in all nineteen voices, of which the nobility or gentry have only the firſt. The cities which had voices were at firſt but ſix, viz. Dort, Haerlem, Delft, Leyden, Amſterdam and Tergow; to which Prince WILLIAM of Naſſaw, their firſt Stadtholder, added twelve more, namely, Rotterdam, Gorcum, Schiedam, Schonhoven, Briel, Alcmaer, Horne, Enchuſen, Edam, Moninckdam, Medenblick and Permeren. This is obſerved to be by no means equal, becauſe the little town of Permeren has an equal voice in the aſſembly of the States of Holland with the potent and wealthy city of Amſterdam, which contributes as much to the publick expences as all the reſt of the cities of the province.

The nobility of Holland have one voice.

The nobility, who are not numerous in Holland, are repreſented in the States Provincial by eight or nine of their own number; and when one of them dies, they elect another to ſucceed him; but theſe have all together but one voice equal to the ſmalleſt of the above-mentioned towns. They are however very conſiderable in the government, poſſeſſing many of the beſt poſts both civil and military, and having the direction of all the eccleſiaſtical revenues which were confiſcated by the ſtate upon the alteration of religion for the uſe of the publick. As the nobility vote firſt in theſe aſſemblies, they influence in a great meaſure the cities which give their voices afterwards. The Penſioner of Holland, who ſits with them, delivers their vote and aſſiſts in all their deliberations previous to the general aſſembly. He is always a perſon of great credit, and ſeldom removed, tho' by their conſtitution he ought to continue in that poſt but five years. His place is behind all the deputies or repreſentatives, being, in reality, but the ſervant of the province, tho' he has frequently the good fortune to lead, or at leaſt influence his maſters; for he propoſes all matters to be debated by the States, collects their opinions, and digeſts their reſolutions, like the Speaker of an Engliſh Houſe of Commons, and aſſumes a power ſometimes of delaying and poſtponing the moſt important affairs, notwithſtanding a majority of the aſſembly are for the queſtion, pretending it will be of ill conſequence to the province: and he is always conſtituted one of their deputies or repreſentatives to the States General.

The towns of Holland eighteen voices.

The repreſentatives of the cities are elected out of the magiſtracy and ſenate of each town, and their number more or leſs according to the pleaſure of thoſe they repreſent, tho' they have all but one voice, and have a ſalary from the places which ſend them. One of the burgomaſters and the penſioner are uſually of the number. The States of Holland generally aſſemble at the Hague four times a year, viz. in the months of February, June, September and November. In their three firſt ſeſſions they conſider the filling up of vacant offices, renewing the farms of the ſeveral taxes, and other matters relating to the general good of the province, or particular differences between the towns: and in November they meet on purpoſe to conſider of the charge, forces, &c. which have been allotted by the States General as the proportion of this province for the enſuing year.

Council of State of Holland.

The States of Holland upon extraordinary occaſions are ſummoned by the *Ge committee rede*, or council of ſtate of the province, conſiſting of ſeveral deputies or repreſentatives, viz. one from the nobility, one from each of the chief towns, and one from three of the ſmaller towns; each of theſe chuſing a repreſentative by turns. This council ſits conſtantly at the Hague, and propoſes to the States of the province at their extraordinary aſſemblies the matters proper for their deliberation, and executes their reſolutions. One negative voice in the aſſembly of the States of the province hinders their coming to a reſolution; but they are ſo united by their common intereſt, or a view to the publick good, that after things have been fully debated, it is obſerved, they are generally unanimous, the ſmaller party ſeldom conteſting it long or violently with the majority. When they are all agreed, they ſend ſome of their number to the reſpective towns they repreſent, to obtain their conſent; and if it be a matter of any intricacy, and may take up time in debating in the ſeveral cities, the States uſually adjourn for ſuch a time as they have reaſon to think the deputies will return.

Chamber of accounts of Holland

There is alſo a chamber of accounts which manages the revenues of the province, and hath the abſolute diſpoſal of the demeſn lands, or the lands belonging to the States of the province, which anciently, I preſume, were the inheritance of the Earl.

The revenue which theſe bring in is ſeldom applied to the uſe of the publick but upon urgent neceſſity, the States having diſpoſed of it to magiſtrates and officers grown old in their ſervice, whoſe prudence and integrity they have long experienced; and by this means theſe gentlemen meet with a plentiful and honourable retreat after they have ſpent the beſt part of their lives in the ſervice of their country.

Holland and Zealand the ſame ſupreme courts of juſtice.

The provinces of Holland and Zealand have two courts of judicature common to both provinces. The one conſtituted of twelve counſellors or judges, namely, nine of Holland and three of Zealand. This court judges finally in all criminal caſes, but in civil there is an appeal to the other court, which is called the high council, from whence there lies no appeal but by petition, to the States of the province for a reviſion; whereupon if the States think proper they grant a commiſſion to ſome Sindiques (recorders) of towns, who being added to the judges of the two former courts, reviſe and finally determine the matter.

The government of the province of Frieſland.

The government of the province of Frieſland is very different from that of Holland, being compoſed of four members, viz. The quarter of Oſtergo, the quarter of Weſtergo, that of Seven-Wolden; and laſtly, that of the towns of the province. The quarter of Oſtergo conſiſts of eleven baillages, the quarter of Weſtergo of nine, and the quarter of Seven-Wolden of ten, each baillage comprehending twelve or fifteen villages, or thereabouts; and the towns of the province which ſend deputies are eleven in number. Theſe four members elect their reſpective repreſentatives, viz. two out of every baillage, and two out of every town, which compoſe the aſſembly of the States Provincial, who deliberate and conclude all matters relating to the government of the province, without having recourſe to thoſe who elected them, or requiring their conſent to any affair how important ſoever, nor receive any inſtructions from thoſe who ſend them, as the States of Holland do, but ſeem to be veſted with the like powers as the members or repreſentatives of the commons are in England.

And, whereas in Holland the nobility or cities chooſe the repreſentatives who compoſe the States, in Frieſland every bailly, or greetman, ſummons all perſons who are poſſeſſed of a certain parcel of lands (who may be compared to our freeholders) within his baillage; and a majority of theſe men chuſe the two repreſentatives or deputies of the baillage to be ſent to the aſſembly of the States of the province: the bailly alſo and his aſſeſſors compoſe a court of juſtice for civil matters, from whence there lies an appeal to the court of juſtice of the province.

The States of Frieſland thus conſtituted, as aforeſaid, diſpoſe of all vacant offices, elect the nine members, who compoſe the council of ſtate, and twelve judges, three for every quarter, who compoſe the court of juſtice of the province, and determine all civil cauſes which come before them by way of appeal, and all criminal cauſes at the firſt inſtance, there being no other criminal juriſdiction but this in the province; whereas in Holland there is no town but has the determination of criminal matters within itſelf, and ſeveral Lords of manors, and even villages, have both the high and low juſtice belonging to them.

Government of Groningen.

Of Overyſſel.

In the province of Groningen the deputies or repreſentatives elected to ſerve in their aſſembly of the States of the province are choſen as in Frieſland by freeholders, or perſons poſſeſſed of a certain portion of land. And in Overyſſel all the nobility and gentry who have manors, or ſeigneurial lands, are qualified to be members of the States of that province.

The government of Guelderland, Zealand, and Utrecht.

The conſtitution of the government in the provinces of Guelderland, Zealand and Utrecht, pretty much reſembles that of Holland, the States of each province being compoſed of the deputies or repreſentatives of the nobility and cities; but there are ſome ſmall differences, as in Guelderland, where all the nobility and gentry who are ſeized of ſuch certain lordſhips have a ſeat, and vote in the aſſembly of the States of the province, and theſe compoſe one half of the States, as the repreſentatives of the towns do the other half; and though ſome certain perſons of their number are deputed to the States General, yet any of the nobility of Guelderland have a ſeat there if they will attend at their own charges.

Power of the Prince of Orange in Zealand.

The nobility of Zealand having been almoſt extinguiſhed in the wars with Spain, and the Prince of Orange being proprietor of the marquiſates of Fluſhing and Terveer, this Prince alone repreſents that part of the States of the province, under the title of firſt or ſole Noble of Zealand; and by virtue thereof his deputy has the firſt place and voice in the aſſembly of the States of Zealand, and in their council of State and chamber of accounts. As Sovereign of Fluſhing and Terveer he alſo conſtitutes the magiſtrates, and conſequently diſpoſes of the votes of thoſe two towns, as well as the votes of the nobility; and there are but ſix towns which ſend deputies to the aſſembly of the province of Zealand.

In the province of Utrecht eight delegates from the clergy had ſeſſion in the aſſembly of the States with the deputies of the nobility and towns, making a third eſtate. And theſe are ſtill elected out of the four chapters in the town, the preferments and revenues whereof, though eccleſiaſtical till the alteration of religion, are now poſſeſſed by laymen, who are moſt of them gentlemen of the province.

The States General in a collective body ſeldom aſſemble.

This is the beſt account which hath been given us of the government of the reſpective provinces; I proceed now to enquire further into the conſtitution of the States General, which is compoſed of the repreſentatives of the ſeven ſeveral Provinces abovementioned, and uſed at firſt to be convened on extraordinary occaſions by the council of ſtate, though this was but ſeldom, in regard this aſſembly uſually conſiſted of eight hundred perſons, which occaſioned their debates to be long and confuſed, and their reſolutions too ſlow: in their abſence the council of State acted in their ſtead, and executed their reſolutions, and ſummoned a new aſſembly of the States when they judged proper. And thus it was till the Earl of Leiceſter reſigned the government of theſe provinces, when they reſolved that the provincial States by their conſtant reſpective repreſentatives ſhould continue their aſſemblies under the name of States General, and all the members of the confederate States have never been aſſembled above once ſince that time. This repreſentative of the Seven Provinces, called the States General, ſits now conſtantly at the Hague, gives audience to Ambaſſadors, and exerciſes other acts of ſovereignty, the aſſembly of all the States being now wholly diſuſed.

Their repreſentatives only aſſemble at this day.

The council of State, Admiralty and Treaſury.

Subordinate to this repreſentative of the States, now ſtiled the States General, are the council of State, the Admiralty and the Treaſury, all which very nearly reſemble the ſeveral councils eſtabliſhed when theſe provinces were ſubject to their ſeveral Princes, or united under the houſes of Burgundy or Auſtria.

The members of theſe ſeveral councils are nominated or changed by the ſaid provinces, according to their reſpective cuſtoms. Every one ſends their repreſentatives in what number they pleaſe, ſome ten, others twelve, and ſome but two; but this makes little difference, becauſe all the deputies of one province, how few or many ſoever, have but one ſingle vote: the cuſtoms of the provinces differ alſo in the time for the continuance of their reſpective deputies in the ſaid councils, ſome deputing them for a year, two, three, or more; and others for life. The province of Holland ſends to the States General one of their nobility who is perpetual, two deputies choſen by the eight chief towns, one choſen by North Holland, two out of their provincial council of State, and their Penſioner.

The States General.

No Stadtholder, Governor, or military Officer, can ſit or vote in the States General, and each province takes it's turn to appoint a Preſident of the aſſembly, who is changed once a week. He ſits in an armed chair at the middle of a long table which will hold thirty perſons, this being about

bout the number of Members of which this ſupreme council is compoſed. The Greffier, or Secretary, ſits at one end of the table, and Ambaſſadors at their audience are ſeated at the middle of the table over-againſt the Preſident, who propoſes all matters in the aſſembly, puts the queſtion, collects the votes, and forms the concluſion; and in all ordinary caſes things are carried by a majority: but if the ſubject be peace or war, foreign alliances, levying or coining money, or concerning the privilege of any province; in theſe caſes every province muſt concur, and a plurality of votes is of no weight; for this council is not really ſovereign, but repreſents the ſovereignty: and therefore on all theſe important points the States of every province are conſulted, and their conſent obtained before any thing is abſolutely determined. And in other matters decided by a majority, they frequently conſult the council of ſtate; though Sir **WILLIAM TEMPLE** relates, that during his embaſſy in Holland he had the good fortune to prevail with the States General to conclude three treaties within the ſpace of five days without paſſing the eſſential forms of their government, by having recourſe to the provinces, who muſt likewiſe have had the conſent of the ſeveral cities, &c. And he aſſures us, that in concluding theſe alliances without commiſſion from their principals, the deputies of the States General might have loſt their heads if the treaties had not been approved by their principals; but the neceſſity of uſing this expedition being apparent, and of the utmoſt importance to their country, they were ſo far from being animadverted upon, that they gained an univerſal applauſe.

Council of State.

The council of State alſo conſiſts of repreſentatives of the ſeveral provinces, whereof the province of Holland ſends three, the provinces of Guelderland, Zealand and Utrecht, two a-piece, and the provinces of Frieſland, Groningen and Overyſſel, each of them one; nor is it in the power of any province to ſend more or leſs to this council than the numbers above expreſſed, ſo that the council of ſtate for the whole United Provinces always conſiſts of twelve members. Nor do they vote here by provinces, as in the aſſembly of the States General, but by perſonal voices, and every deputy preſides by turns; and in this council the Stadtholder, or Governor of the United Provinces, when there is one, hath a deciſive voice. The Treaſurer-general has a ſeat here, and may give his opinion, but has no vote, though his place be for life, as is that of the deputy ſent by the nobility of Holland, and the deputies of the province of Zealand; the other deputies are but for two, three, or four years. This council of State executes the reſolutions of the States General, propoſes the number of troops requiſite for the enſuing year, the methods of raiſing them, and of levying money for the exigences of the government. They alſo ſuperintend the militia, fortifications and contributions levied on the enemy in time of war; the revenues and government of the conquered places acquired ſince the union, which being conquered by the common arms of the State, depend on the States General, and not on any particular province.

The council of State at the end of every year, preſent to the States General a ſtate of the expences which they apprehend to be neceſſary for the enſuing year, deſiring them to demand of the States Provincial their reſpective proportions, which are as follow, viz. in every 100l. ſterling, each province raiſes the following ſums,

	l.	s.	d.
Guelderland,	7	00	00
Holland,	42	00	00
Zealand,	13	00	00
Utrecht,	8	00	00
Frieſland,	17	00	00
Overyſſel,	5	00	00
Groningen and the Omlands,	8	00	00
	100	00	00

And this is but a continuance of the practice in the time of their ancient Sovereigns: indeed when they were under the dominion of their reſpective Counts or Dukes, this was only upon extraordinary occaſions; but in the times of the houſes of Burgundy and Auſtria, it became a thing of courſe, and annual, as it is ſtill in the Spaniſh provinces.

Every province raiſes ſuch ſums, and by ſuch ways and means as are moſt ſuitable to it, and ſends it's quota, or ſhare of the general charge to the Receiver-General, converting the remainder to the uſe of their particular province.

The chamber of accounts.

The chamber of accounts was erected within theſe hundred years, to take off part of the trouble from the council of State; and their buſineſs is to examine and ſtate all accounts of the ſeveral receivers, to control and regiſter the orders of the council of ſtate, which diſpoſes of the revenue: and this chamber is compoſed of two deputies ſent from each province, who are changed every three years.

The court of admiralty.

The next great office is the court of admiralty, which after the States General, by the advice of the council of State, have concluded on the number and force of the fleet to be ſet out, have the abſolute diſpoſal of all marine affairs, as well in the choice and equipment of the ſeveral ſhips, as in iſſuing the money allotted for that ſervice.

Subdivided.

This office is ſubdivided into five leſſer courts, three whereof are in Holland, viz. one at Amſterdam, a ſecond at Rotterdam, and the third at Horn; the fourth at Middleburg in Zealand, and the fifth at Harlingen in Frieſland, and each of theſe compoſed of ſeven deputies, viz. four of that province where the court is, and three named by the other provinces. The Admiral, and in his abſence the Vice-Admiral, has a ſeat in all theſe courts, and preſides there when he is upon the place. They have the cognizance of all crimes committed at ſea, whether piracies or others, and of all frauds and neglects in the payment or collection of the cuſtoms, which are always applied to the uſe of the admiralty, and to no other purpoſe; and as this fund is not ſufficient in time of war, the States grant a farther ſupply out of other taxes. In time of peace there being however a conſiderable overplus, this is applied to the building of great ſhips of war, and purchaſing ſtores for their arſenals and magazines, in which they have always materials ſufficient to fit out more ſhips than can be wanted in the courſe of a long war.

When the number and magnitude of the ſhips appointed for any expedition are agreed on by the States General, and orders iſſued for their equipment by the council of State, every particular college, or court of admiralty, furniſhes it's ſtated proportion. The Captains and ſuperior Officers of each ſquadron are appointed by the reſpective courts or colleges which ſet them out; and the Captain who has the care of manning and victualling his own ſhips, uſes his utmoſt diligence to procure his compliment of the beſt men, and in getting the beſt proviſions, ſurgeons and medicines for the men under his command, being allowed by the admiralty a certain rate for every man; and according as he performs this great truſt, he gains or loſes his credit with the admiralty, on whoſe opinion the fortune of all ſea-officers depends; and conſequently in all their expeditions there appears an emulation among the Captains, who ſhall treat the ſeamen under their command beſt, and apply the money appointed for their victualling, &c. to the beſt advantage, and not by little knaviſh practices endeavour to fill their own pockets by ſtarving their men, or laying in unwholeſom proviſions. The ſalaries of all the great officers of this State are very mean, and particularly that of their Vice-Admiral, which does not amount to above five hundred pounds a year.

The government of the cities.

Having enquired into the conſtitution of the government of the reſpective provinces, and of that grand court which is a repreſentative of the States General, with the council of State, chamber of accounts, and courts of admiralty; I now proceed to deſcribe the adminiſtration of the government of their principal cities and great towns, and firſt, that of Amſterdam.

Of Amſterdam. The Senate.

The ſovereign power of this city is lodged in ſix and thirty Senators, who continue members of this aſſembly for life, and when one or more of them dies, the remaining Senators elect others in their room, the people having no ſhare in the nomination or choice; ſo that, as Sir W. Temple obſerves, this is far from being a popular government at this day, though it might be ſo eſteemed an hundred and fifty years ago, when the Senators were choſen by a majority of the principal Burghers, who were about that time wheedled to transfer their right of election to the Senate, and their example was followed by the reſt of the towns of the province, who differ in little elſe but the number of their Senators.

Burgomaſters, or Mayors.

The Senate elects the deputies to be ſent to the States of Holland, and appoints the chief Magiſtrates of the city, namely, the Burgomaſters and Eſchevins, who are ſaid to reſemble the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London. The Burgomaſters are four in number, of which three are choſen annually, one of them always remaining in office two years, but the three laſt choſen are ſtiled the reigning Burgomaſters for the year, and preſide by turns after the firſt three months; for ſo long after a new election the Burgomaſter of the preceding year preſides, in which time the new ones have an opportunity of being inſtructed in the forms and duties of their office. It is by a majority of ſuch perſons in the Senate as have been Burgomaſters or Eſchevins that the new Burgomaſters are choſen, and theſe repreſent the government of the city on all occaſions, and diſpoſe of all inferior offices that fall during their adminiſtration: they iſſue all money alſo out of the treaſury for the publick ſervice, and may properly be looked upon to have the executive power, (as the whole ſenate have the legiſlative.) They have the inſpection alſo of all the publick buildings and fortifications about the city, and direct them to be repaired or improved as they ſee occaſion. But though theſe Gentlemen are veſted with ſo great power, there is but very little profit attends it, only they ſtand fair for more profitable places after they have executed theſe with reputation, the ſalary of a Burgomaſter not being above five hundred gilders, or fifty pounds a year, though there are offices in their gift worth an hundred pounds a year; but then their employments put them to no manner of expence in their habits, equipage, or way of living, being attended on all ſolemn occaſions by officers who have a ſtated ſalary on that account; and whatever entertainments are made for foreign Princes or Miniſters are at the expence of the publick, and at other times they appear with the garb and modeſty of private citizens. When the Burgomaſter's office expires, and they have well diſcharged that great employment, ſome of the moſt profitable places in the city are of courſe conferred upon them, of which there are a great many eſteemed very profitable there, but much inferior to thoſe of the Britiſh Magiſtrates and Officers.

Eſchevins, or Aldermen, conſtitute a court of juſtice.

The Eſchevins, or Aldermen, conſtitute a court of juſtice in every town. There are nine in the city of Amſterdam, of whom ſeven are choſen annually, two of the preceding year remaining in office: a double number of candidates being nominated by the Senate, the Burgomaſters have the choice of thoſe that ſhall ſerve; and they are ſole judges in all criminal caſes, but in civil there lies an appeal to the court of Juſtice of the province, if the thing in diſpute be of a conſiderable value. And they never pronounce ſentence of death without firſt communicating the matter to the Burgomaſters; but when they have complied with this form, they proceed to give judgment themſelves, and are not obliged to be determined by the Burgomaſters opinion.

The Treaſurer.

The Scout, or Sheriff.

The Penſioner, or Recorder.

The Officers ſubordinate to theſe ſupreme Magiſtrates, are, 1. The Treaſurer, who receives and iſſues all money ariſing from the revenues of the city. The Scout, or Sheriff, who is conſervator of the peace, apprehends criminals, and ſees the ſentences of the courts of Juſtice put in execution. 2. The Penſioner, who is a perſon well verſed in the civil law and the cuſtoms of the city, whom the magiſtracy adviſe with in caſes of intricacy, and rely upon to defend their rights and privileges in diſputes with other cities and powers. He delivers meſſages alſo from the Burgomaſters and Senate, and makes ſpeeches and replies on all ſolemn occaſions, and is therefore ſaid to reſemble the Recorder of an Engliſh corporation.

Revenues of Amſterdam.

The revenues of Amſterdam ariſe from an exciſe on almoſt all ſorts of commodities bought and ſold within the city, or the diſtrict belonging to it; out of the city rents, or the duties impoſed on every houſe for charitable uſes, for the repairs of the fortifications and publick buildings. Or elſe by extraordinary taxes impoſed by the Senate for furniſhing their part of the publick expences agreed to by the States of the province. Or by the deputies of Holland in the States General for the ſupport of the union. And all theſe payments are made into one common treaſury for the city, and not in the reſpective pariſhes or diviſions of the place. And 'tis ſaid, that the payments of all kinds made by the city of Amſterdam, to the States General, to the States of the province, and to the uſes of the city, amount to above ſixteen hundred thouſand pounds a year.

The Stadtholder.

The Princes of Orange have, from the commencement of the union of the Seven Provinces, born a great ſhare in the government of the whole, as well as in particular cities and ſovereignties, of which this State is compoſed. Theſe Princes, ſays Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE, had a moſt eſſential part in the firſt frame of the government, and in all the fortunes thereof, during the whole growth and progreſs of the State. Prince WILLIAM I, of Naſſau, was Governor of Holland and Zealand in the time of CHARLES V and his ſon PHILIP II; and by his wiſdom and goodneſs acquired a mighty eſteem with the other provinces as well as theſe, who readily conſtituted him their Governor and Stadtholder. Nor hath this nation, according to the ſame author, ever been without a head under ſome title or other, though it was a head always ſubordinate to their laws and cuſtoms, and to the ſovereign power. Upon their revolt from Spain, all the power and rights of Prince WILLIAM of Orange, as Governor of the provinces, were carefully reſerved to him; but thoſe which were inherent in the Sovereign devolved on the aſſembly of the States General; namely, the power of making peace and war, foreign alliances, and the coinage of money. The Prince had the command of all their forces by ſea and land, as Admiral and Captain-General, and thereby the diſpoſal of all military commands: as alſo the power of pardoning crimes, and chooſing magiſtrates upon the nomination of certain candidates in the towns, who preſented three to the Prince, and he elected one of them: and thus it continued till the death of the late King WILLIAM's father, when the province of Holland influenced the reſt ſo far as entirely to ſuppreſs this office of Stadtholder, ſharing the authority of the Prince among the ſeveral magiſtrates of the State. The cities particularly aſſumed the power of appointing their own magiſtrates; the States Provincial the diſpoſal of all military commands in the troops they paid; and the States General the command of the armies by Generals of their own appointing, whom they removed and changed at pleaſure. No power was left of pardoning one condemned by rigour of law, nor any ſingle perſon to repreſent the State or receive Ambaſſadors. This form of government was ſupported for near twenty years by the great authority and riches of the province of Holland, which drew a kind of dependance from the other ſix, and by the great abilities of their chief miniſter DE WITT; till the late Prince of Orange, afterwards King of England, notwithſtanding both himſelf and the very office of Stadtholder had been abjured, was reſtored to his authority, and equalled, if not exceeded his anceſtors in his authority and influence over this State; upon which occurrence I ſhall enlarge further, when I come to give the modern hiſtory of this State. Upon the death of the late King WILLIAM the office of Stadtholder was again ſuſpended in five of the provinces: as for Frieſland and Groningen, Prince CASIMIR of Naſſau was hereditary Stadtholder of thoſe provinces, to whom ſince ſucceeded his eldeſt ſon the young Prince of Orange-Naſſau, whom the late King WILLIAM by his will conſtituted his univerſal heir. And in the year 1723 the province of Guelderland alſo elected the ſaid Prince of Orange-Naſſau for their Stadtholder, which the province of Holland oppoſed with all their might, preſenting a formal memorial on that head, an abſtract whereof, with the anſwer of Guelderland, and the limitations put on the Prince on his admiſſion to the Stadtholderſhip of Guelderland, will give us ſome further light into the preſent ſtate of the United Provinces. In their memorial the States of Holland declare,

Repreſentation of Holland againſt the province of Guelderland's chooſing a Stadtholder.

That they could not conceal their ſurprize when they were informed Guelderland had determined to make ſo very great a change in the nature of their government, as to chooſe a Stadtholder, and divide their power and authority with another: they could not forbear judging that a revolution of this nature muſt produce ſome great and fatal factions in the provinces. That on the one hand, various means would be uſed to excite and foment a change of the ſame nature in the other provinces: while ſome, on the other hand, would be endeavouring to preſerve their government in the order it had been eſtabliſhed; and theſe two parties would be continually nouriſhing diſtruſts and ſuſpicions of each other, and perpetually looſing the bands of their union. That if they reflected never ſo little on the power which it pleaſed GOD to confer upon the union of their anceſtors, they could not without trembling think on the fatal effects which diſcord might produce. And as they dreaded theſe misfortunes for the States of the United Provinces in general, of which Holland made ſo conſiderable a part, they could not forbear puſhing theſe reflections a little further, and repreſenting to their High Mightineſſes, that they muſt expect their ſhare of the calamities conſequent on their precipitate reſolution.

That above twenty years experience had given them all the inſight into this matter they could deſire; they had ſeen times of war and peace and dangerous diſſenſions, which had at length been amicably adjuſted without the interpoſition of a Stadtholder: their publick revenues were adminiſtred and ſettled ſo very happily, that all the other provinces took example by Guelderland: that there were indeed faults in every kind of government, but it ought to be duly weighed, whether thoſe faults would be redreſſed ſooner under the government of a Stadtholder, than under that of a State. They need only call to mind the times they had ſpent under the government of a Stadtholder, and compare them with the preſent, to ſet them right in this matter. And if their High Mightineſſes would pleaſe before they proceeded further, to name ſome Lords to confer with them, they would undertake to anſwer every argument which could be made uſe of as a ſpecious pretence for this change of government. That for their parts they could not comprehend any advantage it would be to them, equal to the inconvenience of dividing their power with another: and it was ſtill further beyond their comprehenſion, what ſhould induce them to this change in the preſent juncture, when their province enjoyed a profound peace and tranquillity, and their publick revenues were in a flouriſhing condition. And for this reaſon alſo they could not imagine what danger there could be in proviſionally deferring this affair; for Guelderland and Zutphen were countries of that importance, that they would never want a Prince to accept the government of them.

The anſwer of the States of Guelderland.

The States of Guelderland and Zutphen having on the ſecond of November 1723, choſen the Prince of Orange for their Stadtholder, did on the fourth of the ſame month ſend an anſwer to the States of Holland, to this effect: That in the choice of their Stadtholder they had uſed all poſſible circumſpection, without any other view than the good of the State in general, and of their own province in particular; and could not conceive why their High Mightineſſes ſhould be diſquieted at this election, or in what manner it could be prejudicial to them.

That the queſtion, whether it were more advantageous to the States of the Seven United Provinces, both in general and particular, to have ſome illuſtrious chief, uſually ſtiled a Stadtholder, under whoſe authority, but that a limited one, the affairs of their common alliance might be adminiſtred, as well in war as peace: or whether it were better to tranſact theſe affairs without ſuch a chief, had ſo often been debated in the ſeveral provinces, and ſo much had been written on both ſides, that they did not think it neceſſary at preſent to ſay much on that ſubject. But if they were pleaſed to take a review of the ancient government of the Netherlands before the union, and before they came under the dominion of Spain, they would find that the Seven Provinces were always governed by their reſpective Dukes, Earls, Biſhops or other Lords, in conjunction with the States of each province. That theſe Seven Provinces were more cloſely united in a firm alliance in the year 1579, for the preſervation of their liberties and religion; and WILLIAM I, Prince of Orange, had, as their High Mightineſſes themſelves had formerly obſerved, been the man who with the immediate aid and bleſſing of GOD laid the firſt foundations of this republick, notwithſtanding the threats and powerful oppoſition of the then potent King of Spain PHILIP II. That Prince MAURICE of Naſſau, Prince of Orange, raiſed this edifice ſtill higher upon the foundations which had been already laid; and that with a conduct and courage truly heroical. That Prince FREDERICK HENRY on the ſame foundation and the ſame walls, finiſhed the edifice of this State. And in the time of Prince WILLIAM II, anno 1648, a peace was concluded at Munſter between Spain and the United Provinces, whereby their independence and ſovereignty were generally acknowledged; but this Prince dying in 1650, and leaving his Princeſs with child of WILLIAM III, moſt of the provinces remained without a Stadtholder till the year 1672.

They ſaid, they would not put the States of Holland in mind of the many diſſenſions which happened during that interval, nor the fatal conſequences which attended them, by which the total ruin of the State was almoſt effected; but they could not forbear remembring, that by the bleſſing of GOD, under the conduct of WILLIAM III, Prince of Orange, choſen Stadtholder of theſe provinces, this republick, of which three whole provinces were fallen under the dominion of the French, and the reſt ready to become a prey to them, was reſtored to the preſent happy condition. And though they were fully perſuaded that their High Mightineſſes had not forgot ſuch extraordinary events, yet could they not avoid the mentioning them, to ſhew that the election of a Stadtholder is no innovation in the government of this State; but that on the other hand, it was under Stadtholders the State attained to it's greateſt ſplendor. That as their High Mightineſſes obſerved there always would be faults in every kind of government, and conſequently there muſt be ſome under that of a Stadtholder, and therefore they did not expect by chooſing one to have a government free from all defects; but having ſeriouſly weighed all events which had happened to the State in general, and to the province of Guelderland in particular, as well during the time it was governed by Stadtholders as whilſt it was not, they concluded, that the election of the Prince of Orange for Stadtholder and Captain-General of that Province, was mightily conducive to their true intereſt: for this Prince was without diſpute the only native of the United Provinces who could juſtly have this noble dignity conferred upon him, and was before conſtituted Stadtholder of two of the Seven Provinces, and his illuſtrious anceſtors and relations had both in war and peace done the moſt important ſervices that could be performed for the good and preſervation of their country. That it was true, in the time of peace a Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral, might not at firſt view ſeem eſſential to their conſtitution: but if their High Mightineſſes would reflect on the uſual inconſtancy and viciſſitude of human affairs, they would conclude, that a time of peace could never be better employed than in taking ſuch meaſures as might ſecure them from danger in caſe a war ſhould break out, at leaſt as far as human reaſon could inſure it.

That when they conſidered the preſent ſituation of the whole ſtate, their common country, the low ebb of their publick revenues and credit, which were ſunk to a very great degree, even ſince the concluſion of the peace, the decline of their militia and maritime power, the low eſteem they were fallen into with their neighbours, and the little probability of remedying theſe things, they concluded, that it was not without juſt grounds that their High Mightineſſes and the Council of State repreſented in writing at ſeveral times to the United Provinces, "That ſuch was the unhappy ſtate of the union, it was impoſſible it ſhould long ſubſiſt;" and it was much to be feared, that ſome revolution would cauſe it's total ruin: and yet theſe repeated remonſtrances had not had the leaſt effect, or any means been uſed hitherto to remedy theſe diſorders.

This as the republick was compoſed of ſeven particular provinces, and each province a ſovereign one of itſelf, where private, and even directly oppoſite intereſts frequently occaſioned diviſions, and the common intereſt to be neglected, and the means which ſhould be taken for the ſafety of the State entirely forgot; it could not be diſputed but that it muſt be very advantageous for their dear country to have the union cemented cloſer and ſtronger for the common good, and to make theſe Seven Arrows indiſſoluble, by binding them cloſe together in the bands of friendſhip and concord, formed by an illuſtrious chief, who ſhould govern them all with a limited authority. Of great advantage muſt it be on any emergency to have their affairs conducted by ſuch a head, with the ſpeed and activity requiſite on ſuch occaſions.

And as they found themſelves unanimouſly diſpoſed to put themſelves under this form of government, they could not any longer defer the election, after having drawn up the neceſſary inſtructions for their Stadtholder the Prince of Orange, which they took the liberty of tranſmitting to their High Mightineſſes for their peruſal, wherein they would not diſcover one article which could be prejudicial to the State in general, or to their province of Holland in particular. Nor could this election create any differences or jealouſies among the members of their own province, ſince it had been unanimouſly agreed on. It was not imaginable therefore what foundation their High Mightineſſes could have to ſurmiſe, that this election would occaſion a change of government, or that they would endeavour to excite factions and differences among the United Provinces, of which they had never given the leaſt reaſon to ſuſpect them, proteſting that they ſhould contribute all that was in their power towards the maintaining a good underſtanding amongſt them. They ſhould have rejoiced at an opportunity of entring into a conference with their High Mightineſſes, but that they underſtood by their letter that they only deſired a conference to divert them from the choice of a Stadtholder, on which they had already determined; but their High Mightineſſes might aſſure themſelves that they ſhould always be ready for the future to confer with their High Mightineſſes, and to take ſuch meaſures with them as ſhould be judged neceſſary for the ſervice of the State.

Instructions drawn up by the States of Gueldres and Zutphen, by which the Prince of Orange and Naſſau, their Stadtholder, Captain-General, and High Admiral, is to regulate himſelf in the adminiſtration of his offices, after having attained his eighteenth year.

Limitations put upon the Stadtholder of Guelderland.

1. THE Stadtholder ſhall be of the reformed Chriſtian religion, (a Calviniſt or Preſbyterian) which he ſhall publickly profeſs, and be obliged to aid and defend as much as in his power lies, the doctrines thereof being the ſame as were confirmed in the national Synod anno 1618, and 1619.

2. The ſovereign authority ſhall ſtill be veſted in the nobility and cities of the dutchy of Gueldres and county of Zutphen, as it formerly was, and ſtill is, nor ſhall the Stadtholder aſſume any part of it to himſelf.

3. The ſaid province ſhall ſtill conſiſt of three ſeparate and diſtinct diviſions, viz. of Nimeguen, Zutphen, and Veluwe. The Stadtholder ſhall not diſpoſe of any commiſſion, either within or without the province: he ſhall not take cognizance of the reception of any member into the order of the nobility or magiſtracy in the cities of this province; nor ſhall he make any change amongſt them.

4. The Stadtholder ſhall be obliged to obſerve and keep the union concluded between the allies at Utrecht anno 1579; as alſo all the conventions and agreements of this province. He ſhall maintain and defend all the rights and privileges, immunities, orders and cuſtoms which the nobility and cities, either in general or particular, at preſent enjoy. He ſhall alſo endeavour to maintain the ſovereignty of this province; and defend it againſt all thoſe who ſhall attempt to deſtroy or prejudice it.

5. The Stadtholder being at Arnheim, or any other place where the provincial court ſhall be aſſembled, ſhall take his ſeat and preſide in it; where he ſhall collect the voices, and conclude their ſittings. And when he ſhall be full eighteen years of age, all acts of State, letters and diſpatches ſhall be made in the name of the Stadtholder and counſellors, as was practiſed heretofore.

6. If any unforeſeen differences ſhall ariſe between the three diviſions of this province, or between the body of the nobility or cities in the reſpective diviſions, the Stadtholder ſhall endeavour amicably to reconcile them: which if he cannot accompliſh, he ſhall hear the complaints of the ſeveral parties, and decide their differences according to reaſon and equity.

7. The Stadtholder and Captain-General ſhall not do any thing againſt the orders eſtabliſhed by all the confederates in the year 1651, concerning patents, the keeping the keys and giving the watch-word in all thoſe cities whoſe magiſtrates have a voice in the aſſembly of the States. Nor ſhall he change the gariſons in the cities of this province; but the power of granting patents and changing the gariſons ſhall remain in the diſpoſal of the particular diviſions, or of the Lords their uſual deputies; and the keeping of the keys and giving the watch-word, ſhall ſtill be in the magiſtrates of the cities who have a ſeat in the aſſembly of the States, as it is at preſent.

8. The Stadtholder and Captain-General ſhall not diſpoſe of the offices of Commanders, Governors and Majors of cities and fortreſſes in this duchy or county.

9. The Stadtholder and Captain-General ſhall not diſpoſe of any military poſt of the forces quartered in this province, except in time of war, and when he is perſonally in the field; and then he ſhall have the diſpoſal of ſuch military offices as ſhall become vacant during the campaign, but not otherwiſe.

10. There ſhall be given to the Stadtholder and Captain-General one regiment of foot, which he himſelf ſhall chooſe amongſt the ſeveral regiments of this province, which ſhall be called the Stadtholder's regiment. The Colonel however ſhall retain his pay during his life-time, but immediately after his death the Stadtholder ſhall have it: as alſo the diſpoſal of the commiſſions which ſhall become vacant in ſuch regiment, provided he prefer natives to foreigners; and that before his diſpoſal of any ſuch commiſſion he be full fourteen years of age, and the ſaid military commiſſions be ſigned by the Secretary of the diviſion, according to the preſent practice.

11. The Stadtholder ſhall have an annual penſion of 5900 florins, to iſſue out of the revenues of this province. And he ſhall further have in the quality of Stadtholder of this province, his ſhare of all fines of Fiefs, and of their diſpatches.

12. The Stadtholder and Captain-General ſhal never endeavour any alteration to be made inl theſe inſtructions, whether in the whole or part; nor ſhall he apply himſelf to the province in general, or to any member in particular, for that end: and as ſoon therefore as he ſhall attain the age of eighteen years, he ſhall be obliged to ſign theſe inſtructions before his inſtallation, and to ſwear in the aſſembly that he will obſerve them

Reflections on the nature of the Dutch republicks

From what hath been collected on this head, we may be able to form a tolerable idea of the government of the United Provinces, which ſeems not to have been well underſtood by ſome, who would perſuade us, that the ſovereignty of the provinces and cities, of which this State is compoſed, is lodged in the diffuſive body of the people, and that they are in all caſes the *Dernier Reſort*. Whereas the people ſeem to have much leſs to do in the government here than they have in England, and as little as in any monarchy on the face of the earth. In the cities of Holland, which are equivalent to all the reſt, we find the legiſlative power lodged in the ſenate, compoſed of twenty or thirty perſons, or thereabouts, who continue in that capacity for life, and when one of them dies, the reſt make choice of another to ſucceed him; the people have no ſhare in the nomination or choice. That this ſenate elect ſome of their own number to repreſent them in the aſſembly of the States of the province; and the Provincial States elect alſo ſome from among themſelves to repreſent them in the aſſembly of the States General; ſo that the people have nothing to do, either in the adminiſtration of the government, the enacting laws, or in the choice of thoſe perſons who have the legiſlative or executive power lodged in them, but are as deſpotically governed by the Magiſtrates and Senate of their reſpective cities and diſtricts, as the ſubjects of France or Turky are by their ſeveral Monarchs. All the difference is, that in France and Turky there is one abſolute Sovereign, and in Holland every city hath twenty or thirty tyrants, from whom there lies no appeal, and who may govern their people, if they pleaſe, without laws; or, which is much the ſame thing, by ſuch laws and rules as they are pleaſed to preſcribe, and may repeal, ſuſpend or alter as they ſee fit. They don't ſuffer the ſubject here to talk of original contracts, birthrights, or unalienable powers of calling their Sovereigns to account; this is a doctrine reſerved for the meridian of Britain, and would meet with little countenance in Holland, or in any State in Europe: and yet this republick, by ignorant pretenders, is made a pattern of popular government, and recommended to our imitation, as the only model fit to be admitted, eſpecially among a trading people.

An enquiry whether a Monarchy or a Republican government ought to be preferred.

Now whether the limited Monarchy of Britain, where the people elect one body of the legiſlature, and the Prince can impoſe nothing on them without their conſents, be preferable to the deſpotick government of the States of Holland, will, I believe, ſcarce be made a queſtion by any man that underſtands the conſtitutions of both: I ſhall only therefore here enquire, whether the ſovereignty of one or of twenty be moſt eligible; or, which is the ſame thing, under which of theſe forms the people in general are like to enjoy the greateſt eaſe and ſecurity; and could we be ſure to meet always with a wiſe and good Prince, I ſhall make no difficulty in affirming that the government of one was better than that of many; for on this ſubject there are two principal points to be conſidered, namely, 1. The defending the people from foreign enemies; and, 2. From domeſtick oppreſſions. Now in war, ſecrecy, unanimity in councils, and a ſpeedy execution of our reſolutions, are conſiderable advantages, which we may expect to find oftner under a Monarchy than an Ariſtocracy, and the intereſt of the Prince and people are generally the ſame in caſes of invaſion; he can ſcarce be ſuſpected of having a different intereſt from that of his country: whereas when the ſovereignty is in many, it is not impoſſible but ſome of them may have different views, and ſacrifice their country to their private piques or advantages. And as to domeſtick oppreſſions, if the Prince be a wiſe man, he cannot but underſtand that his own grandeur is promoted by the flouriſhing ſtate of his ſubjects, that both his power and revenues increaſe in proportion to his encouragement of their trade and manufactures, and the ſecurity they enjoy in their poſſeſſions.

If it be ſaid on the other hand, that in a multitude of counſellors there is wiſdom; and that therefore where the ſupreme power is lodged in twenty or thirty, affairs are like to be better managed than by one: To this it is anſwered, That all Princes have their councils, ſuppoſed to conſiſt of the ableſt heads in their dominions; and therefore in that reſpect they are upon the level with a republick: and as none can know what reſolution the Prince will take, after he has heard their debates, he has certainly a vaſt advantage in the ſpeedy execution of his deſigns, and preventing their diſappointment, and in over-ruling any perverſe or deſigning member, who may have views to his own intereſt: whereas when the power is in many, they are long frequently in reſolving, longer in executing, and perhaps the ſcheme, tho' never ſo well laid, ſhall be diſcovered or oppoſed by the contrary faction underhand, if not openly; and in the mean time the eſtate remain defenceleſs and expoſed to their enemies, as was the very caſe of the United Provinces, when LEWIS XIV invaded them in the year 1672, and they were ſaved almoſt by a miracle.

Should the ſubject under an abſolute monarchy happen to be governed by a weak, ambitious, or voluptuous Prince, here indeed a ſettled Ariſtocracy ſeems preferable to it; but it is certain that States, as well as Kings, do often go very great lengths in oppreſſing and tyrannizing over the people. Is there a Monarchy in Europe where the taxes are more burthenſom than in the United Provinces? or where is there a Prince ſo jealous of his authority as the States are, who will ſuffer no petitions or remonſtrances from their ſubjects, let their grievances be never ſo great? And indeed where the people are oppreſſed, there is much leſs reaſon to hope for redreſs from a republick than a monarch; becauſe a body of men can never be ſuppoſed to be moved by pity or compaſſion as a ſingle man may, neither are they ſo apprehenſive of a revolt or inſurrection. It is a common obſervation, that ſhould the Burgundian or Auſtrian family, formerly Sovereigns of theſe countries, have impoſed half the taxes they groan under at preſent, the people would never have born it; but now their Governors conſiſting of the principal men in every great town and province, have ſuch an influence over the whole, that it is next to an impoſſibility for the common people to form themſelves into a body, ſo as to endanger the State. Their Sovereigns are always upon the ſpot, and ſo intermixed with them, that they would nip any inſurrection in the bud; and ſhould the mob prevail in one city or province, unleſs they met with the like ſucceſs in the reſt, they muſt expect ſoon to be reduced to their duty: ſo that I take a rebellion, or what ſome denominate a noble ſtruggle for their liberties, to be utterly impracticable by the ſubjects of Holland; let their oppreſſions be never ſo great, they have no remedy but patience. Holland happens indeed to be a country which depends entirely upon trade, navigation and manufactures, in all which their Governors are ſome way or other intereſted, and therefore muſt be ſuppoſed to promote theſe to the utmoſt of their power; conſequently that part of their ſubjects which are concerned in theſe, which it muſt be admitted are much the greateſt number, are ſure to meet with all manner of encouragement. If the magiſtrates are not all of them merchants, there are few of them, who are not nearly related to thoſe that are, or who have not ſome ſhares in their great companies ſtocks, or other branches of buſineſs. And this gives the Dutch a prodigious advantage of the Engliſh in point of traffick; for while our miniſtry are indolent and careleſs in affairs of trade, as receiving little benefit by it, the States of Holland, whoſe private fortunes as well as the publick good require their utmoſt application to theſe things, let ſlip no opportunities of advancing their traffick. And thus far De Witt is certainly in the right, That it is happy for a people, when the well-being of the Governors apparently depends on the well-being of the ſubject, for then the ſubject may reſt aſſured his welfare will not be neglected. To inſtance firſt, in the caſe of convoys in time of war; how many more Britiſh ſhips were there taken in the laſt war than Dutch in proportion? The reaſon was, the Engliſh admiralty had ſeldom any ſhare in the merchant-ſhips which went abroad, whereas there was ſcarce a fleet of Hollanders, but the States were deeply intereſted in. Again, if we look back a little, and obſerve how we have in every part of the world been ſupplanted in our trade by the Dutch; firſt in India, where we ſuffered them to poſſeſs themſelves of all the ſpices of the eaſt, (though ſome of the principal iſlands where they grew were actually under the dominion of Britain, by the ſurrender of the natives, and which are not reſtored to this day:) afterwards how we were tricked out of the Ruſſia trade, the whale fiſhery, and even the herring fiſhery upon our own coaſt; we muſt acknowledge that it is ſome diſadvantage to a trading people, that their Governors have but little dependence upon trade. Had the greateſt part of our Miniſters fortunes depended on the ſucceſs of the Britiſh trade, as that of the States did on the Dutch trade, we ſhould not have parted with the moſt valuable branches of it ſo eaſily. Three ways the Dutch have taken, in De Witt's phraſe, to beat us out of our foreign trade. 1. By their arms, or openly diſputing the empire of the ſeas with us, in which they have proſpered but little. 2. By ſowing diviſions amongſt us, and joining our malecontents againſt the government, which diverted us from calling them to an account in time. And, 3. By bribing our miniſtry in ſome former reigns, in which they have met with all the ſucceſs that they could wiſh. It is not to be ſuppoſed we ſhould have put up all thoſe affronts and encroachments on our trade, if the gentlemen who ſat at the helm had not been made eaſy. And though it might not be difficult to ſhew that the crown, the nobility, and gentry of England, would all be great gainers by their encouragement of trade; that the publick revenues would not only be increaſed by an increaſe of the cuſtoms, and conſequently the lands leſs burthened, but that the value of the lands themſelves would advance, in proportion as trade flouriſhes: yet, as theſe are remote proſpects, and ſeem to concern poſterity more than the preſent generation, it is not expected ſuch conſiderations ſhould be of much weight. The Dutch legiſlature and miniſtry find an immediate profit by their promoting traffick, and leave therefore no means unattempted to advance it: and as they are a powerful body, and maſters of ſuch immenſe wealth, if they ſee any project ſetting on foot in any foreign kingdom, which may be a detriment to their trade, they will at any rate purchaſe the miniſtry of that kingdom, and thereby baffle the beſt-laid ſchemes. By this means they have indeed beaten all other nations out of their foreign trade; or, which is the ſame thing, rendered it of very little advantage to them. If it be ſaid, why don't other nations apply themſelves in the ſame irreſiſtible manner to the Dutch miniſtry, and buy them out of ſome conſiderable branch of trade? It may be anſwered, that the Dutch miniſtry ſubſiſt chiefly by trade, and therefore are not to be purchaſed. They would loſe more than they could gain by a bribe. There are ſo many wealthy merchants concerned, that there is not a nation in Europe that can, or at leaſt will raiſe money ſufficient to influence ſo conſiderable a body, and in this they have an indiſputable advantage of all other people. But notwithſtanding the United Provinces have theſe great advantages in relation to trade, I look upon the conſtitution of their government at this day to be in a very weak and languiſhing condition; ſhould they be attacked by any formidable power, as they were in the year 1672, they would probably be reduced to as great ſtraits as they were then; for they have now no common Stadtholder, or head, to preſide in their councils, or command their armies; and it muſt be next to a miracle if ſo many independent ſovereignties, as there are in theſe provinces, ſhould on an inſtant unite and enter on the propereſt meaſures for their defence. The provinces of Frieſland, Groningen, and Guelderland are indeed agreed upon a Stadtholder, and invite the other provinces to join with them in their choice, repreſenting the danger of being attacked by a foreign enemy, while they remain thus diſunited: but Holland, the moſt powerful of the provinces, and the wealthy city of Amſterdam eſpecially, proteſt againſt the government of a Stadtholder; being more apprehenſive of the loſs of their liberties, and oppreſſion from ſuch an officer, than of a foreign invaſion, as they pretend. But the true reaſon of their rejecting a Stadtholder is probably the ſame now as it was formerly, namely, becauſe the Hollanders and the city of Amſterdam would loſe much of that influence they have over the other provinces under the government of a Stadtholder. At preſent the other States ſeem to have a dependence upon this, and which-ever way the province of Holland inclines, the reſt are ſwayed and biaſſed by it; all applications are therefore made by foreigners in the firſt place to them, and their Penſioner is addreſſed to as Prime Miniſter of the States General: whereas, if there was a Stadtholder they would be leſs conſidered, and loſe much of the power and influence they have at preſent. There has therefore, from the very infancy of this State, been conſtant ſtruggles between the Stadtholder and the province of Holland for dominion. Old Barnevelt was ſacrificed to the Orange faction, and ſo was De Witt, both Penſioners of Amſterdam; but then De Witt had the pleaſure of ſuppreſſing the ſtadtholderſhip for twenty years before he periſhed; and had maintained his ground at laſt, had not ſuch a conjuncture happened, as could not eaſily have been foreſeen, namely, the kingdoms of England and France both invading their territories at once, which compelled them to advance the Prince of Orange to the ſtadtholderſhip to unite and command their ſcattered forces, and to ingratiate themſelves with England, whereby they made a friend of a powerful enemy, and by that means principally ſaved their ſinking ſtate. The Loveſtein faction then, of which De Witt was the head, dreaded much more the falling under the government of a Stadtholder than a foreign invaſion, as the preſent leading members of the States of Holland ſeem to do. In the firſt caſe, ſay they, from the condition of Sovereigns of the United Provinces, as we are in effect from the influence our mighty wealth and power procure us, we ſhall be reduced to the condition of ſubjects. And as to a foreign enemy we have very little to fear, it is ſo much the intereſt of every power in Europe to prevent our State being conquered, or added to any of the neighbouring kingdoms, that we may depend on the interpoſition of more powers than one, if we ſhould be attacked; as we found by experience, when the French fell upon us in 1672. And why, ſay they, might we not agree upon a General to command our troops in ſuch an exigency, as in the laſt war, for the time it continues; but muſt elect a Stadtholder, Captain-General, and Admiral in one perſon for life; who will probably draw ſuch a dependence on him from all the provinces, as may endanger our liberties, and end perhaps at laſt in a monarchy: a form of government of all others to be dreaded by a people, whoſe ſole dependence is upon traffick? But I proceed next to give the Modern Hiſtory of theſe provinces, from the time of the truce concluded with the Spaniards in the year 1609, by which the conſtitution of their government will be ſtill better underſtood.

CHAP. VI.

Contains the Modern Hiſtory of the United Provinces from the year 1609, when a truce was concluded with Spain, to the preſent time; with a brief account of the Princes of Orange their Stadtholders.

FROM the firſt foundation of the Dutch State, there hath ever been obſerved two factions amongſt them; the one inclined to monarchy, and the other as fond of a republican form of government. WILLIAM Prince of Orange, the firſt Stadtholder and Captain-General of the United Provinces, who contributed ſo much towards the reſcuing them from the Spaniſh tyranny, is charged however with deſigns againſt their liberties: and, 'tis ſaid, had formed a conſiderable party in the State, who were ready to compliment him with the ſovereignty of theſe provinces, if he had not in that inſtant been taken off by an aſſaſſin, as has been related already. OLDENBARNEVELT, Penſioner of Amſterdam, one of the moſt intimate friends of the deceaſed Prince, by the great intereſt he had in the States, influenced them to chooſe his ſecond ſon Prince MAURICE, their Stadtholder in his room; his eldeſt ſon PHILIP-WILLIAM being rejected on account of his education in the Roman Catholick religion, and his adherence to the Spaniſh intereſt. For ſeveral years Prince MAURICE was governed by the councils of that wiſe Miniſter BARNEVELT; but the Prince's creatures inſpiring him afterwards with ambitious views, and repreſenting BARNEVELT as a perſon the moſt likely to defeat his deſigns upon the ſovereignty, he ever after looked upon him as an enemy: and as the power of the Stadtholder is much greater in time of war than peace, Prince MAURICE endeavoured to render the laſt treaty with Spain void, which BARNEVELT had taken the utmoſt pains to bring to a concluſion, and this ſtill increaſed their mutual animoſity. About the ſame time religious diſputes ran very high in Holland, which were firſt begun in the year 1608, by JACOB ARMINIUS and FRANCIS GOMAR, Profeſſors of divinity at Leyden: ARMINIUS aſſerting the doctrine of free-will, as GOMAR did that of predeſtination, and both of them maintaining their opinions with much zeal, ſcarce any other ſubjects were treated of, either in the ſchools or churches of the United Provinces. Whereupon the States appointed a conference to be held between ARMINIUS and GOMAR at the Hague, where after a long diſpute, they parted without coming to any concluſion. However, it appeared on this occaſion, that the Magiſtrates and principal Burghers generally ſided with ARMINIUS; and the clergy, the common people, and ſoldiery, who were in the intereſt of Prince MAURICE, took the part of GOMAR. ARMINIUS happening to die in the year 1609, his diſciples drew up an account of their tenets, and preſented it to the States General, wherein they ſtile themſelves *Remonſtrants*, which name they went by for ſome time afterwards; as their adverſaries did by that of *Contra Remonſtrants*. BARNEVELT, being in the intereſt of the Remonſtrants, prevailed with the Curators of the Univerſity of Leyden to elect VORSTIUS, a diſciple of ARMINIUS, Profeſſor of divinity, in the room of ARMINIUS; but he was no ſooner advanced to this dignity, than he was charged not only with Arminianiſm, but Socinianiſm, from a treatiſe he had before publiſhed, *of God*; but having been heard before the States, as to this charge, he was honourably acquitted: whereupon he printed his apology, dedicating it to the States of Holland; which happening to fall into the hands of JAMES I, King of Great Britain, he commanded his Ambaſſador at the Hague, Sir RALPH WINWOOD, to proteſt in a full aſſembly of the States againſt the doctrines contained therein, and all thoſe who ſhould protect ſuch hereſies; and ordered the book to be burnt in St. PAUL's Church-yard in London, and in the Univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge. The Engliſh Embaſſador having preſented a memorial on this ſubject to the States, they returned his Britiſh Majeſty an anſwer in writing; wherein they ſeemed to juſtify VORSTIUS, and uſed ſeveral expreſſions very much to his honour; aſſuring his Majeſty at the ſame time, that if he could be convicted of any of the points he was charged with, they would not ſuffer him to enjoy the profeſſorſhip. To which the King replied, That he would adviſe them with all poſſible ſpeed to rid themſelves of ſo dangerous and peſtilent a fellow, whoſe doctrines contained the moſt execrable blaſphemies; with many other ſevere expreſſions againſt the tenets of the Arminians or Remonſtrants: and the States of Holland finding his Britiſh Majeſty inflexible, commanded VORSTIUS to leave the city of Leyden, rather than incur his diſpleaſure. In the mean time the parties were ſo inraged againſt each other, that ſcarce any thing but opprobrious language was to be heard even in their churches, one miniſter inveighing in the afternoon againſt what another had taught in the morning; and calling each other Atheiſts, Hereticks, Schiſmaticks, &c. which created ſuch animoſities among their auditors, that tumults and riots frequently enſued as they went from church. Prince MAURICE, the Stadtholder, did not at firſt, it ſeems, publickly declare himſelf for either party; but obſerving his great adverſary BARNEVELT and the Republicans to take the ſide of the Arminians, in oppoſition to them, he at length eſpouſed the cauſe of the Gomariſts; charging BARNEVELT with being in the Spaniſh intereſt, and endeavouring to introduce popery and ſlavery again; and papers were daily printed and publiſhed to that effect, which obliged Barnevelt to publiſh anſwers to them, in vindication of his reputation; and the States of Holland hereupon prohibited the clergy to treat of the doctrine of predeſtination in their ſermons, which gave great offence to Prince Maurice.

About this time the Dutch ſent an embaſſy to King James, offering him part of the money due to the crown of England for the auxiliary troops lent the States in the reign of Queen Elizabeth; deſiring he would evacuate the cautionary towns, which remained in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, as a ſecurity for that money; and Barnevelt, the chief perſon in the embaſſy, managed the matter ſo dextrouſly, according to the Dutch writers, that the King was ſurprized into a promiſe of delivering them up. But the truth is, the King was in ill terms with his parliament, and could raiſe money no other way, which occaſioned his conſenting to that deſtructive bargain, by the concluſion whereof, the United Provinces were rendered independent of Britain, and made great rejoicings for it. But however this matter was brought about, it drew a laſting odium on the Engliſh miniſtry, who tranſacted it: and the Dutch tell us, that the King would never forgive Barnevelt for over-reaching him, and that this was the principal reaſon of his combining with Prince Maurice to ruin that great Miniſter.

The Arminians being ſupported by the magiſtracy in the towns of Holland, and the Gomariſts by Prince Maurice, no day ſcarce paſſed without ſome bickerings between them; but the mob being generally on the ſide of the Gomariſts, theſe in moſt tumults had the advantage; and proceeded ſo far as to attack a merchant's houſe at Amſterdam, where their adverſaries the Arminians were aſſembled for divine worſhip, and having diſperſed the congregation, plundred the houſe of all the moveables to a very great value. And now the Gomariſt Preachers in their ſermons began to call in queſtion the power of the Magiſtrates to intermeddle in religious matters: which obliged the States of Holland to publiſh a declaration, aſſerting their authority. The Gomariſts hereupon exaſperated to the higheſt degree, accuſed Barnevelt with having procured this act of State in favour of the Arminians, by his crafty inſinuations, to which eight Deputies of the cities only had conſented; and by the powerful influence of Prince Maurice, procured a judgment againſt this act of the States of Holland in an aſſembly of the States General. This being looked upon as a novelty, and directly contrary to their conſtitution; that the Repreſentatives of the States General ſhould take upon them to controul the acts of a Sovereign Province, which acknowledged no ſuperior, the States of Holland declared the ſaid judgment of the States General to be void; requiring the Magiſtrates of Amſterdam, and the reſt of the cities of Holland, to pay no manner of regard to it: they alſo ſtrengthened themſelves by levying new forces, who ſhould take an oath only to the States of their province. The ſame precautions were taken by ſeveral cities in the provinces of Utrecht and Overyſſel, where the Magiſtrates were Arminians. The Gomariſts of Amſterdam, and ſeveral other places, on the other hand, preferred petitions to the Magiſtrates againſt Barnevelt; deſiring they would aſſert the authority of Prince Maurice, which was invaded and violated by theſe new levies; and their example was followed by others. They were afterwards incited by their Preachers to deſire a national ſynod, to ſettle all diſputes concerning religion. In which, it ſeems, they were ſeconded by Dudley Carleton, the Engliſh Ambaſſador at the Hague, who made a florid ſpeech in the aſſembly of the States General, to induce them to call a national ſynod: to which the Arminians publiſhed an anſwer, but it was ſuppreſſed by the States. About this time the mob roſe at Leyden, and fell upon the new-raiſed troops, for not carrying the Prince's arms in their colours; and had driven them out of the city, if the Magiſtrates had not interpoſed; in which ſkirmiſh ſome hundreds were killed or wounded. On the other ſide, at Rotterdam, and ſome other cities, where the Arminians were moſt numerous, they forced the Gomariſt Preachers to abandon their churches. And as to a national ſynod, Grotius and the Arminian Doctors inſiſted, that as every province was an independent ſovereignty, the controverted points in religion ought to be determined by their reſpeetive provincial ſynods, convened by each particular State, and not by a national ſynod.

Things being come to extremes, Prince Maurice at the head of a great body of veteran troops, and attended by the Deputies of the States General, in the year 1618, marched through the provinces, diſperſing the new-raiſed forces, baniſhing the Arminian Preachers, and diſplacing the Magiſtrates of that perſuaſion; in whoſe ſtead he introduced his own creatures. In this manner he proceeded in the cities of Nimeguen and Zutphen, which had declared for the Arminians; and from thence he marched into the province of Overyſſel, where the city of Campen expreſſing a great zeal for the Arminians, he dragooned them into better manners, and reſtored the diſciples of John Calvin to their pulpits. The ſame he did at Arnheim ſoon after; which city pretending at firſt to ſtand upon it's defence, was betrayed into his hands by ſome of the Preſbyterian zealots within the walls; whereupon he depoſed and baniſhed ſuch of their Magiſtrates as were of a contrary perſuaſion. From hence he continued his march towards the city of Utrecht, which alſo ſtood upon it's defence; but his eldeſt brother Philip-William Prince of Orange, dying at this critical juncture, the citizens of Utrecht were delivered from their fears at this time; for Prince Maurice was obliged to return to the Hague to take order about the affairs of the deceaſed, who dying without iſſue, had left him the principality of Orange and the reſt of his large poſſeſſions.

Barnevelt, in the mean time, finding himſelf chiefly ſtruck at by the Gomariſts, in all their libels, publiſhed an apology, which he addreſſed to the States of Holland; in which he took the liberty of repreſenting the ſignal ſervices he had done the republick, in the ſeveral great ſtations he had been employed for many years, in a ſtile ſo natural and free from all foreign inſinuations, that it was evident they owed as much to his counſels and conduct, as to the Prince of Orange's ſword, for their preſervation; which had ſo powerful an influence on the States of Holland, that they openly took him into their protection. The Prince however having modelled the States General to his mind, by placing and diſplacing whom he ſaw fit, proceeded in his project of changing the magiſtrates and gariſons in every town, which was not of his party; and particularly in the city of

Briel in the province of Holland; at which the States of that province were greatly alarmed, and ſent to the Magiſtrates of all their cities for full powers to oppoſe the execution of the commiſſion granted by the States General to the Prince of Orange, for removing their magiſtrates and gariſons, and entered into a confederacy with the other provinces for their mutual defence; a copy of which inſtructions were diſpatched to Utrecht, and ſeveral other cities: but while Utrecht was deliberating on the affair, the Prince of Orange took advantage of ſome diviſions amongſt them, and advanced to their very gates, not giving them leiſure to prepare for their defence. And notwithſtanding ROODMOLD HOOGERBETS, Penſionary of Leyden, and GROTIUS, Penſionary of Rotterdam, who had been before diſpatched thither with MOETSBERG and Secretary LEDENBERG, and other Gentlemen of the province, did all that was in their power to animate the citizens and gariſon, they were ſo terrified by the approach of the Prince of Orange, that they thought fit to open their gates to him: whereupon he diſbanded the gariſon, depoſed the Arminian Magiſtrates, impriſoning ſome, and baniſhing others.

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The ſynod of Dort.

This famous ſynod being opened on the 13th of November, 1618, in the name of the States-General; after two ſermons preached, one in Dutch, and another in French, the Deputies of the foreign Divines were introduced into the aſſembly, and placed according to their rank, viz. firſt the Engliſh, next thoſe of the Palatinate, Heſſe, the Swiſs Cantons, Geneva, Bremen, and Embden, the reſt being not arrived. After which LYDIUS made a Latin ſpeech, and implored the aſſiſtance of the Holy Spirit in a long prayer. And MARTIN GREGORY, one of the council of the Duchy of Gueldres, and one of the Deputies of the States-General, began the firſt ſeſſion in the name of his maſters, by a ſpeech ſuitable to the occaſion. After which LYDIUS read the commiſſion of the States General, by virtue whereof eighteen Deputies of the States were appointed to aſſiſt at the ſynod; who choſe for their Secretary the celebrated DANIEL HEINSIUS, Profeſſor of hiſtory, and Library-keeper of the Univerſity of Leyden. At the ſecond ſeſſion, the Deputies of the reſpective provincial ſynods of the United Provinces preſenting their credentials, it appeared that there were not more than three Arminians among all the Deputies; ſuch effectual care had been taken to prevent their being elected in every provincce: and thoſe they excluded from their ſynod, ſummoning them, and ſeveral others of the ſame party, before them; whom they gave to underſtand, that they muſt not expect to be treated with by way of conference, but as ſuch as were ſummoned to appear before their Judges; and that therefore after they had propoſed their reaſons in defence of their tenets, they muſt withdraw. Whereupon the Arminians delivered in a long memorial, ſhewing, That they could not acknowledge this ſynod to be a legal aſſembly, as being compoſed of perſons who were both Parties and Judges, and entered a proteſt againſt all their proceedings. But an act of State was ſoon after procured from the States-General for their proceeding, notwithſtanding this proteſt; with an order, that the Arminians ſhould immediately enter upon their defence in writing, and ſhould be no more allowed to appear perſonally before that body. Thus they got rid of their Arminian brethren. But there happened afterwards very obſtinate diſputes between the Gomariſts and the Engliſh and other foreign Divines, about the merits and ſufferings of Chriſt; in which the foreigners were treated with that rudeneſs by the Dutch Clergy, that they left the ſynod, and were about to return home, if a deputation of the States had not come and promiſed them ſatisfaction, and prevailed with them to return to the aſſembly.

This ſynod having at length ſettled their canons, which related to the doctrines of predeſtination, election and reprobation, free-will, grace, perſeverance, &c. and condemned the errors of the Arminians, as they called them; their reſolutions were made a rule of faith in all the Calviniſt churches in Europe; for though the Repreſentatives of the French Hugonots, or of the electorate of Brandenburg, did not appear, yet the Elector promiſed their canons ſhould be ſigned by the Clergy under his juriſdiction; and PETER DU MOULIN, the chief of the Hugonot Miniſters in France, engaged that he and his brethren would do the like. And now the fathers of the Gomariſts began to debate what judgment they ſhould paſs upon the perſons of the Arminians; but the Engliſh, and the reſt of the foreign Divines, except thoſe of Geneva and Embden, deſired this might be waved, alledging, that they had no juriſdiction over the ſubjects of the United Provinces. The Dutch Clergy ſtill inſiſting, that they ſhould, at leaſt, be adjudged enemies to their country, and diſturbers of the publick peace; it was anſwered, that this did not belong to the eccleſiaſtical, but the civil juriſdiction: which produced ſome alteration in the intended ſentence. The Deputies of England, Heſſe, and Bremen, refuſed however to intermeddle in any thing relating to the perſons of the Arminians; judgment was therefore given without their concurrence, in the name of the ſynod and deputies of the States General; whereby all perſons were obliged publickly to renounce the Arminian tenets; and ſuch of the Arminian Preachers, as had been guilty of raiſing and fomenting thoſe diviſions in the church, eſpecially thoſe who refuſed to conform to their decrees, ſhould be depoſed from their miniſterial functions, and declared incapable of any eccleſiaſtical benefices or academical preferments; which ſentence was afterwards ratified by the States General: and the ſynod having thus finiſhed the buſineſs they were convened upon, were diſmiſſed, after they had ſat about ſix months. The States General ſoon after publiſhed a proclamation, to put the decrees and ſentence of the ſynod of Dort in execution; after which they proceeded to baniſh ſome of the Arminian Preachers, and impriſoned others, confiſcating their eſtates. The party of the Arminians being thus depreſſed, the Prince of Orange proceeded next to finiſh the deſtruction of BARNEVELT, and the other priſoners of ſtate, who, according to the conſtitution of the United Provinces, could only have been tried in their proper province; but the Prince, by his intereſt, procured twenty-ſix Judges to be appointed by the States General, all perſons devoted to his ſervice; who paſſed ſentence of death on BARNEVELT, for having, as it was alledged, adviſed a toleration of the Arminians, and occaſioned many diſturbances in the church; by aſſerting, that, according to the laws, each province had a right to judge and regulate points of religion in their reſpective juriſdictions, without the interpoſition of any or all the other provinces. The French Ambaſſador having notice of the ſentence, deſired inſtantly an audience of the States, who excuſing their refuſal on pretence of the unreaſonableneſs of the time, he ſent them a letter, conjuring them in the name of his Maſter the French King, not to ſhorten the days of ſo ancient a Miniſter, who had ſpent his life in their ſervice; but the influence of the Prince of Orange prevailing, BARNEVELT was beheaded the next day in the court of the Hague, over-againſt the Prince's apartment, who came to be the ſpectator of a tragedy, of which he had been the principal contriver; for which he was ſeverely cenſured, even by his friends. BARNEVELT ſaid little more at his execution, but "that he did not die as a traytor, but as a "true patriot, for having aſſerted the rights and "liberties of his native country." And the people expreſſing a more than ordinary concern for this noble ſufferer, the Prince of Orange did not think fit to proceed with the ſame ſeverity againſt HOOGEBERT and GROTIUS, who were only condemned to perpetual impriſonment; and the ſentence of MOERBERG, Counſellor of Utrecht, was ſtill milder, being only confined to his country-houſe. GROTIUS afterwards made his eſcape out of the caſtle where he was confined, by the aſſiſtance of his wife. It ſeems he had obtained leave for a great trunk of books to be brought to him, which he ſent backwards and forwards ſeveral times for near a twelvemonth; it was at firſt very diligently ſearched by the guards, but finding nothing but books or linen, they did not afterwards trouble themſelves to look into it as it paſſed; whereupon his wife perſuaded him to let her lock him into the trunk, and endeavour to make his eſcape; and he was accordingly carried off without any ſuſpicion to Gorcum, from whence he got to Antwerp, and afterwards to Paris; where he was highly careſſed by the French King, and allowed a penſion of a thouſand crowns per ann. His lady, who was left behind in his apartment, lay upon the bed in her huſband's night-grown and cap, pretending he was ill, whereby ſhe prevented any enquiry after him for ſeveral days, for which ſhe was in ſome danger of being condemned to perpetual impriſonment; but was at length by a majority of her Judges honourably diſcharged, and followed her huſband into France, where many other Arminians met with a kind reception, and were allowed liberty of conſcience.

Barnevelt beheaded.

Grotius, &c. condemned to perpetual impriſonment.

Eſcapes to Paris.

Briel in the province of Holland; at which the States of that province were greatly alarmed, and ſent to the Magiſtrates of all their cities for full powers to oppoſe the execution of the commiſſion granted by the States General to the Prince of Orange, for removing their magiſtrates and gariſons, and entered into a confederacy with the other provinces for their mutual defence; a copy of which inſtructions were diſpatched to Utrecht, and ſeveral other cities: but while Utrecht was deliberating on the affair, the Prince of Orange took advantage of ſome diviſions amongſt them, and advanced to their very gates, not giving them leiſure to prepare for their defence. And notwithſtanding ROODMOLD HOOGERBETS, Penſionary of Leyden, and GROTIUS, Penſionary of Rotterdam, who had been before diſpatched thither with MOETSBERG and Secretary LEDENBERG, and other Gentlemen of the province, did all that was in their power to animate the citizens and gariſon, they were ſo terrified by the approach of the Prince of Orange, that they thought fit to open their gates to him: whereupon he diſbanded the gariſon, depoſed the Arminian Magiſtrates, impriſoning ſome, and baniſhing others.

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The King of France on this occaſion ſent to the Hague the Sieur DE BOISSISE, Counſellor of State, who had ſignalized, himſelf in many embaſſies, to endeavour in conjunction with Monſieur MAURIER, his ordinary Ambaſſador there, to procure a reconciliation of theſe differences; but the Prince of Orange found means to render this application of no effect, and proceeded without oppoſition to diſplace the Magiſtrates of the reſt of the towns in Holland, which were not of his party. In Rotterdam, where the Arminians were moſt powerful, he left a gariſon of twelve hundred men, and took from them one of their three churches in that city, and gave it to the Gomariſts. This was followed by the baniſhment of VORSTIUS, PETER BERTIUS, and others, the moſt conſiderable Arminian Preachers; and amongſt the reſt of JOHN WYTENBOGART, a perſon highly eſteemed for his exemplary life and moderation, as well as for his moving eloquence; which could not however exempt him from this fate, on his adhering to a party oppoſite to that of the Prince, by whom he was highly careſſed till then.

The States of Holland hereupon publiſhed a manifeſto, demanding the releaſe of BARNEVELT, HOOGERBETS, and GROTIUS, but to no purpoſe; and LEDENBERG of Utrecht expecting no quarter, (the States of his province having already ſubmitted to the Prince) laid violent hands upon himſelf in priſon, and thereby prevented a publick execution. The French King being much concerned at theſe violent proceedings, eſpecially againſt BARNEVELT, renewed his inſtances in the priſoners behalf; but the King of England joining with Prince MAURICE againſt them, rendered all efforts to ſave them abortive. And now moſt of thoſe who had oppoſed the calling of a national ſynod being impriſoned or baniſhed, a day was appointed for aſſembling a convocation of the clergy of the United Provinces at Dort; and that it might have the face of a general council, they invited the Divines of all the Reformed churches in Europe to ſend their Deputies thither; ordering provincial ſynods to be held in each province in the mean time, to agree upon points to be propoſed in the national ſynod, and to appoint Deputies to repreſent them there. The Arminian party obſerving what unfair practices were uſed in the provincial ſynods to exclude them from the national ſynod, ſo that there were like to be ten to one againſt them in that council, they proteſted againſt the ſame, and every thing that ſhould be tranſacted there, as illegal and void in itſelf; which ſo exaſperated the Gomariſts, that by the influence of the Prince of Orange, they procured the baniſhment of many more Arminian Preachers, under pretence of Immorality or Socinianiſm. And the States-General having diſpatched their letters to the King of Great Britain, the French Hugonots, the Electors Palatine and Brandenburg, the Prince of Heſſe, and ſeveral other German Princes, as alſo to the Swiſs Cantons, Geneva, &c. to invite their reſpective Deputies to the national ſynod; they repaired thither from all theſe places, except the Brandenburgers and French Hugonots: the latter by the articles of pacification granted them by King HENRY IV, being obliged not to ſend their Miniſters to aſſiſt at any foreign ſynod, the Dutch Ambaſſador could not obtain permiſſion of the French King for their repairing to Dort; but the chief reaſon is ſuppoſed to be, becauſe the French court had eſpouſed the cauſe of BARNEVELT and the Arminians.

The ſynod of Dort.

This famous ſynod being opened on the 13th of November, 1618, in the name of the States-General; after two ſermons preached, one in Dutch, and another in French, the Deputies of the foreign Divines were introduced into the aſſembly, and placed according to their rank, viz. firſt the Engliſh, next thoſe of the Palatinate, Heſſe, the Swiſs Cantons, Geneva, Bremen, and Embden, the reſt being not arrived. After which LYDIUS made a Latin ſpeech, and implored the aſſiſtance of the Holy Spirit in a long prayer. And MARTIN GREGORY, one of the council of the Duchy of Gueldres, and one of the Deputies of the States-General, began the firſt ſeſſion in the name of his maſters, by a ſpeech ſuitable to the occaſion. After which LYDIUS read the commiſſion of the States General, by virtue whereof eighteen Deputies of the States were appointed to aſſiſt at the ſynod; who choſe for their Secretary the celebrated DANIEL HEINSIUS, Profeſſor of hiſtory, and Library-keeper of the Univerſity of Leyden. At the ſecond ſeſſion, the Deputies of the reſpective provincial ſynods of the United Provinces preſenting their credentials, it appeared that there were not more than three Arminians among all the Deputies; ſuch effectual care had been taken to prevent their being elected in every provincce: and thoſe they excluded from their ſynod, ſummoning them, and ſeveral others of the ſame party, before them; whom they gave to underſtand, that they muſt not expect to be treated with by way of conference, but as ſuch as were ſummoned to appear before their Judges; and that therefore after they had propoſed their reaſons in defence of their tenets, they muſt withdraw. Whereupon the Arminians delivered in a long memorial, ſhewing, That they could not acknowledge this ſynod to be a legal aſſembly, as being compoſed of perſons who were both Parties and Judges, and entered a proteſt againſt all their proceedings. But an act of State was ſoon after procured from the States-General for their proceeding, notwithſtanding this proteſt; with an order, that the Arminians ſhould immediately enter upon their defence in writing, and ſhould be no more allowed to appear perſonally before that body. Thus they got rid of their Arminian brethren. But there happened afterwards very obſtinate diſputes between the Gomariſts and the Engliſh and other foreign Divines, about the merits and ſufferings of Chriſt; in which the foreigners were treated with that rudeneſs by the Dutch Clergy, that they left the ſynod, and were about to return home, if a deputation of the States had not come and promiſed them ſatisfaction, and prevailed with them to return to the aſſembly.

This ſynod having at length ſettled their canons, which related to the doctrines of predeſtination, election and reprobation, free-will, grace, perſeverance, &c. and condemned the errors of the Arminians, as they called them; their reſolutions were made a rule of faith in all the Calviniſt churches in Europe; for though the Repreſentatives of the French Hugonots, or of the electorate of Brandenburg, did not appear, yet the Elector promiſed their canons ſhould be ſigned by the Clergy under his juriſdiction; and PETER DU MOULIN, the chief of the Hugonot Miniſters in France, engaged that he and his brethren would do the like. And now the fathers of the Gomariſts began to debate what judgment they ſhould paſs upon the perſons of the Arminians; but the Engliſh, and the reſt of the foreign Divines, except thoſe of Geneva and Embden, deſired this might be waved, alledging, that they had no juriſdiction over the ſubjects of the United Provinces. The Dutch Clergy ſtill inſiſting, that they ſhould, at leaſt, be adjudged enemies to their country, and diſturbers of the publick peace; it was anſwered, that this did not belong to the eccleſiaſtical, but the civil juriſdiction: which produced ſome alteration in the intended ſentence. The Deputies of England, Heſſe, and Bremen, refuſed however to intermeddle in any thing relating to the perſons of the Arminians; judgment was therefore given without their concurrence, in the name of the ſynod and deputies of the States General; whereby all perſons were obliged publickly to renounce the Arminian tenets; and ſuch of the Arminian Preachers, as had been guilty of raiſing and fomenting theſe diviſions in the church, eſpecially thoſe who refuſed to conform to their decrees, ſhould be depoſed from their miniſterial functions, and declared incapable of any eccleſiaſtical benefices or academical preferments; which ſentence was afterwards ratified by the States General: and the ſynod having thus finiſhed the buſineſs they were convened upon, were diſmiſſed, after they had ſat about ſix months. The States General ſoon after publiſhed a proclamation, to put the decrees and ſentence of the ſynod of Dort in execution; after which they proceeded to baniſh ſome of the Arminian Preachers, and impriſoned others, confiſcating their eſtates. The party of the Arminians being thus depreſſed, the Prince of Orange proceeded next to finiſh the deſtruction of BARNEVELT, and the other priſoners of ſtate, who, according to the conſtitution of the United Provinces, could only have been tried in their proper province; but the Prince, by his intereſt, procured twenty-ſix Judges to be appointed by the States General, all perſons devoted to his ſervice; who paſſed ſentence of death on BARNEVELT, for having, as it was alledged, adviſed a toleration of the Arminians, and occaſioned many diſturbances in the church; by aſſerting, that, according to the laws, each province had a right to judge and regulate points of religion in their reſpective juriſdictions, without the interpoſition of any or all the other provinces. The French Ambaſſador having notice of the ſentence, deſired inſtantly an audience of the States, who excuſing their refuſal on pretence of the unreaſonableneſs of the time, he ſent them a letter, conjuring them in the name of his Maſter the French King, not to ſhorten the days of ſo ancient a Miniſter, who had ſpent his life in their ſervice; but the influence of the Prince of Orange prevailing, BARNEVELT was beheaded the next day in the court of the Hague, over-againſt the Prince's apartment, who came to be the ſpectator of a tragedy, of which he had been the principal contriver; for which he was ſeverely cenſured, even by his friends. BARNEVELT ſaid little more at his execution, but "that he did not die as a traytor, but as a "true patriot, for having aſſerted the rights and "liberties of his native country." And the people expreſſing a more than ordinary concern for this noble ſufferer, the Prince of Orange did not think fit to proceed with the ſame ſeverity againſt HOOGEBERT and GROTIUS, who were only condemned to perpetual impriſonment; and the ſentence of MOERBERG, Counſellor of Utrecht, was ſtill milder, being only confined to his country-houſe. GROTIUS afterwards made his eſcape out of the caſtle where he was confined, by the aſſiſtance of his wife. It ſeems he had obtained leave for a great trunk of books to be brought to him, which he ſent backwards and forwards ſeveral times for near a twelvemonth; it was at firſt very diligently ſearched by the guards, but finding nothing but books or linen, they did not afterwards trouble themſelves to look into it as it paſſed; whereupon his wife perſuaded him to let her lock him into the trunk, and endeavour to make his eſcape; and he was accordingly carried off without any ſuſpicion to Gorcum, from whence he got to Antwerp, and afterwards to Paris; where he was highly careſſed by the French King, and allowed a penſion of a thouſand crowns per ann. His lady, who was left behind in his apartment, lay upon the bed in her huſband's night-grown and cap, pretending he was ill, whereby ſhe prevented any enquiry after him for ſeveral days, for which ſhe was in ſome danger of being condemned to perpetual impriſonment; but was at length by a majority of her Judges honourably diſcharged, and followed her huſband into France, where many other Arminians met with a kind reception, and were allowed liberty of conſcience.

Barnevelt beheaded.

Grotius, &c. condemned to perpetual impriſonment.

Eſcapes to Paris.

The Eaſt-India company.

As to the conqueſts of the Dutch in the Eaſt-Indies, and their monopolizing the ſpices of the eaſt, by diſpoſſeſſing the Spaniards, Portugueſe, and Engliſh, of their dominions and ſettlements in that part of the world, between the years 1600 and 1640, theſe tranſactions have been treated of at large in the former volume of this hiſtory, when the ſtate of India was treated of.

Weſt-India company.

But it is neceſſary here to enquire into the original and progreſs of their Weſt-India company, which we find as well as the former was projected by that great ſtateſman BARNEVELT, though their firſt patent did not bear date, however, 'till two years after his death, in the year 1621, when they were impowered by the States to plant colonies, erect forts, make alliances, and appoint governors and officers on the continent and iſlands of America, within the limits preſcribed them. And a ſtock of ſeven millions two hundred thouſand livres was raiſed towards their eſtabliſhment. In purſuance of their deſign they fitted out two ſquadrons, one to drive the Portugueſe out of Brazil, and the other to attack the Spaniſh ſettlements in Peru, and took ſo many prizes in their firſt expedition, that they were enabled to make a dividend of five and twenty per cent. on their firſt expedition, anno 1623. In the year 1624, the Dutch Admiral HERMITE defeated a fleet of Spaniards on the coaſt of Peru, and took ſeveral rich prizes; and his countryman Admiral WILKINS made himſelf maſter of the city of St. SALVADOR the ſame year, bringing home the Viceroy, the Biſhop, and ſeveral grandees of Portugal priſoners to Holland, and left JOHN VAN DORT governor of St. SALVADOR, and the territories belonging to it, for the Dutch Weſt-India company; but the Portugueſe retook the city the year following and cleared the country of Hollanders. The Dutch Admiral PETER ADRIAN, however, in the year 1628, engaged another Spaniſh ſquadron, near the iſland of Cuba; and having forced moſt of them on ſhore, took out all the plate and merchandize, and ſet fire to the ſhips, returning laden with the ſpoils of the enemy to Holland. The Spaniſh plate-fleet alſo fell into the hands of PETER HEYN, another of the Dutch Admirals, and were all taken by him, the cargo amounting to ſeven millions two hundred thouſand livres in ſilver, and three millions ſix hundred thouſand livres in merchandize, and the ſhipping and artillery were valued at four millions more. On this flow of ſucceſs the company divided no leſs than fifty per cent. which was at that time looked upon to be very imprudent by ſome, conſidering they were not then maſters of any conſiderable ſettlement in America, and were engaged in a chargeable war with Spain. In the year 1630, the Dutch equipped a large fleet for Brazil, and made themſelves maſters of the province of Fernambuque, with the capital city of Olinda. They afterwards extended their conqueſts over the neighbouring provinces of Tamarica, Pareiba and Rio Grande; and in expectation of conquering the other eight provinces ſtill in poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe, they conferred the dignity of General of Brazil, and the ſouth coaſt of America, on JOHN MAURICE of Naſſau, nearly related to the Prince of Orange, with the ſame powers as are exerciſed by the General of the Eaſt-Indies at Batavia. Count MAURICE arrived at Brazil on the 23d of January, 1637, with a fleet of thirty two ſhips and a body of land-forces; and advancing further into the Portugueſe ſettlements, took the fortreſs of Pavaccaon; and having intelligence that the Portugueſe forts on the coaſt of Africk were but in a weak condition, he detached part of the fleet thither, who made themſelves maſters of the town and caſtle of St. GEORGE de la Mina, and many other places. The Portugueſe having ſhaken off the Spaniſh yoke, and advanced the Duke of Braganza, the heir of their ancient Kings, to the throne in the year 1640; a truce was the following year concluded between the Dutch and Portugueſe, whereby a liberty of trade was allowed to both parties; and each poſſeſſed what they were maſters of in Brazil and Africk: and for two or three years the truce was tolerably well obſerved; but Count MAURICE, the Dutch General, returning from Brazil into Holland in the year 1644, the Portugueſe, who were ſettled in the Dutch Brazil, entered into a conſpiracy with their countrymen in the provinces ſtill ſubject to the Portugueſe, to extirpate all the Dutch out of Brazil, to which they were provoked by the hoſtilities committed by the Hollanders in Brazil after the truce, and by their Eaſt-India company's falling upon their ſettlements in India. And tho' the conſpiracy was timely diſcovered, yet it occaſioned the war to break out afreſh between the two nations in Brazil and Africk, as well as in the Eaſt-Indies, which ended in the entire expulſion of the Dutch from Brazil, and was fatal to their Weſt-India company; but the acquiſitions of the Hollanders in the Eaſt-Indies, and on the coaſt of Africk, made them ample amends for their loſſes in America, they alſo made a diſcovery of a vaſt tract of land to the ſouthward of the Equinoctial in the Eaſt-Indies, extending from the tenth to the thirty-third degree of ſouth latitude, to which they gave the name of New Holland; but what the country produces, and whether peopled or not, they have kept in a great meaſure concealed to this day; ſome random accounts we have received indeed of a barbarous people that have been ſeen on thoſe coaſts; but the country is generally repreſented by the Dutch, as yielding ſcarce any thing worth their notice: the true reaſon whereof probably is, leſt other nations ſhould be tempted to ſettle there, who might interrupt their ſpice trade, and perhaps come in for a ſhare of it. And the reaſon the Hollanders do not ſend any colonies thither, or endeavour to make ſettlements on that continent themſelves, is certainly becauſe they are already poſſeſſed of a greater extent of country in India, than they know how to govern or preſerve; but it is ſurprizing to all mankind that the Engliſh do not ſend ſhips to make diſcoveries on that ſide, and endeavour to find out other places where cloves and nutmegs may be planted and cultivated, if they do not think fit to endeavour the recovery of thoſe rich iſlands of Banda and the Moluccoes, which the Dutch treacherouſly and barbarouſly deprived them of, and ſtill detain, notwithſtanding ſeveral ſolemn treaties wherein they ſtipulated to deliver them up. I have already given an account of the attempts of the Dutch as well as the Engliſh to find out a north-eaſt and north-weſt paſſage to the Indies, in which they met with no manner of ſucceſs, and return therefore now to a continuation of the hiſtory of the Hollanders nearer home, from the time of the truce with Spain.

The Dutch fix themſelves in Brazil.

The Dutch driven out of Brazil.

Their diſcovery in New Holland.

Tranſactions of the Dutch in Europe after the truce with Spain.

The Dutch had no ſooner concluded a truce with Spain, but they began to make ſome other Princes of Europe ſenſible of their power; they perfectly bullied the Engliſh and Danes out of the whale-fiſhery, compelled the Danes to lower the duties for paſſing the Sound, took the part of the Elector of Brandenburg againſt the Duke of Newburg in their conteſt concerning the ſucceſſion of the duchy of Juliers, &c. and took ſeveral towns from the Duke, though aſſiſted by Spain; intereſting themſelves in the quarrels of ſeveral other Princes: and about the year 1619, the Proteſtants of Bohemia and the Catholicks of that kingdom taking arms againſt each other, the Dutch encouraged the Proteſtant party to form themſelves into a commonwealth; but the Bohemians making choice of the Elector Palatine for their King, the Prince of Orange ſent a body of troops into the Palatinate to his aſſiſtance, looking upon the eſtabliſhment of his kinſman the Elector on the throne of Bohemia, as a conſiderable ſtep towards the attaining the ſovereignty of the Netherlands he had ſo long aimed at; but the Emperor Ferdinand obtaining a victory over the Elector Palatine at Prague, and thereby recovering the crown of Bohemia; the Palatine was driven alſo out of his own hereditary dominions in Germany, and forced to retire into Holland. And from this time, it is ſaid, the Prince of Orange began to deſpair of obtaining the dominion of the United Provinces; an event, it ſeems, which was not to be compaſſed without foreign aſſiſtance, notwithſtanding his being poſſeſſed of the affections of the people, and having an army of Veterans under his command. The Dutch ſeemed very averſe towards the making this alteration in their conſtitution, when the Prince of Orange begun to diſcover his intention of rendring himſelf abſolute; inſomuch, that when he came into any of their cities, he was not received with the uſual ceremonies and acclamations of the people, as formerly; and particularly as he went through the market-place of Gorcum, where crouds of people were aſſembled, not ſo much as one perſon moved his hat to him; which ſome imagine he took to heart, and obſerve that he was ever penſive and melancholly afterwards to his dying day.

A plot againſt the Prince.

The truce with Spain expiring, the war between the United Provinces and the Spaniſh Netherlands was revived and carried on with various ſucceſs, during which a plot was diſcovered againſt the life of Maurice Prince of Orange, which was managed chiefly by William of Olden Barnevelt, youngeſt ſon of the famous Penſioner Barnevelt above-mentioned, formerly governor of Bergenopzoom, a man of a reſolute temper, who was determined to revenge his father's death upon the Prince of Orange; and drew ſeveral perſons into the conſpiracy, eſpecially Arminians, under pretence of recovering their ancient liberties by this means, which he ſuggeſted had been notoriouſly invaded of late years in the execution of his father, and the heads of their party, and impriſoning and baniſhing others without any colour of law. Monſ. Groenveld, the eldeſt ſon of Penſioner Barnevelt, was alſo earneſtly ſollicited by his brother to be concerned in the plot; but he refuſed, and diſſuaded him from it, which could not however prevent Groenveld's ruin. The deſign, it ſeems, was to have aſſaſſinated the Prince on the road between the Hague and Ryſwick, whither he often uſed to go in the company of a very few perſons; and ſeveral people were lodged at inns who were to be actors in this tragedy, but without arms, to avoid ſuſpicion; and a ſmall cheſt of arms was ordered to be carried to a certain place, where they were to take them at the time of the intended aſſaſſination: but one of the conſpirators having imprudently offered a piece of gold to a porter to carry the cheſt to the place deſigned, raiſed a ſuſpicion in the fellow; and four ſeamen about the ſame time diſcovering to the Prince of Orange that they underſtood there was a deſign againſt his life, though they could not give any particular account of the ſcheme that was laid to take him off, the Prince returned immediately to the Hague, and the news of the plot coming to be buzzed about, the porter who had the cheſt imagining it contained ſomething extraordinary, carried it to a magiſtrate, who upon the opening of it found ſeveral pair of piſtols, poniards, &c. and four perſons being alſo found at an inn where the cheſt was to have been delivered, who could give no ſatisfactory account of themſelves, being ſtrictly examined confeſſed the whole matter, and diſcovered their accomplices: whereupon the conſpirators were ſoon after apprehended, tried and executed, and amongſt them Groenveld the eldeſt ſon of the Penſioner Barnevelt, and ſeveral others for not diſcovering the plot, tho' it appeared Groenveld diſſuaded the conſpirators from the attempt. And as moſt of the criminals were Arminians, this gave occaſion to their enemies to throw the plot upon the whole party, and raiſed a freſh perſecution againſt them, eſpecially againſt their Miniſters, thoſe of them who remained in the country being either impriſoned or baniſhed: whereupon ſeveral able pens were drawn in defence of the Arminian cauſe, and among the reſt, that of the celebrated Grotius, who endeavoured to expoſe the practices of the Synod of Dort, and the illegal ſentence of the judges who condemned Olden Barnevelt to death; which treatiſe was cenſured by the States, and a great ſum of money offered to any one who would bring the head of Grotius alive or dead; but he being under the protection of Lewis XIII, deſpiſed their menaces. Theſe ſevere proceedings, however, occaſioned great murmurings in Holland, eſpecially at Rotterdam, and other towns, where the States found themſelves obliged to keep ſtrong gariſons to prevent inſurrections. At the ſame time the State was engaged in a deſperate war with the Spaniards and Imperialiſts, and had they not been ſupported both by the French and Engliſh with forces and treaſure, their country would have been in great danger of falling under the power of the Spaniard again. The year 1625 was fatal both to their ally King James I, and their Stadtholder Maurice Prince of Orange; the firſt of them died on the 27th of March, and the latter on the 23d of April, in the 58th year of his age, and was buried at Delf, near his father Prince William. He is generally eſteemed a great ſoldier, and the beſt engineer of his age; but this excellency lay in managing a defenſive rather than an offenſive war. He does not ſeem to me to be of a very enterpriſing genius. The great ſucceſſes the Dutch met with during his Stadtholderſhip were at ſea, and in the Eaſt-Indies, to which they are much more indebted to the adminiſtration of Olden Barnevelt, and to their Admirals, than to him.

The death of Prince Maurice.

Succeeded by his brother Frederick-Henry.

Upon the death of Prince Maurice the five provinces of Gueldres, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, and Overyſſel, choſe his brother Frederick-Henry their Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral, and each of them alſo declared him their particular Governor; but the province of Groningen choſe Count Ernest Caſimir of

Naſſau, (who was before Stadtholder of Frieſland, and Lieutenant to Prince MAURICE in Groningen) their Stadtholder.

Prince FREDERICK-HENRY I, who became Prince of Orange on the death of his brother; by which title I ſhall therefore generally ſpeak of him for the future; hoping to ſignalize himſelf at the entrance of his government, made an attempt to relieve Breda, at that time beſieged by the Spaniards, but did not ſucceed, and was forced to be a witneſs of the ſurrender of that important place in June following.

The Arminians, who had been long oppreſſed by the oppoſite faction, found ſome eaſe under the adminiſtration of the new Prince of Orange, who upon ſeveral occaſions gave evident proofs of his inclinations towards them; however, leſt he ſhould diſoblige the States General, he did not think fit to do any thing further for them at this juncture, than to put a ſtop to the perſecution of them, and declare himſelf favourably in reſpect of GROTIUS, then at Paris. But the Kings of Sweden and Denmark, it ſeems, about this time invited the Arminians to ſettle in their reſpective dominions. Thoſe who went to Sweden generally fixed themſelves at Gottenburg near the Sound, as thoſe who were invited to Denmark did at Gluckſtat near the mouth of the Elbe; but none gave them greater encouragement than FREDERICK Duke of Holſtein, who ſome years before aſſigned them a large tract of land on the banks of the river Eyder, where they founded a city, to which they gave the name of Frederickſtadt, in memory of their great benefactor; and the Duke conferred on them the privilege of chooſing their own Magiſtrates, and many other immunities.

Groll taken by the Dutch.

In the year 1627, the Prince of Orange took the city of Groll, ſituate on the confines of Zutphen and the biſhoprick of Munſter, from whence the Spaniards uſed to levy large contributions out of the provinces of Overyſſel, Groningen and Gueldres; but the conqueſt of this place rendered the Dutch ſecure on that ſide.

The inteſtine diviſions between the Gomariſts and Arminians were not yet entirely quieted, for the common people of Amſterdam raiſed an inſurrection againſt the Magiſtrates under pretence of their being Arminians, notwithſtanding they conformed outwardly with their eſtabliſhed Preſbyterian church; but the Prince of Orange prevailed with the States General to ſend a body of forces to ſuppreſs the tumult, and make an act of State, that the people ſhould pay obedience to their Magiſtrates without regard to their opinions in religious matters. In the year 1629 the Prince of Orange, with the aſſiſtance of the French and Engliſh, beſieged and took Hertogenboſch or *Boiſleduc*, one of the moſt remarkable cities on the confines of Brabant, notwithſtanding the utmoſt efforts of the Spaniards and Imperialiſts for it's preſervation. This ſucceſs of the Prince of Orange had ſuch an influence on the States, that in the year 1631 they declared his Son WILLIAM, then about five years of age, ſucceſſor to him in all his offices and dignities; and the ſame year the States entered into an alliance with the famous GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, King of Sweden, againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and the Roman catholick party in Germany. In the year 1632, the Prince of Orange took Venlo and Ruremond in Guelderland, from the Spaniards; in the ſiege of which laſt place, Count ERNEST CASIMIR, Stadtholder of Frieſland, was killed by a muſket-ball; and the States General, in gratitude for the ſervices done by his father, declared his ſon HENRY-ERNEST hereditary Stadtholder of the provinces of Frieſland and Groningen. The ſame year the Prince of Orange took the large and ſtrong city of Maeſtricht, ſituate on the Maes, in the biſhoprick of Liege, but belonging to Brabant, after an obſtinate ſiege of two months and upwards, during which time the Spaniards and Imperialiſts often attempted to relieve it; and the loſs of this place was followed by that of Limburg and Orſoy before the end of the campaign. The next year, 1633, he reduced the fortreſs of Rhineberg, ſituate on the Rhine between Weſel and Orſoy; and ſoon after Fort Philip near Sas van Ghent in Flanders: but the Spaniards making great preparations for the retaking theſe places, the Dutch entered into an offenſive alliance with the French in the year 1634, wherein they made a partition of the Spaniſh Netherlands (when they ſhould be conquered,) and it was agreed, that the provinces of Luxemburg, Namur, Hainault, Cambray, and moſt part of Artois, ſhould belong to the French; and the reſidue of the Spaniſh Netherlands to the Dutch. The French King ſoon after commanded the Marſhal CHATILLON, brother-in-law to Cardinal RICHLIEU, to join the Prince of Orange in Brabant with twenty thouſand foot and ſeven thouſand horſe; and the Spaniards marching to prevent this conjunction, were defeated by the French near the village of Avein in Luxemburg. CHATILLON afterwards continuing his march towards Maeſtricht, there joined the army of the States, forming together a body of fifty thouſand men, of whom the Prince of Orange was Generaliſſimo by the treaty; but the Dutch on ſecond thoughts being jealous that if the French ſhould once become their next neighbours, by being poſſeſſed of that part of the Spaniſh Netherlands above-mentioned, their ſtate would be in a more dangerous condition from them than it was at preſent from the Spaniard; and the Prince of Orange at the ſame time entertaining a particular pique againſt Cardinal RICHLIEU, the prime Miniſter at the court of France, on account of his endeavouring to ſurprize the city of Orange; this alliance with France came to nothing: for the Prince of Orange declined entering upon any conſiderable action this campaign, and by marches and countermarches, and want of neceſſary proviſions, ſo haraſſed and diſtreſſed the French troops, that of a gallant army of near thirty thouſand men which came out of France into the Netherlands, ſcarce four thouſand returned, though there had not been any conſiderable enterprize undertaken. Notwithſtanding which, Cardinal RICHLIEU finding himſelf ſurrounded with abundance of domeſtick enemies, and ſtanding in need of the alliance of the States-General, was obliged to ſtifle his reſentments, and enter into a new treaty with the Dutch, whereby he ſtipulated to pay them two millions of livres per annum, and fifteen hundred thouſand more towards the charges of the next campaign; and in order to regain the good opinion of the Prince of Orange, he ordered the French Embaſſador at the Hague to give him the title of his Highneſs whenever he addreſſed himſelf to him, which the Prince and his poſterity ever after retained, having before no other title than that of his Excellency. And thus a good harmony being eſtabliſhed between the Cardinal and the Prince, preparations

Boiſleduc taken by the Dutch.

Venlo and Ruremond taken.

Maeſtricht taken.

Limburg Orſoy, and Rhineberg taken by the Dutch.

Alliance between the French and the Dutch.

Breda retaken by the Dutch, and Venlo and Ruremond by the Spaniards.

Victory of the Dutch over the Spaniſh Armada in the Downs.

preparations were made for a vigorous campaign, anno 1637, in which the Prince of Orange retook the city of Breda; but on the other hand the Spaniards made themſelves maſters of Venlo and Ruremond again. The year 1638 proved diſadvantageous to the Dutch, who had the worſt of it in ſeveral engagements, but there happened no deciſive battle. In the following year 1639, their ſucceſſes againſt the Spaniſh Armada, which they deſtroyed upon the coaſt of England, is almoſt incredible. The Spaniards, it ſeems, at the inſtance of the Emperor FERDINAND III, had agreed to fit out a powerful fleet of men of war, to join the Danes againſt the Swedes, whereby they hoped to make a conſiderable diverſion, and thereby compel the Swedes to withdraw their forces out of the Empire, which they had long haraſſed; but firſt the Spaniards propoſed to touch on the coaſt of Zealand, to give ſome countenance to their forces in the Netherlands. Accordingly the Spaniſh Admiral Don ANTONIO DE OQUENDO ſailed from the Groine with ſixty-ſeven men of war, and twenty thouſand men, in the month of July, and was to be joined by fourteen ſail more from Dunkirk; of which the Dutch having received intelligence, and imagining by the extraordinary preparations that were making at Dunkirk, that the chief deſign of the Spaniards was againſt their coaſts, they ordered Vice-Admiral TROMP to obſerve their motions, who fell in with one of their ſquadrons ſeparated from the reſt near Dunkirk, on the ſixteenth of September at night, which he engaged with that fury that he entirely diſperſed them; but the Spaniſh Admiral bearing down to their aſſiſtance the next morning, boarded the Dutch Admiral, where he was ſo warmly received, that he was glad to quit him again, and being purſued by TROMP, was ſunk with a thouſand men on board, after which the fleets were parted by a fog: but the Dutch being joined by eleven men of war the ſame evening, fell upon the Spaniards again at midnight, and compelled them to fly to the Downs on the Engliſh coaſt, where then lay thirty Engliſh men of war, who took the Spaniſh fleet into their protection, there being at that time an alliance between the Kings of Great Britain and Spain, of which TROMP complained to the Britiſh court; whereupon King CHARLES I, who was at this time engaged in a war with his Scotiſh ſubjects, who had broke out into rebellion, and having reaſon to expect an inſurrection in England, determined not to break with the States, but ordered his Admiral to forbear all hoſtilities againſt the Dutch.

TROMP afterwards receiving a powerful reinforcement, reſolved to attack the Spaniards again, and even the Engliſh, it is ſaid, if they perſiſted in protecting the enemy in the Downs. The Spaniards therefore finding they were to expect no aſſiſtance from the Engliſh fleet, took the opportunity of a thick fog in order to return home; but TROMP had intelligence of it, and overtook them with near an hundred men of war, whereupon there happened a ſmart engagement between the two fleets, and moſt of the Spaniſh ſhips were burnt, ſunk or taken; a great Portugueſe galleon particularly, of fourteen hundred tons and eighty guns was deſtroyed, with eight hundred men on board, moſt of them gentlemen, and about twenty ſhips more run on ſhore in the Downs; and of the whole Spaniſh fleet not more than eight eſcaped into Dunkirk. The common people in England it ſeems had a notion, that this Armada was deſigned againſt their own country, and were not diſpleaſed therefore to ſee it deſtroyed: and perhaps King CHARLES found it would alarm his ſubjects, already ſufficiently diſcontented, if he ſhould permit the Engliſh fleet to take their part; or ſurely he would never have ſuffered the Dutch to have fallen upon them in our roads. an indignity that ought never to have been borne but in ſuch circumſtances as his Majeſty was at this time. The Dutch loſt but two ſhips and about fourſcore men in the engagement, which plainly ſhews that they were better ſeamen even at that time than the Spaniards, for the Spaniſh fleet was deemed at leaſt equal to theirs in force and number of guns; but however that be, certain it is, TROMP gained immortal honour by the victory, and the Spaniards have never ſince made any figure at ſea.

Arras taken by the French.

The ſon of the Prince of Orange married to the Princeſs Royal of England.

Gennep taken by the Dutch: Aire and Lens by the French

The French and Dutch acting in ſeparate bodies, anno 1640, as had been agreed, the Prince of Orange ſat down before Damme, a city five miles from Bruges; but meeting with greater difficulties than he expected, was compelled to raiſe the ſiege. The French had better ſucceſs before Arras, the capital of Artois, which they took this campaign after a ſiege of two months. Count HENRY-ERNEST of Naſſau, Governor of Frieſland, being killed in an engagement with the Spaniards, was ſucceeded in that province by his brother WILLIAM-FREDERICK; but the Prince of Orange, Stadtholder of the other provinces, was choſen Governor of Groningen and the Omlands; and the following year, 1641, the Prince of Orange married his ſon WILLIAM, being then fifteen years of age, to the Princeſs MARY, daughter to CHARLES I, King of Great Britain, and the young Prince going over into England, the marriage was conſummated there on the ſecond of May. The ſame year the Dutch had the good fortune to take the ſtrong fortreſs of Gennep, ſituate on the river Niers: as the French did the cities of Aire, Lens and Bapaume, in the province of Artois; but Aire was re-taken not long after by the Spaniards.

In the year 1642 died the famous Cardinal RICHLIEU, who had long ſupported the Dutch againſt Spain, and aſſiſted them in humbling the houſe of Auſtria. And the following year his Maſter LEWIS XIII died, which did not however make any alteration in the meaſures of the French miniſtry, who entered into a ſtricter alliance with the United Provinces than ever; wherein the French agreed to give the States the title of High and Mighty, to furniſh them with twelve hundred thouſand livres, and to attack ſome conſiderable places on the coaſt of Flanders. In conderation whereof, the States engaged to have forty men of war on that coaſt to ſupport their land-forces; and not to make peace with Spain without the concurrence of France.

Graveling taken by the French

Sas van Ghent taken by the Dutch.

In purſuance of which treaty the French laid ſiege to Graveling, while Admiral TROMP blocked it up by ſea, and the place ſurrendred about two months after. On the other hand, the Prince of Orange made himſelf maſter of the ſtrong fortreſs of Sas van Ghent the ſame campaign. And thus the French and Dutch went on, enlarging their reſpective frontiers at the expence of the miſerable Spaniard: but the French made the moſt conſiderable advances, for in the campaign of 1645, the French took Mardick, Bour-

Mardick, Bethune, &c. taken by the French. Hulſt taken by the Dutch.

bourg, Bethune and Armentiers, while the Prince of Orange was repulſed in an attempt he made upon Antwerp ; but he had the good fortune however before the end of the year to make himſelf maſter of Hulſt in Flanders, the capital of the country of Waes.

The Prince of Orange in the year 1646 renewed his deſign againſt Antwerp ; and being joined by ſix thouſand French, was marching to inveſt it, when he was ſeized with an apoplexy, which diſordered his underſtanding ; and the Hollanders apprehending if this city were taken and made part of their State, the ancient trade might be revived there to the diſadvantage of Amſterdam, marched back again without attempting any thing againſt that city.

Dunkirk taken by the French.

In the mean time the French beſieged and took Dunkirk, by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch fleet, which blocked up the harbour ; of which they have ſince had ſufficient reaſon to repent, it having been made a neſt of privateers, from whence they have been infeſted in all their wars with France.

Prince of Orange dies. William II. ſucceeds.

In the ſpring following, viz. on the 14th of March 1646-7, the Prince of Orange died, in the 67th year of his age, and was ſucceeded by his ſon WILLIAM the ſecond, in the Stadtholderſhip of the ſix provinces which his father held ; upon whoſe acceſſion the States addreſſed themſelves to him, intreating that he would contribute his utmoſt towards the concluſion of the peace of Munſter, which was now negotiating, and not adhere too ſtrictly to the intereſt of France, of whom they began to be very jealous ſince the conqueſts they had made in Flanders, and the reſt of the Spaniſh provinces: and notwithſtanding their engagements with that crown, they concluded a ſeparate peace with Spain at Munſter, in the year 1648 ; the principal conditions whereof were,

An Abſtract of the Treaty of Munſter.

THAT the King of Spain ſhould acknowledge the Lords the States General of the United Provinces with their provinces, towns, lands, and appurtenances, ſovereign States, provinces and countries : upon which he or his ſucceſſors would not for the future make any claim or pretence. That each party ſhould keep and enjoy the countries, towns, places and lordſhips in their reſpective poſſeſſions, with their dependencies and appurtenances. Whereby the Dutch were to enjoy Boiſleduc, with the lordſhips, towns and villages thereto belonging ; the town and marquiſate of Bergen op Zoom ; the town and barony of Breda, the town of Maeſtricht, and the diſtrict thereto belonging ; the county of Groonhoſt, the town of Grave ; the country of Luickhulſt, and bailiwick of Hulſt and Hulſter Ambacht ; and all the forts the States were poſſeſſed of in the country of Waes, with their dependencies and appurtenances : as alſo all ſuch other places as the States then held in Brabant or Flanders, with all right of ſovereignty, in the ſame manner as they held the United Provinces. The States were alſo to retain all they poſſeſſed in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, Aſia, Africa, or America. And the Spaniards were to continue their navigation to the Eaſt-Indies in the ſame manner they then did ; but not to extend themſelves on that ſide : and each party, both in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, were to abſtain from the navigation and trade of ſuch places and countries as belonged to the other. That the river Scheld, and the channels of the Sas and Swyn, and other entrances into the Sea thereabouts, ſhould remain in the poſſeſſion of the States, who might lay what duties they ſaw fit on veſſels paſſing that way, and on goods going in and out of the harbours in Flanders. And the Dutch alſo were to have the cuſtoms of all goods paſſing through their country by the Rhine or Maes. It was alſo agreed, that no new Forts ſhould be erected in the Low Countries on either ſide, and that on the part of the King of Spain ſhould be demoliſhed near Sluice, the Forts of St. JOB, St. DONAT, the Star Fort, the Fort TERESE, St. FREDERICK, St. ISABELLA, and St. PAUL ; and on the ſide of the States, the two Forts in the iſland of Leaſant, called ORANGE and FREDERICK ; the two forts De Pas on the eaſt ſide the river Scheld, and the Fort of Kieldrect called Spinola.

A conteſt between the Prince of Orange and the States.

The United Provinces now enjoying a profound peace, propoſed to make a reduction of their forces, which met with great oppoſition from thoſe of the Prince of Orange's party, apprehending it would tend to the leſſening his authority and influence ; which was indeed the very reaſon that the other ſide were zealous for it, remembring the attempts that his uncle Prince MAURICE had made to obtain the ſovereignty : an act of State therefore being drawn up for diſbanding part of the army, the Prince laboured with all his might to get the matter debated in another aſſembly ; but the deputies who were for it following the advice of CORNELIUS BICKER, Burghomaſter of Amſterdam, left the Hague abruptly, and thereby defeated all his ſtratagems. Hereupon it was propoſed by ſome of the Deputies of his party who remained at the Hague, that he ſhould viſit the cities of Holland in perſon, who were moſt averſe to it, in order to obtain their conſent for keeping up the army ; but the province of Holland proteſted againſt this expedient as an encroachment on their liberties, and the city of Amſterdam in particular deſired him to forbear coming thither ; at which he was ſo exaſperated, that he exhibited a complaint to the States General againſt that city, demanding ſatiſfaction for the affront put upon him ; in anſwer to which they publiſhed a Manifeſto juſtifying their conduct : but the Prince determining to be revenged on that proud city, ſent orders for a great body of troops to aſſemble and inveſt it. He alſo impriſoned JOHN DE WITT the Penſionary, and five others of the province of Holland, whom he apprehended moſt averſe to his deſigns, in the caſtle of Loeveſtein, from whence they were called the Loeveſtein Faction. The Prince's orders were executed with that ſecreſy, that the Amſterdammers had not any intimation of the march of the army to attack them, till the Hamburgh poſt-boy brought them notice there was a body of horſe advancing towards them, the very morning the town was to have been inveſted ; and had it not been for the rains and the darkneſs of the night, whereby ſome of the forces loſt their way, and did not come in time to the appointed rendezvous, the city had been ſurrounded before they had received the leaſt intelligence of his intentions ; but having had time to put themſelves in a poſture of defence, they ſent to the Prince to know the reaſon of his approaching in that hoſtile manner ; and he inſiſting that the Burghomaſter BICKER ſhould be delivered up and puniſhed, they took

The Prince ſends a body of troops to inveſt Amſterdam.

took the opportunity while the conferences about it continued, to open their ſluices and drown their country, ſo that it was now become impracticable for his army to attack the place. The citizens, however, being deſirous to remove ſo formidable a force from their gates, and to procure the liberty of De Witt, and the reſt of their friends, whom the Prince had impriſoned in the caſtle of Loeveſtein, agreed at length to diſplace Burghomaſter Bicker, and his Highneſs, on the other hand, conſented to releaſe the priſoners and withdraw his troops, but could not help however diſcovering his concern for the diſappointment; and while he was meditating which way to repair the diſgrace, was taken ill of the ſmall-pox at the Hague, on the 29th of October 1650, and died on the 6th of November following, contrary to the opinion of his phyſicians, who declared him to be out of danger; from whence it was afterwards ſurmized that he was poiſoned with a draught of Limonade: but however that matter was, certain it is he was become very terrible to the republick; and the late hoſtile attempt upon Amſterdam rendered his death the leſs regretted; ſome of the Clergy in their pulpits went ſo far as to aſcribe it to the juſt judgment of God, and ſome medals were ſtruck reflecting on his memory, among which one repreſented the precipitate fall of Phaeton, with thoſe words in Ovid, *Magnis tamen excidit auſis*. About a week after the death of William II, his ſon William III. was born, afterwards Stadtholder of the United Provinces, and King of Great Britain, which gave great joy to the Princeſs and the family of Orange, who were before overwhelmed with grief for the loſs of the late Prince, their great ſupport, in the flower of his age. Two days after the Betawe and Velawe, and Utrecht, were good part of them overflowed by the breaking of the dikes of the Yſſel, &c. The ſea alſo broke in upon North Holland with a terrible inundation, and deſtroyed incredible quantities of merchandize, even in Amſterdam itſelf; ſo that however they might rejoice at the death of the Prince of Orange, they had reaſon to mourn for the calamities which ſoon after befel them.

Dies of the ſmall-pox.

The office of Stadtholder aboliſhed.

Upon the death of the Prince of Orange the province of Groningen choſe the hereditary Prince of Frieſland, William-Frederick of Naſſau, their Governor; but the other five provinces elected no particular Governor: and the States General reſolved to have no Stadtholder, Captain-General, or Admiral, for the future; and entered into a new union, whereby they ſettled the ſovereignty of the particular provinces, declaring againſt the innovations of Prince Maurice and his ſucceſſors, who had endeavoured to make every province ſubject to the States General, or rather to themſelves. Then they publiſhed a general toleration of all religions, excluding however from publick employments all who did not make a publick profeſſion of Calviniſm. The five Gentlemen impriſoned by the late Prince of Orange in the caſtle of Loeveſtein, were ſet at liberty, and with Burghomaſter Bicker reſtored to their offices and dignities, and the proceedings againſt them declared illegal and void. They alſo changed the magiſtrates in many places, ſupplying their rooms with ſuch as were not well-affected to the houſe of Orange, and diſbanded good part of the army.

The conduct of the States in relation to King Charles II, and the Royal family.

Doriſlaus, Envoy from the Engliſh parliament, killed.

St. John inſults the Duke of York at the Hague.

Attempts of the Engliſh to annoy the Dutch, and advance their own trade by the act of navigation.

England, after the murder of King Charles I, anno 1648, was under the dominion of a Commonwealth in appearance, but really ſubject to Cromwel, who had uſurped the ſupreme authority, and driven King Charles II, and his brother the Duke of York into Holland, where they were well received by their brother and ſiſter, the Prince and Princeſs of Orange, at the Hague: the States, in the mean time, gave frequent intimations that their reſiding in Holland would be very inconvenient in their preſent circumſtances; and it was with ſome difficulty the Prince of Orange prevented their ſending them a meſſage to remove out of their territories. About the ſame time Dr. Doriſlaus, one of the Engliſh regicides, coming as Envoy to the Hague, to propoſe an alliance between the two republicks, while he was at ſupper in his houſe with ſome company, ſix or ſeven Gentlemen of North-Britain entered the room with their ſwords drawn, and Whitford, one of them, dragging Doriſlaus from the table, ſtabbed him to the heart, ſaying, *Thus dies one of the regicides*; then the Gentlemen putting up their ſwords, walked quietly out of the room, leaving the reſt of the company in the utmoſt conſternation. This accident made the Dutch ſtill more uneaſy, leſt Cromwel ſhould demand ſatisfaction, and occaſion the removal of King Charles from the Hague ſoon after; and the death of the Prince of Orange, which happened about the ſame time, gave but ſmall encouragement to hope for his Majeſty's reſtoration from that quarter. The year following, anno 1651, the Commonwealth of England, as they were called, ſent over their Chief Juſtice St. John and Mr. Walter Strickland as their Ambaſſadors to the States, attended by two hundred Gentlemen and a magnificent equipage, to propoſe an offenſive and defenſive alliance between the two Commonwealths; who were received with all imaginable reſpect by the States, but were however frequently affronted and aſſaulted by the mob, who, notwithſtanding a ſtrong guard conſtantly attended them, often broke their windows and pelted their ſervants with dirt and ſtones, crying out, *Long live King* Charles, *and the Prince of Orange*. St. John alſo meeting the then Duke of York in the walks of the Voorhout at the Hague, and refuſing to give him the way, or ſalute him, the Duke pulled off his hat and told him, he ought to be taught to pay more reſpect to the King's brother: to which the Ambaſſador anſwering, that he knew no other Sovereign than the parliament of England, and reflecting groſly on the royal family, the Duke's attendants attacked the Ambaſſador and his ſervants ſword in hand, and being ſupported by moſt of the Gentlemen then in the walks, the Ambaſſador was obliged to retire with his people into his houſe. The States who pretended to remain neuters between the King and Parliament of England, deſired the Duke to retire from the Hague to a country-ſeat of his ſiſter's, the Princeſs dowager of Orange, at Honſlaerdike: after which they ſent a deputation to the Engliſh Embaſſadors, to expreſs their concern for what had happened, and to aſſure them, that if any of their ſubjects had affronted them they ſhould be puniſhed with the utmoſt rigour: but St. John it ſeems was not to be appeaſed, and repreſented matters in ſuch a manner to his maſters, that they were ſoon after recalled. At their return it was propoſed in the parliament to endeavour to prevent the mighty growth of the Dutch trade and advance their own by all poſſible means; the firſt attempt towards which, was by drawing up an act, ſince called the Act of Navigation, whereby foreigners were prohibited importing any merchandize into England which was not of their own growth; which affected Holland more than any other country, becauſe the produce of that country is exceeding ſmall, and one of their greateſt advantages at that time conſiſted in their being the common carriers of Europe; and under colour of this law alſo the Engliſh frequently took an opportunity of ſearching the Dutch ſhips and making prize of them. The States hereupon ſent over four Ambaſſadors to England, to expoſtulate with that remnant of a parliament, who were anſwered with the following demands: 1. That they ſhould pay the arrears of tribute due for fiſhing on the Engliſh coaſt. 2. That they ſhould reſtore the Spice-iſlands they had taken in the Eaſt-Indies. 3. That thoſe who had aſſiſted in the murder of the Engliſh at Amboyna and Banda, ſhould be brought to juſtice. 4. That ſatisfaction ſhould be given for the murder of Dorislaus the Engliſh Envoy. And, 5. Reparation made for the damages ſuſtained by the Engliſh in Ruſſia, Greenland, &c. by the Dutch encroachments, to an immenſe ſum. From theſe demands the States concluding that nothing leſs than a war was intended, gave orders for fitting out a great fleet of men of war: the Engliſh Parliament, on the other hand, never imagining that the Dutch durſt enter into a war with them, fitted out only the uſual ſquadron for the guard of the coaſt, giving their Admiral no particular inſtructions in caſe of a rupture. The admiralty of Holland, in the mean time, had ordered Van Tromp with a fleet of forty two men of war to ſail over to the Engliſh coaſt, and not to ſtrike ſail to that nation as he uſed to do. This Admiral accordingly in the month of May 1652, coming into Dover road, met with Admiral Blake, and a ſquadron of twenty-ſix men of war there under his command, who perceiving the Dutch did not ſtrike ſail as uſual, gave them three guns; whereupon Tromp hung out a red flag, and bore down directly to the Engliſh Admiral, giving him a broad-ſide, which being returned, an obſtinate fight began, that laſted till night parted them. On the Dutch ſide was one ſhip taken and another ſunk: the Engliſh had a great many men killed and wounded, but loſt no ſhip or officer of note, though the Hollanders pretended there were two Engliſh ſhips ſunk and ſix taken; however, certain it is, Blake did not think fit to renew the fight the day following on ſo great odds, but retired in order to refit and reinforce his ſquadron.

War between the Engliſh and Dutch.

The firſt ſea-fight.

The States ſoon after ſent an embaſſy to England, to aſſure the Parliament that the late engagement between the two fleets was without their knowledge, and contrary to their intentions, and begged of them, as they profeſſed the ſame religion and love of liberty, they would enter into a treaty, in order to heal this bleeding wound, and avoid the further effuſion of blood. To which the Parliament anſwered, That the extraordinary preparations the Dutch had made of a fleet of an hundred and fifty ſail without any apparent neceſſity, and the inſtructions they had given to their ſea-officers, gave too much cauſe to believe they deſigned to uſurp from the Engliſh the dominion of the ſea; they thought themſelves obliged therefore to endeavour, by God's aſſiſtance, to obtain reparation for the injuries and damages they had received: and having returned this anſwer, immediately ordered Blake to ſail northward and attack their fiſhing-buſſes, guarded by twelve ſail of men of war, moſt of which he took and brought home as good prize. And Sir George Ascough being ſent with another ſquadron to the ſouthward, meeting with a fleet of Dutch merchant-men between Dover and Calais, took or deſtroyed moſt of them; and afterwards ſtanding weſtward, fell in with a fleet of ſixty of the enemy's men of war, and thirty merchant-men near Plymouth, with whom he maintained a fight till night parted them, though he had but thirty ſail of men of war with him; but being damaged in his rigging, he could not come up with them the next day. However, theſe attempts ſtruck ſuch a terror into the Dutch, that for the future they choſe generally to ſail north about, rather than to run the hazard of being taken in the Engliſh channel; and notwithſtanding all their precaution they loſt ſix Eaſt-India ſhips, valued at four millions of livres, thirty-five more of their Portugal fleet, and many other veſſels. King Charles II being now at Paris, and finding the Engliſh and Dutch republicks were come to an open rupture, made an offer to the Dutch Embaſſador to join his intereſt with theirs, and go in perſon on board their fleet; but the Dutch reſolving to clap up a peace with England, and apprehending the King's appearing among them might prove an impediment to it, refuſed the generous propoſal. Van Tromp about this time reſigning the command of the Dutch fleet upon ſome diſguſt, De Witt ſucceeded him, who with De Ruyter appearing at the head of the Dutch grand fleet on the coaſt of Kent, were attacked by Blake on the 28th of October; in which engagement the Rear-Admiral of the States was boarded and taken, two more of their men of war ſunk, and a fourth blown up; whereupon the Dutch thought fit to retire, and were purſued to their own coaſts. In the mean time a ſquadron of Engliſh men of war in the Mediterranean, conſiſting of five or ſix ſail, were attacked by ſixteen Dutch, under the command of Van Galen, and forced to retire into the port of Leghorn for protection, having loſt the Phœnix, one of their number; on which occaſion the Hollanders triumphed as for a ſignal victory.

King Charles II. offers to go on board the Dutch fleet.

Another engagement.

A third ſea-fight between the Engliſh and Dutch.

In this war the Swedes declared for the Engliſh, and the Danes for the United Provinces; and the Danes engaged to ſend twenty men of war to the aſſiſtance of their allies, in caſe Van Tromp was reſtored to his command; which being readily complied with by the States, that Admiral put to ſea with eighty men of war and two fire-ſhips, and meeting Blake in the Downs, with between forty and fifty ſail, a terrible engagement enſued on the 29th of November 1652; but the Engliſh being overpowered, were at length compelled to retire, with the loſs of two ſhips taken, three ſunk, and one burnt; and of the Dutch only one of their flag-ſhips was blown up. After which Tromp, in contempt of the naval power of England, rode with a broom at his top-maſt head, ſhewing that he could ſweep the channel of them. But this triumph was ſhort-lived, for on the 18th of February following, the Engliſh grand fleet, commanded by Blake, Dean and Monk, conſiſting of eighty ſail, lying extended croſs the channel over-againſt Portland, to wait for Tromp, who was convoying

A fourth ſea-fight.

Fifth ſea-fight.

home three hundred ſail of merchant-ſhips with ſeventy-ſix men of war; the Engliſh Scouts diſcovered the Dutch fleet on the 18th of February by break of day, whereupon another bloody battle was fought, which laſted three days: Van Tromp on the third interpoſing between the Engliſh fleet and his merchant-ſhips, maintained a running fight till he recovered the coaſt of Holland; having loſt in the engagement eleven men of war and thirty merchants: there being but one ſhip loſt on the Engliſh ſide. On the 2d of June 1653, there happened another engagement between Dover and Calais, when the Engliſh fleet, conſiſting of an hundred ſail, was commanded by Monk and Dean, who where both on board one ſhip: the Dutch fleet conſiſting of upwards of an hundred ſail, and were commanded by Tromp, De Witt, De Ruyter, and the two Evertsons. It was about noon when the engagement began, and at the firſt broad-ſide Admiral Dean was ſhot into by a cannon-ball as he ſtood by Monk, who without being diſcouraged covered the body with his cloak, and then maintained the fight with great bravery, and before evening the Dutch bore away before the wind. The next morning, there being but little wind, the Engliſh could not come up with the Hollanders before noon, when the fight began afreſh, and the Dutch were put into the utmoſt confuſion; Tromp ſent his boat aboard ſome ſhips, and fired at others, to oblige them to come into the line; but all to no purpoſe; he found himſelf obliged to retreat to their own flats, where there was no following them. In this engagement eleven Dutch ſhips were taken, ſix ſunk, and two blown up; with very little loſs on the Engliſh ſide.

Sixth ſea-fight.

The Dutch, notwithſtanding this defeat, fitted out a fleet of an hundred and five and twenty men of war within a little more than a month, commanded by Tromp, who meeting the Engliſh fleet upon the coaſt of Holland commanded by Monk, another famous engagement enſued, on the 29th of July, wherein Monk ordered his Captains neither to give nor take quarter, which made this battle more bloody than any of the former: the famous Van Tromp, the glory of the Dutch nation, as he is ſtiled by ſome writers, was ſhot with a muſket-bullet as he ſtood on the quarter-deck with his ſword drawn, encouraging his men; and ſeven and twenty Dutch men of war were ſunk and burnt, but none taken, which was occaſioned by Monk's orders to give no quarter. De Witt taking upon him the command after the death of Tromp, and having maintained the fight till evening, the Dutch retired into their harbours. The Engliſh had abundance of men killed and wounded in the engagement; but loſt only one ſhip, and had two or three more diſabled.

The Dutch deſire peace of the Engliſh.

The terms of it.

The States governed by the De Witts.

The Dutch, diſcouraged by the defeat of their fleet, and the loſs of their Admiral, but more by the loſſes they ſuffered in their foreign trade, for it ſeems the Engliſh had taken in this ſhort war no leſs than ſeven hundred ſail of ſhips; ſent orders to their Plenipotentiaries, who were already treating with Cromwel at London, to haſten the concluſion of the peace almoſt upon any terms; to which they were moved alſo by frequent inſurrections at home, and the ſuggeſtions of the Orange party, who perpetually inſinuated that theſe misfortunes were occaſioned by their not having a Stadtholder. Cromwel, though he had formerly vowed the deſtruction of this State, began now to hearken to the propoſals made him, in hopes the States might be aſſiſtant to him in maintaining his uſurped ſovereignty; for he had diſperſed the remains of the long parliament, and taken upon him perfectly to new-model the conſtitution. Both parties therefore having their particular views in promoting a peace, the treaty was brought to a concluſion in April 1654, by which the Dutch renounced King Charles's intereſt, engaged to ſtrike to the Engliſh at ſea, and to bring ſuch of their ſubjects to juſtice as had been concerned in the barbarities at Amboyna, if there were any of them living, and to make reparation for all the damages the Engliſh had ſuſtained by their means in their foreign trade for thirty years paſt. Cromwel alſo demanded that the States ſhould exclude the Prince of Orange, grandſon of King Charles I, and all his poſterity, from being Stadtholders, or Governors of any particular provinces, city or fort; as alſo from being Admirals, Vice-Admirals, or even Captains of men of war; which the States at length agreed to, under this limitation only, that this excluſion ſhould extend only to ſuch of the Prince of Orange's poſterity, as ſhould be lineally deſcended from the daughter of the late King Charles I; and that this ſhould be a private article, and not inſerted in the general treaty. About this time John de Witt, ſon of De Witt the Burghomaſter of Dort (who had been impriſoned in the caſtle of Loeveſtein by the late Prince of Orange) and his brother Cornelius de Witt, began to grow very popular, and the one being Penſionary of Holland, and the other High Bailiff of Putten, they had the chief direction of this State during the minority of the Prince of Orange William III. Theſe gentlemen were ſo very cautious of retaining any office in the commonwealth that might have the leaſt reſemblance to that of Captain-General, that they ſuppreſſed even that of Field-Marſhal, and kept no other General Officers in their pay but Count Maurice of Naſſau in quality of Lieutenant-General, and the Rhinegrave as Major-General of the horſe; and if a body of troops was aſſembled on any occaſion, they were uſually commanded by the eldeſt Colonel.

Cromwel propoſes an union between the Republicks of England and Holland.

Cromwel, encouraged by the condeſcenſions the States had already made, propoſed to them an union between the two commonwealths under one form of government; but the cautious Hollander foreſeeing that Cromwel would have the direction of the whole, and probably in the end aſſume the dominion of both countries, rejected the propoſal. He then offered to enter into a league offenſive and defenſive with them againſt the church of Rome; to which they anſwered, their buſineſs was traffick, and they muſt endeavour to live peaceably with all the world if poſſible: whereupon Cromwel upbraided them with preferring their temporal intereſt before the advancement of the Proteſtant religion, and the deſtruction of Popery. But after all, few will believe that Cromwel's religion put him upon making this propoſal; how much ſoever he might pretend to an exceſs of piety, he had ſome temporal intereſt in view. If he had ſeen himſelf at the head of a Proteſtant league, there is no doubt but under the colour of advancing the kingdom of Chriſt, he would have advanced his own dominion over moſt of the kingdoms of Europe; and this that ſubtle people could not but be ſenſible of; the ſham pretences of religion to cover a roguiſh project they were ſufficiently inſtructed in, and were not to be caught in the ſame ſnare they had ſo often laid for others.

The Dutch aſſiſt the Danes againſt the Swedes.

The war was no ſooner ended between England and Holland, but the Dutch being jealous of the growing power of the Swedes in the Baltick, incited the King of Denmark to enter into a new war with them: they alſo took upon them the protection of Dantzick, then inſulted by the Swedes, with which city they carried on a vaſt trade, and ſending a fleet of men of war thither with land-forces on board, compelled the Swede to accept of ſuch terms as they were pleaſed to preſcribe. After which a new war breaking out between the Danes and Swedes, and the Danes proving unſucceſsful, the Dutch ſent another fleet to their aſſiſtance, with which they defeated the Swedes at ſea, and relieved Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark, which was then cloſely beſieged; in which engagement, however, the Dutch loſt two of their Admirals. The reaſon the Dutch gave for interpoſing in this war was, leſt the Swedes ſhould make themſelves maſters of both ſhores of the Sound, and thereby render their trade to the Baltick precarious.

Civil wars in the United Provinces.

In the mean time, a kind of civil war broke out in the United Provinces. At Tergoes in Zealand there happened an inſurrection of the populace, and in Groningen another: and in the province of Overyſſel the cities of Campen and Zwoll declared war againſt Deventer and Haſſelt; but by the interpoſition of the States General theſe commotions were at length compoſed.

Dunkirk taken by the French and Engliſh.

Cromwel dies.

In the year 1658, the French and Engliſh laid ſiege to Dunkirk and took it; and according to the treaty between them, the place was left in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, to the great mortification of the Dutch, who were not well pleaſed to ſee their rivals in trade maſters of both ſides the channel, as they were in effect by the acquiſition of Dunkirk. But the ſame year died CROMWEL the Uſurper, or Protector, as he ſtiled himſelf, on the 3d of September, leaving Britain in ſuch confuſion, that the Hollanders had little to apprehend from that ſide for the preſent; there was a fleet indeed ſent to the Baltick by RICHARD CROMWEL, to aſſiſt the Swede againſt their ally the Dane, but the diſtractions which ſoon after followed in England prevented their entring upon action.

King Charles's reception in Holland before his reſtoration.

Things being come to a criſis in England, the people heartily weary of the many changes they had lately experienced in the government, were generally inclined to attempt the reſtoration of their natural Sovereign King CHARLES II; which the Dutch obſerving, and not apprehending it in their power to prevent, though they had entred into a confederacy with CROMWEL againſt the STUART family; his Majeſty was no ſooner arrived at Breda, but they ſent a deputation of the States to compliment him on his arrival in their dominions, and to deſire he would take up his reſidence at the Hague till he ſhould embark for England, which the King readily accepted, arriving there on the 16th of May 1660; where he was not only magnificently entertained at the charge of the States, with all his dependants, but preſents made him, amounting in the whole to the value of an hundred thouſand pounds. And here all the Ambaſſadors and publick Miniſters of ſuch Princes as were at the Hague attended the King, congratulating his approaching reſtoration on their maſters behalf, by whom but a very little before he had been intolerably ſlighted and ill uſed: and from the ſpeech made by the deputies of the States at his Majeſty's embarkation, none could believe that theſe were the very men who had a little before entered into a treaty with CROMWEL, his mortal enemy, to prevent his reſtoration, and even to exclude all of his blood from the Stadtholderſhip of the United provinces: Your Majeſty, ſay they, may obſerve in the looks of all our people the joy they have in their hearts to ſee a Prince cheriſhed by GOD, a Prince wholly miraculous, and who will probably contribute in a great meaſure to their quiet and felicity: our joy, ſay they, is common to us with that of our ſubjects, but as we know better than they the ineſtimable value of the treaſure we poſſeſs, ſo are we more ſenſible of this ſad ſeparation; and it would, Sir, (continued they) be inſupportable to us if we did not reflect, that it was the thing in the world we moſt deſired, and the greateſt advantage alſo that we could wiſh to your Majeſty. We therefore acquieſce, becauſe we know that this removal is no leſs neceſſary for us, than glorious for your Majeſty; and that it is in your kingdom we muſt find the accompliſhment of the prayers we have made and ſtill make for you and us. We pray GOD, Sir, that your return may be quiet and happy; and that as he hath diſpoſed the hearts and affections of your ſubjects to acknowledge their lawful Sovereign, he will be pleaſed alſo to command the winds and the ſeas to expedite your voyage. And after you have received on your own coaſts the vows that we ſhall reiterate, you may enjoy in your Royal Perſon, and in your never-ceaſing poſterity, all the felicity that can be wiſhed.

A ſpeech to the King on his embarkation.

The King having taken leave of the States, after ten days ſtay at the Hague, embarked for England at Scheveling, where a ſquadron of men of war attended him under the command of Admiral MONTAGUE, the ſhores being thronged with multitudes of ſpectators, who wiſhed him all imaginable happineſs. Nor is the ſincerity of the common people to be ſuſpected, who are ever infinitely joyful when they ſee right take place, and an injured Prince long baniſhed from his inheritance peaceably reſtored to his dominions; but as for States and Courts, theſe are ſeldom governed by any other motives than ſuch as ſeem conducing to their intereſt.

The occaſion of the quarrel between the States and the Biſhop of Munſter.

The Biſhop of Munſter having obtained a commiſſion from the Emperor in the year 1663, to take poſſeſſion of ſome lands in Eaſt-Friezeland, in Weſtphalia, and amongſt the reſt of the caſtle of Eydeler on the river Ems; the Dutch under pretence that the Biſhop might prove a dangerous neighbour to them, diſpoſſeſſed him of that caſtle by force: and though the Biſhop was not then in a condition to ſhew his reſentment, he ſoon after entered into an alliance with the King of England, and became a terrible thorn in their ſides; which brings me to enquire into the grounds of that war which happened afterwards in the year 1665, between England and the United Provinces.

The occaſion of the war between the Engliſh and Dutch.

The account the Dutch give us of the occaſion of this war, is a very confuſed one. They ſay, that in the year 1664, a ſquadron of men of war was ſent by the Court of England to the coaſt of Africa under the command of Captain HOLMES, who took ſeveral forts and ſettlements from them near Cape Verde, and on the coaſt of Guinea; and that thereupon they ſent De Ruyter thither, and retook thoſe places; whereupon the Engliſh afterwards ſeized upon ſeveral Dutch ſhips in Europe, and make prize of them. That they had no mind to enter into a war with the Engliſh, but were ready to make them any reaſonable ſatisfaction, and to refer the matters in difference between the two nations to any indifferent umpire; but the Engliſh court were all for war.

The Engliſh on the other hand give a very different relation of this matter: for, in the month of April 1664, as appears by the journals of Parliament, the Lords and Commons of England reſolved, That the wrongs, diſhonours and indignities done to his Majeſty by the ſubjects of the United Provinces, by invading his rights in India, Africa, and elſewhere; and the damages, affronts, and injuries done by them to our merchants, were the great obſtructions of our foreign trade: and that his Majeſty be humbly moved to take ſome ſpeedy and effectual courſe for redreſs thereof, and for prevention of the like for the future. And in proſecution thereof, they declare, that they will with their lives and fortunes aſſiſt his Majeſty againſt all oppoſition whatſoever. To which his Majeſty anſwered, That he would examine the particular complaints which had been made to the Parliament; and thereupon appoint his Miniſter at the Hague to demand ſpeedy juſtice and reparation from the States General. And in November following his Majeſty ſent a narrative to the two houſes, containing a ſtate of the differences between the two nations, ſigned with his own hand, which ſtill remains among the records of the houſe of Lords.

A narrative of the wrongs done the Engliſh by the Dutch.

His Majeſty acquainted them in this narrative, that he had required his Miniſter at the Hague, to preſs the States to make him immediate ſatisfaction for the wrongs and oppreſſions his ſubjects underwent, which he had indeed ſolicited them to do for a year paſt, and would now bear no longer delay. That the States having deferred returning any anſwer to his Majeſty for ſome months, with great paſſion and noiſe ſent orders to their ſeveral admiralties to equip great numbers of ſhips of war, and to work night and day upon them, Sundays as well as other days of the week; and gave orders alſo for raiſing a great body of land-forces with all expedition. That in Auguſt laſt, 1664, they pretended to have received news that captain Holmes, who with one of his Majeſty's ſhips had convoyed ſome merchants of the Royal African company to the coaſt of Guinea, had aſſaulted and taken poſſeſſion of a Fort near Cape Verde, belonging to their Weſt-India Company: whereupon the States peremptorily required that his Majeſty would forthwith give orders for the re-delivery of that Fort to them. The King thereupon aſſured the Dutch Ambaſſador that he had given no commiſſion or order to Captain Holmes for that purpoſe: that he expected him ſhortly home, when he would ſtrictly examine his proceedings, and cauſe exemplary juſtice to be done, as well in redelivering the Fort, as in puniſhing the perſon, if his conduct deſerved it. But this anſwer did not ſatisfy them; new orders were given for equipping out more ſhips, and for raiſing men and money; and they publiſhed in their prints, that what Holmes had done was by his Majeſty's warrant and authority.

That his Majeſty, notwithſtanding theſe repeated provocations, did not lay aſide all hopes of bringing the States General to a better temper, but put them in mind how readily he had redreſſed every complaint they had made to him ſince his reſtoration; while inſtead of any return of this kind from them, though his Miniſter at the Hague had importuned them for eighteen months to releaſe twenty ſhips taken by them upon the coaſt of Guinea, and to give ſatisfaction for other affronts and damages in the Eaſt-Indies; and that tho' he had received no anſwer to theſe demands, he had nevertheleſs forborn to do himſelf juſtice. He put them in mind alſo of the declarations publiſhed by their commanders in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, interdicting all trade and commerce with all other nations to the natives of thoſe countries, whom they called their ſubjects, thereby endeavouring to exclude the reſt of Europe from all commerce with the Indies.

They had indeed, his Majeſty obſerves, by their induſtry, and by acts of horrible injuſtice and cruelty, planted themſelves in ſtronger forts and factories than any Prince in Europe had done, eſpecially in the Eaſt-Indies, where their naval power was very great. And when they found the natives inclined to traffick with other nations, as they generally deſire to do, being in truth univerſally weary of the oppreſſions of the Dutch; ſome of their ſhips are ſent to lie before thoſe ports, and to declare they are at war with this or that Prince, or city, and thereupon prohibit all other nations to have any traffick with them; and thus did they reſtrain the Engliſh ſhips under the command of the Earl of Marlborough two years ſince from going to—— and taking in a great cargo provided for him there by the Eaſt-India company, forcing his Majeſty's ſhips to return empty home. That in ſome places they had compelled the Engliſh factories to remove, and in others incited the natives to riſe and cut them in pieces, and aſſiſted them in ſuch attempts with their ſhipping, of which his Majeſty had undeniable evidence.

The grounds of the Dutch war related by Clarendon.

The Lord Chancellor Clarendon in a ſpeech to both houſes of Parliament, in the year 1665, alſo takes an opportunity of remembring ſome of the inducements which prevailed with the Engliſh to enter into this war. He takes notice, that every day brought freſh accounts of the depredations of the Dutch on our merchants in all parts. That inſtead of delivering up the iſland of Poloroon (one of the ſpice-iſlands in the Eaſt-Indies) which they were obliged to have done by treaty, they hindered our ſhips from taking in their lading of ſuch merchandize as our factors had provided; upon pretence that the ports, where the merchandize was ready to be embarked, were in the dominions of ſome Princes whom they had declared to be their enemies, and therefore they would not ſuffer any traffick to be maintained with them. That they publiſhed the like declaration, and challenged the ſame ſovereignty in Africa; and by virtue thereof would not ſuffer our ſhips to trade upon that coaſt, where we had a trade long before the Dutch. That when the King had equipped a fleet to ſend to Africa, in order to procure juſtice to our merchants, and the Dutch deſired they might remain in harbour, as theirs ſhould, till matters could be amicably adjuſted; at that very moment they ſent to their Admiral De Ruyter in the Streights, to make war upon the Engliſh in Guinea. "And in truth, ſays his "Lordſhip, this ſtratagem of pretending one "thing, and intending another; of promiſing “with all ſolemnity, and never deſigning to perform; of ſwearing this day not to do a thing, when they had already ſerved their turn, and actually done it the day before clandeſtinely; is the higheſt pitch of their wiſdom of ſtate, by which they govern their affairs, and delude their neighbours.”

That notwithſtanding his Majeſty had ſeized on ſome of the Hollanders ſhips in Europe, upon intelligence of De Ruyter's being ſent to Africa to make war upon his ſubjects there; neither the ſhips or merchandizes were confiſcated, till he had received certain information that De Ruyter had put his orders in execution, by taking and ſeizing the Engliſh ſettlements and ſhipping upon that coaſt.

The reaſons of the Dutch war ſummed up.

From the whole it appears, that the Engliſh had three very ſubſtantial reaſons to come to a rupture with the Dutch, beſides the buſineſs of the flag, and dominion of the ſea, which the States at this time diſputed. 1. They detained the iſland of Poloroon in the Eaſt-Indies, contrary to ſeveral ſolemn treaties and engagements to deliver it up; whereby we were entirely deprived of the ſpice-trade, at leaſt of nutmegs and mace, the moſt valuable part of it. 2. They had ſeized ſeveral Engliſh ſhips and merchandizes, and kept the men priſoners in loathſom dungeons, where many of them periſhed, though his Majeſty's miniſters had ſollicited their releaſe from year to year. 3. They kept guard-ſhips upon the coaſts of India and Africa, to prevent the Engliſh and all other European nations dealing with the natives. Either they pretended the country was in alliance with them, and had agreed to trade with them alone; or they were at war with the Dutch, and then that was a ſufficient reaſon for blocking up their ports, and ſeizing ſuch boats and veſſels as would come on board the Engliſh and other Europeans: ſo that in fact, they had actually monopolized all the valuable branches of trade in India and Africa; which was the real occaſion that the merchants of England, and of London in particular, applied themſelves to the Parliament for a redreſs of theſe grievances, apprehending their foreign trade to be expiring, unleſs the Dutch were obliged to do them juſtice. And I find the Speaker of the houſe of Commons, in a ſpeech to his Majeſty, declaring, that they had examined the reaſons of the decay of trade, and that they found the Engliſh merchants undermined by fraud and practice, and ſometimes beaten out of the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, in Turky and Africa, by our neighbours the Dutch; who, beſides the inſufferable indignities offered to his Majeſty and the crown of England, had in a few years ſpoiled his ſubjects to the value of ſeven or eight hundred thouſand pounds. And his Majeſty in a letter to the States, juſt before the breaking out of the war, declares his great deſire to maintain peace with them; but he ſaw with regret they went not about to give any ſatisfaction to the Engliſh for their loſſes; concluding with a proteſtation before God and man, That the States would be guilty of all the inconveniences and fatal conſequences, if a ſpeedy reparation was not made.

I have been the more diligent in ſearching the journals of Parliament, and examining the hiſtories of theſe times, becauſe there is a party in England ſo fond of the Dutch, that they are ever endeavouring to blind our eyes, and to cover the treachery and barbarity of their high and mighty friends; and lay the whole blame of our entering into this war on the Engliſh court, when we had, according to them, no real occaſion for a rupture: but if the facts above recited are true, as I can aver they are from undeniable evidence, the nation muſt have been the meereſt bubbles in nature to have borne ſuch injuries and inſults any longer: nay, we muſt have been content to have lived under the dominion of the Hollander, at leaſt at ſea, and given up every branch of our foreign trade; and as it is, we ſuffer them to retain and monopolize the ſpices of India, which are of more value than all the reſt of the trade to India and Africa put together.

Having enquired into the reaſons and grounds of this war, I proceed to give an abſtract of the progreſs and ſucceſs of it. In November, 1664, the grand fleet of England rendezvous'd at Spithead, being commanded by the Duke of York, Lord High Admiral; and the Dutch keeping cloſe in their ports, the Engliſh intercepted their merchant-ſhips as they came home, to the number of one hundred and thirty, and condemned them as lawful prize, (in retaliation for De Ruyter's taking the Engliſh forts and ſhips on the coaſt of Africk) without any previous declaration of war: for as the Dutch made no ſcruple of falling upon the Engliſh in that part of the world without proclaiming war, they could have no manner of reaſon to complain of the like uſage in Europe, tho' their friends are to this day very loud upon the injuſtice of ſuch a proceeding. The citizens of London were then ſo filled with reſentment againſt the Dutch, for their uſurpations upon their navigation and commerce, that towards the ſpeedy equipment of the grand fleet, they advanced his Majeſty an hundred thouſand pounds, and after that another hundred thouſand at his Majeſty's requeſt; for which the Parliament returned them thanks at their next meeting, and voted his Majeſty five and twenty hundred thouſand pounds, to be raiſed in three years, towards carrying on the war: and on the fourth of March 1664-5, the war was formally proclaimed at London, the declaration bearing date the ſecond of February before. The States now finding the Engliſh in earneſt, applied themſelves to the French King, deſiring his mediation, or rather aſſiſtance, againſt the Engliſh, as appeared afterwards; for upon his Britiſh Majeſty's refuſing to ſubmit to ſuch terms as France was pleaſed to preſcribe, they declared for the Dutch. In the mean time the grand fleet of England being aſſembled, to the number of an hundred and eight men of war and fourteen fire-ſhips, was divided into three ſquadrons: the Red, commanded by the Duke of York in perſon, aſſiſted by the Admirals Penn and Lawson; the White, by Prince Rupert, aſſiſted by Minns and Sanson; and the Blue, by the Earl of Sandwich, under whom was Cuttins and Ascough; ſtood over to the coaſts of Holland, to prevent the joining of the Amſterdam ſquadron with that of Zealand: but the Dutch not appearing (after taking many rich merchant-ſhips, as they were entring into their harbours) the Engliſh fleet returned to their own coaſts; which gave the Dutch an opportunity of uniting their ſquadrons, amounting in the whole to an hundred and three men of war, and eleven fire-ſhips; commanded by Admiral Opdam, and under him by Egbert Cortenaer, Vice-Admiral of the Maes; old Evertson, Vice-Admiral of Zealand; and Cornelius Van Tromp (ſon of the famous Van Tromp) Vice-Admiral of Amſterdam. On the firſt of June

War proclaimed.

The firſt ſea-fight between the Engliſh and Dutch after the reſtoration.

June the Dutch fleet ſtood over to the coaſt of England, and on the ſecond theſe two great naval powers faced each other; but the Dutch, 'tis ſaid, avoided fighting that day, as being ominous to them, having been beaten that day twelve years by General Monk. The next day, the third of June 1665, about four o'clock in the morning, the battle begun between the ſquadron commanded by the Duke of York, and that commanded by Admiral Opdam; wherein the Duke plied Opdam ſo warmly and ſo cloſe, that, according to the Engliſh account, he beat his own fire upon him, which taking the powder-room, that great ſhip, with all the men, were blown up into the air. The Dutch ſay, this accident is to be imputed to the treachery of an Engliſh gunner on board the Dutch Admiral. But it is very probable, that neither one nor the other can give any certain account of the matter, any farther than that Admiral Opdam, after an obſtinate diſpute with the Engliſh Admiral, was blown up by his own powder; ſoon after which, victory declared on the ſide of the Engliſh: for at the ſame time three Dutch ſhips which ſeconded their Admiral, being fallen foul of one another, and entangled with their maſts and rigging, were all burnt at once by an Engliſh fire-ſhip. After the death of Opdam, Vice-Admiral Cortenaer hoiſted the Admiral's flag, being then cloſely engaged with Prince Rupert; but this gentleman being killed, and his ſon ſoon after, the Lieutenant, deſpairing of ſucceſs, fled with all the ſail he could make, with the Admiral's flag at the top-maſt head, which the Dutch ſay was the occaſion of their defeat, the reſt of the fleet ſteering after him. The Vice-Admiral of Zealand alſo made the beſt of his way, leaving his ſquadron to ſhift as they could: and only young Tromp with twelve men of war retired with any order to the Texel. And had not the Engliſh ſhortened ſail, it is ſaid, ſcarce any of the Dutch fleet had eſcaped: which is attributed to one Brunkard, of the Duke's bed-chamber, who, 'tis ſaid, carried thoſe orders to Sir John Harman, Captain of the Admiral, when his Highneſs was laid down to ſleep, without his knowledge; for which he was afterwards called to an account in the Houſe of Commons. Of the Dutch eighteen capital men of war were taken, and fourteen ſunk or burnt; and eighteen thouſand of their men killed or taken priſoners. The Engliſh loſt one ſhip and about a thouſand men, beſides ſome perſons of diſtinction; particularly the Earl of Falmouth, the Earl of Marlborough, the Earl of Portland, the Lord Muſkerry, and the Honourable Mr. Boyle, with Rear-Admiral Sanson and Sir John Lawson.

The people in Holland began to be very mutinous upon this defeat, and particularly the clergy, repreſenting it as an effect of the divine vengeance. But the States, after their uſual manner, ſoon ſilenced their preachers, and executed two or three of their Captains for cowardice, as an example to the reſt, who were moſt of them very defective in their duty.

On the fifth of July following the grand fleet of England put to ſea again, and viſited the coaſt of Holland, but returned without meeting the enemy; and a detachment from the fleet about the ſame time attacked a fleet of India-men, and other merchant-ſhips under a ſtrong convoy of Dutch men of war, in the port of Berghen in Norway; but had not the ſucceſs they propoſed, the Dutch being protected by the Daniſh Governor. However in their way home they had the good fortune to take eight Dutch men of war, two India-men valued at a million ſterling, and twenty other merchant-ſhips. And a few days after the Engliſh fleet fell in with eighteen ſail more of Hollanders, of whom they took the greateſt part, and amongſt them four men of war.

In the mean time the Biſhop of Munſter, being ſupported by the King of England, fell upon the Dutch by land, and entring the province of Overyſſel, reduced great part of it, making himſelf maſter of moſt of the towns on the river Yſſel. Whereupon the Dutch applied themſelves again to the French King for aſſiſtance, who ſent them a good body of troops, which repulſed the Biſhop, and obliged him to retire out of the Dutch territories; and not long after compelled him to make a ſeparate peace, without the concurrence of his ally, the King of Great Britain, who had ſupplied him with large ſums of money. And now the French as well as the Danes, having made themſelves parties in the war, ſent conſiderable reinforcements to ſupport the Hollanders againſt England, which was at the ſame time in a manner depopulated by the moſt terrible plague that has been known in this part of the world. The Engliſh Sectaries alſo threatned a rebellion, and kept a correſpondence with the Dutch, and ſome of them actually went into their ſervice: but under all theſe calamities the Engliſh bravely reſolved to continue the war.

The grand fleet of England being commanded in the year 1666 by Prince Rupert and General Monk, who, in order to prevent a conjunction between the French and Hollanders, had divided their forces, Prince Rupert ſailing weſtward, toward the French coaſt, while Monk attended the motions of the Dutch. On Friday the firſt of June 1666, the Dutch fleet, amounting to ninety ſail and upwards, were diſcovered lying at an anchor near Newport: Monk, who had then but fifty ſail under his command, bore down upon them however, and there followed a moſt obſtinate battle, which laſted three days; and had not Prince Rupert with his ſquadron then come in to Monk's aſſiſtance, great part of the Engliſh fleet had been loſt; for the old General ſeem determined not to retire as long as his ſhip would ſwim, notwithſtanding the inequality of numbers. Upon the Prince's joining Monk, the fight was renewed the fourth day, when the Dutch thought fit to retire to their coaſts, and the Engliſh returned to their harbours, being in no condition to purſue them. Both ſides, however, made rejoicings for the victory, though both had ſufficient occaſion to mourn, for the Dutch loſt fifteen men of war, and the Engliſh ten, and moſt of the ſhips in both fleets were miſerably ſhattered.

The ſecond ſea-fight.

The third ſea-fight.

Before the end of July the Engliſh and Dutch fleets met again to conteſt the empire of the ocean, as my author expreſſes himſelf, being about an hundred ſail of a ſide; when the Engliſh obtained an unconteſted victory, deſtroying twenty ſail of Dutch men of war, and purſuing them to their coaſt; where Sir Robert Holmes burnt an hundred and fifty ſail of merchant ſhips in their harbours, with the town of Brandaris in the iſle of Schelling. The Dutch, however, to keep up the ſpirits of their people, who upon this ill ſucceſs grew very mutinous, put to ſea again the latter end of Auguſt, and endeavoured to join the French ſquadron; but Prince RUPERT, who commanded the Engliſh, diſcovering them in Bologne road, they were forced to hawl their ſhips cloſe to the ſhore to avoid another engagement; however, if a ſudden ſtorm had not happened, which obliged the Prince to ſtand off to ſea, they had moſt of them been burnt or ſunk, but by this lucky accident they eſcaped to their own coaſts. The French making ſome attempts in the mean time to join them, had a ſhip of a thouſand tons taken by the Engliſh; whereupon their Admirals alſo thought fit to retire to their harbours. The common people in the United Provinces, upon this ill ſucceſs, were ready to break out into rebellion, and five of the ſeven provinces cried out for peace, declaring they could no longer contribute to the charges of the war; and what increaſed theſe diſtractions were the feuds between their Admirals DE RUYTER and VAN TROMP, who charged their ill ſucceſs on each other. VAN TROMP's commiſſion hereupon was taken away by the intereſt of the Penſioner DE WITT, who eſpouſed DE RUYTER's quarrel; and ſeveral of the Sea-Captains were executed or impriſoned on a pretence of cowardice, or breach of orders, to pacify the people. But to the great conſolation of the Dutch and their allies, the latter end of this year, on the fatal ſecond of September, a day highly celebrated by their friends in England, the greateſt part of the city of London was burnt to the ground. Under which calamity, with the plague that preceded, and that formidable confederacy of the Dutch, French, and Dane, againſt Britain, with a rebellion of the Scots, and perpetual conſpiracies of the Engliſh Puritans againſt the government; it is amazing how the nation was able ſo bravely and ſucceſsfully to defend itſelf.

The fire of London happened during this war.

The Dutch deſire peace.

The Dutch finding little to be got by the war but blows, and thinking that under ſuch a load of calamities the Engliſh would not be averſe to peace, ſent over to propoſe an accommodation; and by the mediation of Sweden a treaty was agreed on to be held between the contending Powers at Breda, which was opened in the beginning of May 1667: and the preliminaries being ſettled, whereby it was agreed, that each party ſhould keep what they had poſſeſſed themſelves of, either before or during the war; the Engliſh looked upon the war to be at an end, and neglected to equip out their grand fleet, as they had done the preceding years; which neglect, or piece of good huſbandry, as ſome ſtiled it, who were, as they pretended, for ſaving the publick treaſure, brought a laſting diſgrace upon the nation: for the Dutch taking advantage of this conduct, ſailed with a fleet of ſeventy men of war into the mouth of the Thames; and being piloted by ſome Engliſh Puritans, made themſelves maſters of the fort of Sheerneſs. They afterwards detached a ſquadron, which ſailed up the Medway as high as Chatham, and burnt three or four firſt and ſecond rate men of war, which lay there unrigged, and brought off the hull of the Royal Charles; all which they performed with the loſs only of two or three of their men of war which were run on ground, and ſet fire to by themſelves; after which they fell down the river. This bold attempt put the city of London in the utmoſt conſternation, expecting a viſit of the like nature; whereupon fourteen or fifteen ſhips were ſunk in the river, and ſeveral batteries raiſed upon the banks to prevent their ſailing up: but the Dutch thinking they had ventured far enough, contented themſelves with the ſucceſs they had met with, and ſoon after ſtood out to ſea again, ſailing to Portſmouth, Plymouth, and other ports, in hopes of deſtroying more of the royal navy; but theſe places having been taken better care of than Chatham, they were prevented doing further miſchief: whereupon they returned to the Thames mouth, where Sir EDWARD SPRAGG with a ſquadron of Engliſh men of war diſputing their paſſage, they put to ſea a ſecond time, and inſulted the Engliſh coaſt, till they could no longer diſſemble their knowledge of the peace being concluded at Breda, and then retired to their own coaſt. By this treaty, according to the preliminaries, each party was to remain in the poſſeſſion of what they had acquired, and the Dutch were to acknowledge the right of the Flag to belong to the Engliſh. The French by a ſubſequent treaty agreed to deliver up to the Engliſh their ſhare of St. Chriſtopher's, and ſuch other iſlands in the Weſt-Indies, as they had made themſelves maſters of during the war.

During the treaty they attack part of the royal navy laid up at Chatham.

Articles of peace.

Conqueſts of the French in the Spaniſh Netherlands.

While theſe treaties were negotiating at Breda, the French King had made a ſurpriſing progreſs in the conqueſt of the Spaniſh provinces of the Low-countries, which indeed haſtened the concluſion of them; for neither the Dutch or Engliſh deſired to ſee him in poſſeſſion of theſe provinces; but the Dutch were moſt nearly concerned, ſeeing him advance ſo near their frontiers: having therefore firſt ordered a conſiderable addition to be made to their forces, in order to join the Spaniards if more peaceable meaſures could not prevail, they offered their mediation in conjunction with England to compoſe the differences between the two crowns; which the French King having accepted, a treaty was ſet on foot at Aix la Chapelle, and brought to a concluſion on the ſecond of May, 1668; wherein it was agreed, that France ſhould retain the poſſeſſion of all ſuch towns and places as ſhe had taken during this war, viz. of Bruch, Aeth, Fort Scarpe, Doway, Tournay, Oudenard, Liſle, Armentiers, Courtray, Bergues, and Furnes, with their territories, domains, ſeigniories, appurtenances, and dependencies.

The inſolence and vanity of the Dutch on the procuring of this peace and the former, is not to be imagined, for which they not many years after paid very dear; they cauſed medals to be ſtruck containing vile reflections on the moſt potent Kings in Europe; in one of which they repreſented Holland reſting upon trophies, with an inſcription, purporting, "That they had aſſiſted, defended, and reconciled Kings, reſtored the free navigation of the ſeas, and peace and tranquillity to Europe, by the force of their arms." Some differences ariſing afterwards between the commiſſioners of France and Spain on ſettling the limits of the new conqueſts in Flanders; and the French court declaring, that unleſs they had ſpeedy ſatisfaction given them on that head, they would do themſelves juſtice; the Dutch, notwithſtanding their late vain boaſts and inſolent behaviour, began to be in ſome conſternation; and for the ſecurity of their frontiers applied themſelves to England, deſiring to enter into a ſtill ſtricter alliance with that kingdom; which being agreed to, and Sweden alſo coming into it, this treaty was afterwards denominated, *The triple Alliance*; whereby each of theſe powers was to furniſh fifteen thouſand

The triple alliance.

ſand land-men for the defence of the Spaniſh Netherlands, beſides a conſiderable fleet with forces on board; but the French King ſoon found means to render this alliance abortive. In the mean time the States of Holland, by the influence of the Penſionary De Witt, paſſed a perpetual and unalterable edict, as it was called, for the ſupport of the liberty and preſervation of the union and tranquillity of the province of Holland; wherein it was provided that the dignity of Stadtholder ſhould ceaſe and never more be revived; which was ſworn to by all who had any places or employment in the government, and even by the Prince of Orange himſelf, not without ſome compulſion we may ſuppoſe; which the King of England, whoſe nephew he was, and who had in a manner taken him into his protection, could not but reſent. Thus the Dutch wantonly and unneceſſarily, by their brutal behaviour, drew upon them the indignation of two mighty Kings, who weary of their repeated inſolence, if we are to credit our writers of ſecret hiſtory, had agreed to divide the United Netherlands between them, reſerving only the province of Holland for the Prince of Orange, of which they propoſed to make him Sovereign; but this is a piece of hiſtory which has but a very ſlender foundation to ſupport it. I make no manner of queſtion however, but that both Kings had a deſign to humble this proud State, and not without reaſon; for it is not conceivable with what contempt they treated them, and all other ſovereign Princes in the Eaſt-Indies, Africa, and elſewhere; repreſenting themſelves as Lords of the ocean, and ſuperior to all the Powers in Europe, and as ſuch they actually oppoſed and hindered the ſubjects of Britain, France, Portugal, and all other nations, from carrying on a free trade in thoſe parts of the world: and not content with theſe injuries and indignities at a diſtance from home, they made the infirmities and miſfortunes of ſovereign Princes their ſport and entertainment in Holland, every day producing ſome ludicrous medal or picture to expoſe them. So ſelf-ſufficient they ſeemed to be, as to deſpiſe and laugh at the reſt of the Powers of Europe; which ſurely from an upſtart commonwealth, compoſed of the moſt booriſh and clowniſh part of mankind, was never to be born. Whatever colour their own hiſtorians, or their brethren of England, who ſeem much more in the intereſt of the Dutch than of their native country, may put upon theſe practices, the Lord Clarendon, whoſe ingenuity and veracity is applauded by moſt of our own writers, ſpeaking of the Dutch to the Parliament of England, has theſe expreſſions, viz. "They load us with ſuch reproaches, as the civility of no other language will admit the relation of; they have a dialect of rudeneſs ſo peculiar to their language and their people, that it is high time for all Kings and Princes to oblige them to ſome reformation, if they intend to hold any correſpondence or commerce with them."

The occaſion of the ſecond Dutchwar.

The firſt effects the Dutch felt of the French King's indignation was on the ſide of Munſter, which Prelate the States having ſufficiently provoked, was eaſily induced, on an aſſurance of being ſupported by France, to arm againſt the Hollanders. His next ſtep was to diſſolve the alliance between England and Holland, which he found but little difficulty to bring about; the Dutch having in ſeveral inſtances broke the treaty of Breda, and continued to diſturb and obſtruct the trade of the Engliſh in India, and other parts of the world. Should it be admitted that the French King had no reaſon to fall upon the United Provinces, beſides the vindication of his honour; certain it is, if the Engliſh had ſuffered thoſe encroachments on their foreign trade they complained of, to paſs without any reſentment, they would in a ſhort time have had very little left; and as it was, ſuch has been the management of their friends in England, from that day to this, that they have ſupplanted us in almoſt every valuable branch of it.

But the friends of the Dutch obſerve, that tho' the war with that State ſhould be admitted to be juſt on the part of the Engliſh, yet it was not honourably begun; for that we fell upon their Smyrna fleet in the channel in the beginning of March 1671-2, before the war was proclaimed: but if we are to give as much credit to facts related in the Engliſh Gazette, as to Dutch ſurmiſes, this was pure accident, and altogether owing to the obſtinacy and inſolence of the Dutch, in refuſing to ſtrike to us, as they had agreed to do at the treaty of Breda. The account given of this occurrence in the Engliſh Gazette is as follows:

"Whitehall, Wedneſday, March 13. Five of his Majeſty's frigates cruiſing by the iſle of Wight, met with the Dutch fleet of Smyrna men, and others of about fifty ſail, convoyed by ſix men of war; and of their merchant-men twenty at leaſt carried between twenty and forty guns a-piece. When our frigates came near them, we ſhot to make them ſtrike and lower their top-ſails; which the Dutch refuſing to do, our frigates ſhot through and through them; and though they then lowered their top-ſails, yet they refuſed to ſtrike, upon which the fight began. This happened about three of the clock that afternoon, and continued until night, at which time three more of our frigates came in. Thurſday, the next morning the fight began again, and continued all that day. In the evening were taken five of their richeſt merchant-men; and Captain John Holmes in the Glouceſter boarded their Rear-Admiral and took her; but ſhe was ſo ſhattered and torn, that ſhe ſunk within a few hours in his poſſeſſion. This ſquadron was commanded by Sir Robert Holmes in the St. Michael; the Earl of Oſſory, Vice-Admiral, in the Reſolution; and Sir Fretchvile Hollis, Rear-Admiral, in the Cambridge; Captain Legg commanded the Fairfax, Captain Elliot the York, Captain Fowlis the Diamond, and Captain Watson the Succeſs, who all behaved themſelves with great gallantry." This in a late writer's words, muſt have been the moſt impudent aſſertion that ever had the ſanction of publick authority, if it was falſe, for the thing might have been diſproved by a thouſand witneſſes in a week's time; ſo many gentlemen of quality are here named, who commanded the ſeveral ſhips engaged, that the government could not have been rendered more contemptible than it muſt have been on their return to London, if the relation was not true. What could it avail the government to have procured Sir Robert Holmes to have affirmed the truth of this ſtory, when the Earl of Oſſory, and ſo many perſons of honour were upon the ſpot, and could have contradicted him? And there is this further reaſon to believe there was no premeditated deſign of falling upon this fleet, and making prize of it, namely, that Sir ROBERT HOLMES had but five frigates with him, who would no doubt have had a much ſtronger ſquadron, if ſuch a thing had been intended; and indeed the Dutch, to give an air of probability to the ſtory, affirm that the Engliſh ſquadron conſiſted of thirty or forty ſail; but we cannot depend on their veracity in giving a relation of this or any other engagement between them and the Engliſh, who uſually ſute the ſtory to their circumſtances.

An alliance between France and England againſt the Dutch. War declared. The ſwift progreſs of the French arms in the United Provinces, an. 1672.

The Kings of France and England having entered into an alliance againſt the Dutch, the Duke of Monmouth in purſuance of that treaty, embarked with ſix thouſand Britiſh troops in the beginning of April 1672, to join the French army in the Low Countries, war having been declared in both kingdoms the ſeventeenth of March preceding. In the beginning of May the French King divided his army, conſiſting of an hundred and twenty thouſand men, into three bodies, with which he attacked the United Provinces in three different parts, while the Biſhops of Munſter and Cologne attacked them in a fourth; and ſuch was the weakneſs and conſternation of the Dutch, notwithſtanding all their boaſts and vain inſcriptions, which they had ſtamped on their medals but a very little before, that they made no manner of defence: inſomuch, that the French King within the ſpace of two months over-run three of the ſeven provinces, viz. Guerlderland, Overyſſel, and Utrecht, and made himſelf maſter of moſt of their great towns, ſome of which had been deemed impregnable, with very little oppoſition; the French King keeping his court at Utrecht this ſummer.

The firſt ſea-fight in the ſecond Dutch war.

In the mean time DE RUYTER, the Dutch Admiral, having aſſembled a fleet of men of war, conſiſting of an hundred ſail and upwards; and having the advantage of the wind, attacked the united fleets of England and France in Solebay, upon the coaſt of Suffolk: but was ſo warmly received, that after a terrible ſlaughter he was obliged to retire, being purſued by the Duke of York, Admiral of the Engliſh, to the coaſt of Holland. This train of misfortunes put the Dutch in the utmoſt confuſion; the people grew head-ſtrong, and publickly arraign'd the conduct of their magiſtrates, and threatned their deſtruction, unleſs the Prince of Orange was declared Stadtholder; which the DE WITTS, who had ſo long governed the State, were not able to prevent: and the perpetual edict, which excluded the Prince from any ſhare in the government, was immediately repealed. Their next ſtep was to lay the province of Holland under water, whereby they effectually ſtopped the progreſs of the French King's arms, till they could form their alliances, and join the Germans, who were marching to their aſſiſtance; for all the Prince of Orange could do with the little army he had aſſembled (notwithſtanding he was reſtored to his ancient honours and command) was to cover ſuch parts of the country, as were moſt liable to be invaded.

John De Witt the Penſioner and his brother torn in pieces.

The advancement of the Prince of Orange proved the deſtruction of CORNELIUS and JOHN DE WITT, who had ever oppoſed him, and procured the perpetual edict for excluding him from the government; and ſuch was the rage of the people againſt theſe two Miniſters, whom they charged with betraying their country to the enemy, and with all the calamities that had befallen them, that one of the brothers was ſtabbed in the ſtreet, but not mortally, for which fact indeed the aſſaſſin was condemned and executed. But CORNELIUS DE WITT, being afterwards charged with a conſpiracy againſt the life of the Prince of Orange, of which his Judges neither acquitted or convicted him, but ſentenced him to be baniſhed, probably to give him an opportunity to eſcape; his brother DE WITT the Penſionary went in his coach, and a greater equipage than ordinary, to fetch him out of priſon: whereupon the mob roſe, knocked down both the Penſionary and the Priſoner, as they were coming down the ſtairs of the priſon, and afterwards tore them in pieces; nor did their fury ſtop there, but they cut their hearts in pieces, and diſtributed the fleſh among their friends to be broiled and eaten; a ſtrain of brutality not to be paralleled in hiſtory, and yet were not any of the offenders brought to juſtice for it.

The Dutch deſire peace.

The Hollanders ſtill finding their affairs deſperate, ſent three of their Deputies into England to implore peace, whereupon King CHARLES ſent a ſolemn embaſſy to his ally the French King at Utrecht, to ſee how he ſtood inclined, and to aſſure the States by the way, that he never intended their deſtruction, but to bring them to reaſonable terms. The war however was ſtill carried on by ſea and land, and three battles more were fought between the Engliſh and Dutch at ſea the following ſummer, viz. the 28th of May, the 4th of June, and 11th of Auguſt, in all which the Engliſh had the advantage, and obliged the Dutch to retire into their harbours; but the French ſquadron not doing their duty, their victories were not ſo compleat as might have been expected. The Dutch keeping cloſe and not venturing to ſea afterwards, the Engliſh had projected a deſcent upon their coaſt, but were prevented putting it in execution by a furious ſtorm, which aroſe at the inſtant they were about to land; tho' there are ſome ſuperſtitious writers which impute that diſappointment to a miraculous alteration of the tides, contrary to the courſe of nature. In the firſt naval fight the Earl of Sandwich was blown up in the Royal James, with a thouſand men; and in the laſt, Admiral SPRAGG. The Dutch alſo loſt Admiral VAN GHENT, and ſome other officers of note: and in the Weſt-Indies the Engliſh took the iſland of Tobago from them.

Three Sea-fights between the Engliſh and Dutch in one ſummer.

The French abandon the Dutch territories.

The latter end of the year 1673, the United Provinces having entered into an alliance with Spain and the Emperor, and the Engliſh being ready to clap up a peace with them, the French King found he ſhould not be able to maintain the conqueſts he had made; and therefore having extorted large ſums from all the towns he had poſſeſſed himſelf of, he retreated with his army out of the Dutch territories, retaining ſcarce any place of note except Mæſtricht: whereupon the three provinces which had for ſome time been diſmembered from the reſt, were upon their earneſt application united to the body, and their deputies admitted again into the aſſembly of the States General. About the ſame time the dignity of Stadtholder and Captain-General was confirmed to the Prince of Orange, and ſettled upon his heirs male.

A treaty of peace be-the Engliſh and Dutch

A treaty of peace was concluded about the ſame time between England and the United Provinces; whereby the right of the flag was again acknowledged by the Dutch, and it was agreed that all places that had been taken by either party ſhould be reſtored, and that the States ſhould pay his Britiſh Majeſty eight hundred thouſand patacoons.

200,000l. paid by the Dutch towards the charges of the war.

patacoons, amounting to near two hundred thouſand pounds; which is a demonſtration to me of the ſuceeſs of this war, notwithſtanding our hiſtorians in general make it a very unfortunate undertaking. Nor had the Engliſh any reaſon to put an end to it at this time, if the growing power of France had not made them apprehenſive of the Grand Monarch's deſigns againſt the liberties of Europe. The Dutch may magnify the courage and conduct of their young hero the Prince of Orange as much as they pleaſe, but if the Engliſh had not changed hands at this time, their State muſt have been inevitably ruined; and perhaps they were not leſs obliged to the Engliſh for their preſervation now, than they were to Queen ELIZABETH for their firſt eſtabliſhment.

Still the war continued between the Dutch, the Germans, Danes, and Spaniards, on the one ſide; and France and Sweden on the other: and the French King in the campaign of 1674, made himſelf maſter of the duchy of Burgundy, or Franche Compte; but the Confederates having aſſembled an army of ſixty thouſand men, endeavoured to put a ſtop to the further progreſs of the enemy, which occaſioned the memorable battle of Seneff, where both ſides claimed the victory, but neither had any great occaſion to rejoice, the ſlaughter being great on both ſides, and very little advantage gained by either.

Upon the peace with England, the Dutch had propoſed to carry on the war againſt the French by ſea as well as land, and accordingly fitted out a ſtrong ſquadron under DE RUYTER, to attack Martinico, and other French ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies; while VAN TROMP was ordered to harraſs the coaſts of France, and make a deſcent in Normandy, where ſome malecontents had promiſed to join them; but they were unſucceſsful in both theſe attempts, and returned home without effecting any thing: The Dutch had the good fortune however to make themſelves maſters of the town of Grave, while their allies the Germans were beaten in two engagements on the Rhine. About this time the province of Guelders offered the Prince of Orange to make him their ſovereign under certain limitations; but the Prince finding the reſt of the provinces alarmed at the propoſal, thought it moſt prudent to diſcountenance the offer.

The ſovereignty of Guelderland offered to the Prince of Orange.

Liege, Dinant, and Huy taken by the French.

Limburg taken.

In the campaign of 1675, the French took the towns of Liege, Dinant, and Huy, before the Confederates marched out of their winter quarters, which the Dutch excuſe on account of the Prince of Orange's being taken ill of the ſmall-pox at that time; but when the Prince was recovered, and had aſſembled an army of forty thouſand men, he was nevertheleſs forced to be witneſs of the taking of Limburg by the French ſoon after. The allies of the States, the Danes and Brandenburghers, had much better ſucceſs againſt the Swedes, who were upon the point of being driven out of Germany. The Imperialiſts alſo obliged the French to retire over the Rhine; and upon the Moſelle, the Duke of Lorrain having laid ſiege to Triers, and the French General, Marſhal CREQUI, marching to it's relief, was entirely defeated; but found means however, with ſome of his troops, to throw himſelf into the place, which he defended bravely for a month; after which, expecting no relief, he was obliged, with his garriſon, to ſurrender priſoners of war. The Prince of Orange about the ſame time having laid ſiege to Binch, a little town between Mons and Charleroy, took it, and demoliſhed the fortifications; and the campaign of the northern Confederates concluded with the taking of Wiſmar, a conſiderable ſeaport on the Baltick, from the Swedes; but the Dutch ſuffered very much the latter end of this year by ſtorms and inundations.

The treaty of Nimeguen begun.

Conde taken by the French.

And Bouchain.

All parties ſeeming now deſirous of peace, the King of Great Britain offer'd his mediation, which was readily accepted, and Nimeguen appointed for the place of congreſs: The French however made great efforts, and raiſed a prodigous army againſt the next campaign, eſpecially in Flanders, where the French King commanded an army of fifty thouſand men in perſon, the Duke of Luxemburg another great army upon the Rhine, and the Duke of Noailles a third in Rouſſillon. The French having ravag'd and plunder'd the Spaniſh Flanders to the very gates of Hulſt and Sas Van Ghent, laid ſiege to Conde, which the Prince of Orange attempted in vain to relieve, the place being taken by ſtorm on the 26th of April, 1676, and thoſe within the town put to the ſword, except 1200 men who capitulated for their lives. The French King immediately after laid ſiege to Bouchain, which the Prince of Orange alſo not finding himſelf in a condition to relieve, the place ſurrendred in leſs than a week; after which his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty returned to Verſailles, and the armies went into quarters of refreſhment. The Prince of Orange however reaſſembling his forces about the beginning of July, and being joined by ſome reinforcements from the German Princes, laid ſiege to Maeſtricht, one of the ſtrongeſt towns on the frontiers of the United Provinces, and then in poſſeſſion of France. Here were many brave actions performed on both ſides, the baſtions and out-works being taken and retaken ſeveral times; in which ſervice, 'tis ſaid, the Engliſh troops, who compoſed part of the Prince of Orange's army, ſignalized themſelves; but the Confederates being much weakened by the ſiege or ſickneſs, and the French advancing with a ſuperior force to the relief of the town, the Prince was forced to raiſe the ſiege after he had lain before the place near two months; which ill ſucceſs made the States very deſirous of peace, while their allies the Imperialiſts having taken Philipſburg this campaign, were no leſs zealous for continuing the war.

Philipſburg taken by the Imperialiſts.

Part of Sicily revolts from Spain.

Ill ſucceſs of the Dutch fleet in the Levant.

De Ruyter kill'd.

Meſſina and ſome other cities of Sicily having a little before this time revolted from the Spaniards to the French, the States ſent a ſtrong ſquadron of men of war into the Mediterranean, under the command of Admiral DE RUYTER, to the aſſiſtance of Spain, which arrived in the road of Milazzo in September 1675. They had ſeveral ſmart engagements with the French fleet near Sicily; but were defeated in every one of them, the French, as the Dutch relate, being double their number; but the greateſt loſs they ſuſtained, was in their brave Admiral DE RUYTER, whoſe left foot was ſhot off, and great part of his right thigh by a cannon-ball, of which he died ſoon after, in the ſeventieth year of his age, of which he had ſerv'd his country fifty years with remarkable ſucceſs.

Succeſs of the Dutch ſquadron in the Baltick.

The States ſent another ſquadron into the Baltick under the command of Admiral TROMP (much about the ſame time that DE RUYTER ſail'd to the Mediterranean) to the aſſiſtance of their allie the King of Denmark againſt Sweden; in which expedition the Dutch met with better ſucceſs than in the former, for having join'd the Daniſh fleet, they attack'd the Swedes on the eleventh of June 1666, and gave them a total defeat, deſtroying nine of their men of war. Of which ſucceſs the Danes taking the advantage, made a deſcent upon Schonen, and took the towns of Elſingburg, Landſcroon, and Chriſtianſtadt, but were ſoon after beaten out of them again by the Swedes.

Religious diſputes in Holland.

While the States were thus engaged abroad in a very extenſive war, religious feuds began to grow very high at home. In their Univerſities were many learned men who eſpouſed the Arminian doctrine, and not a few among their clergy and magiſtrates, whereby the antient animoſities were revived, which ſo diſtracted theſe provinces about the time of the Synod of Dort. In Zealand the Prince of Orange depoſed the miniſters and magiſtrates who were ſuppoſed to be of that perſuaſion (for all of them are obliged publickly to profeſs Calviniſm, or they cannot be admitted to any preferment in Church or State). The city of Amſterdam however, were not for theſe ſevere proceedings, and took a quite difference method to allay theſe heats and animoſities among their people; namely, by declaring in their conſiſtories, That there was no eſſential or real difference between the opinions of the contending parties.

Valenciennes, Cambray, and St Omers, taken by the French.

The French, as uſual, were very early in the field the next campaign; and on the firſt of March 1676-7, laid ſiege to Valenciennes, and by the ſeventeenth the garriſon conſiſting of three thouſand men ſurrendred priſoners of war. On the twenty-ſecond of the ſame month the French King in perſon ſat down before Cambray, which ſurrendred alſo the fifth of April; and the Duke of Orleans laying ſiege to St Omer's at the ſame time, the prince of Orange march'd to it's relief, but was defeated near Caſſel; whereupon the caſtle of Cambray and St Omer's immediately ſurrendred.

The Prince of Orange married to the Princeſs Mary.

Upon the concluſion of the campaign in the year 1677, the Prince of Orange came over into England to make his court to the Princeſs Mary, eldeſt daughter to the Duke of York. In which it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe his Highneſs had more views than one. As, 1. The uniting the intereſts of England with thoſe of the United Provinces. 2. The rendring his own authority in thoſe provinces more conſiderable. And, 3. as the Duke of York had no ſon at that time, he could not but entertain ſome hopes that the Princeſs he married might probably one day ſucceed to the crown of England; but ſurely he was not then ſanguine enough to expect that ſhe ſhould exclude herſelf to ſet him on the throne, as in fact ſhe did at the Revolution. He had abundant reaſon no doubt to make her a very complaiſant huſband, but as to affection I don't perceive there was a great deal more on his part than is uſual in political matches; tho' certain it is, ſhe was a fine woman, and wanted neither ſenſe or good-humour; and if any thing, had more of the latter than was conſiſtent with her true intereſt, being through an eaſineſs of temper ſurprized ſometimes into ſchemes very diſadvantageous to herſelf and family by thoſe about her. But to leave theſe reflections, and proceed to the match. The King having given his conſent to it, poſſibly with a view of advancing both their intereſts, the one being his ſiſter's ſon, and the other his brother's daughter; the Duke, who never flatly contradicted the King in any thing he inſiſted on, thought fit to reſign himſelf wholly to his Majeſty's pleaſure on this occaſion, though he was not without ſome apprehenſions of the conſequences that might attend it. And on the fourth of November, the Prince's birth-day, in the evening, the marriage-ceremony was performed at St James's palace by the Biſhop of London.

Plan of peace agreed on between King Charles II, and the Prince of Orange.

The Prince having thus happily finiſhed this great affair, repreſented to his Majeſty the weak condition of the Spaniſh Netherlands, and the probability of their falling into the hands of France, if England did not interpoſe to prevent it: whereupon, 'tis ſaid, that the King agreed, that unleſs France would reſtore to the Emperor, the Duke of Lorraine, and the States, all that had been taken from them during the war; and to the Spaniard the towns of Aeth, Charleroy, Oudenard, Courtray, Tournay, Conde, and Valenciennes; he would join the Confederates with a conſiderable army, and compel France to come into theſe terms by force. And upon the refuſal of the French King to ſubmit to this demand, his Britiſh Majeſty did accordingly raiſe an army, and join the Confederates in the Low Countries; but the Dutch running precipitately into a ſeparate peace, the terms afterwards agreed on were leſs advantageous to their allies than they would otherwiſe have been; but this is a tranſaction which belongs to the ſucceeding year: We muſt firſt attend the Prince and Princeſs into Holland, who arrived there the latter end of November 1677, and obſerve the events of the following campaign in the Netherlands, which began exceeding early, for before the end of February 1677-8, the French King marched at the head of a great army into the Low Countries, and having made a feint, as if he intended to lay ſiege to Mons or Namur, and drawn the Confederate forces that way, he on a ſudden bent his march towards Ghent and Ypres, of both which towns he made himſelf maſter before the end of the month. Hereupon his Britiſh Majeſty, as has been intimated already, raiſed an army of twenty thouſand men, as fine troops as any in Europe, and embark'd them for Flanders with incredible expedition, which actually did, when nothing elſe could, prevent the remainder of the Spaniſh Netherlands falling under the power of France; and would the Dutch now have reſolved to continue the war, they and all their allies might have had ample ſatisfaction for their loſſes; but they had made their own terms advantageouſly, and had not honour enough to conſider their allies of the Empire, who came into the war in their greateſt diſtreſs, purely to prevent their being ſwallow'd up by France: Tho' it muſt be ſaid to the honour of the Prince of Orange, that he laboured with all his might to defeat this ſeparate treaty, which was carried on between France and Holland at Ghent, while the Ambaſſadors of France, and of all the Confederates, were negociating a general peace at Nimeguen, where this treaty being at firſt begun, and with ſome intermiſſions concluded, afterwards obtain'd the name of the Peace of Nimeguen; before the concluſion whereof, however, his Britiſh Majeſty obliged the French to abandon all their conqueſts in Sicily, and reſign the whole iſland into the hands of the Spaniards again; that being of too great conſequence to the trade of England in the Levant to be left under the dominion of France

Ghent and Ypres taken by the French.

England becomes a party in the war.

But notwithſtanding the States and the French had agreed upon all other matters, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty refuſing to evacuate the towns in Flanders which were to be reſtored to Spain, 'till the places taken from the Swedes in Germany were reſtored to that crown; the negociations were upon the point of breaking off, and more vigorous preparations made for war than ever: Marſhal Luxemburg block'd up Mons, and the Prince of Orange being joined by the Engliſh auxiliaries, was marching to the relief of it; but the French Miniſters, on the laſt day given them to declare whether they would evacuate the towns in Flanders or continue the war, conſented to the immediate ſurrender of the places agreed on, and the peace was ſign'd that very night. In the mean time the Prince of Orange, either not knowing, or diſſembling his knowledge of the peace, attack'd the Duke of Luxemburg in his camp at the abbey of St DENNIS near Mons, on the 14th of Auguſt 1678, and obtained a ſignal victory, though with great ſlaughter on both ſides. The next morning the Prince ſent a letter to Marſhal Luxemburg, to acquaint him that the peace was concluded; and this ſeems to be almoſt the only action in which the Prince of Orange met with ſucceſs during the whole ſeries of the war, which his friends aſcribe to the ſlowneſs of their German allies, and the poverty and indolence of the Spaniards, their forces being ſeldom in a condition to take the field till the French King had taken two or three of the ſtrongeſt frontier towns. But to proceed; the Spaniards thought fit to accept the conditions the Dutch had procured for them, and their plenipotentiaries ſign'd the peace accordingly about the latter end of September, tho' their German allies ſtill ſtood out in expectation of better terms.

The peace of Nimeguen ſigned, anno 1678.

A plan of peace entered into by the Engliſh and Dutch.

I ſhould have taken notice, that while the French were wavering and ſtarting difficulties about the execution of the treaty between them and the Dutch, England entered into a defenſive alliance with the United Provinces, wherein it was agreed, that the Kings of France and Spain ſhould be obliged to conclude a peace upon the following terms, viz. That the towns of Aeth, Charleroy, Oudenard, Courtray, Tournay, Conde, Valenciennes, and St Giſlian, with the duchy of Limburg and town of Binch, ſhould be reſtored to his Catholick Majeſty, with all the towns and places the French had poſſeſſed themſelves of in Sicily; but that the dutchy of Burgundy, or Franche Compte, ſhould reman in the hands of France. And as to France and the United Provinces, all places ſhould be reſtored which had been taken on either ſide; whereby the Dutch recovered that important city of Maeſtricht and it's dependencies. As to the Emperor and Empire, France was to reſtore all that had been taken from the Emperor, or the Princes of the Empire, during the war; and the duchy of Lorraine was to be reſtored to the Duke of that name; but we find ſeveral alterations made in this ſcheme afterwards, occaſioned by the too great eagerneſs of the Dutch to concluded the peace; for the Spainiards were not only obliged to renounce their intereſt in the duchy of Burgundy, or Franche Compte, comprizing the city of Beſançon and it's diſtrict; but the towns of Valenciennes, Bouchain, Conde, Cambray, Aire, St Omer, Ypres, Warwick, Warneton, Poperinghen, Pailleul, Caſſel, Bavay, and Maubeuge, with their appurtenances and dependencies, were alſo yielded to France, which had been taken from the Spaniard in this war, together with the town of Dinant, which the King of Spain engaged, that the Biſhop of Liege, the Sovereign of it, ſhould transfer to France.

Towns and countries yielded to France by the peace of Nimeguen in the Spaniſh Netherlands.

Abſtract of the peace between the Emperor and France concluded at Nimeguen 1678.

By the treaty between the Emperor and France, which was concluded at Nimeguen, the third of February 1678-9; it was agreed, That the peace concluded at Munſter anno 1648, ſhould be the foundation of this treaty and remain in force, where it was not altered by the preſent treaty. And the city of Philipſburg, which had been taken by the Emperor during the war, ſhould be confirmed to him by his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, as the city of Friburg, which had been taken by the arms of France, ſhould be confirmed to that crown.

The dutchy of Lorraine reſtored to the Duke, under ſome limitations.

His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty agreed alſo to yield up to the Duke of Lorraine all that duchy (except the capital city of Nancy and it's dependencies, which were by this treaty transferred to France) and the Duke of Lorraine was obliged to lay out a road half a league broad through his country, from the confines of France to Alſace, for facilitating the march of the French troops, which were to have a paſſage through his country at pleaſure, and all the villages and lands included in thoſe roads were to be the property of his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty. But his ſaid Majeſty, in conſideration of the town of Nancy, did transfer to the Duke of Lorraine the city of Toul; and if the revenue of Toul did not equal that of Nancy, the French King was to pay what was deficient. And by this treaty the Emperor agreed to reſtore the famous Prince WILLIAM EGON of Furſtemburg to his liberty; the occaſion of whoſe confinement has been already related in the modern Hiſtory of Germany.

The Prince of Furſtemburg ſet at liberty.

The Ambaſſadors from the States allowed the ſame honours as thoſe from crowned heads.

Soon after the peace of Nimeguen, the States General ſending a ſolemn embaſſy to the French court, and inſiſting that their Ambaſſadors ſhould be received with the ſame marks of honour as thoſe were who came from crowned heads, were for ſome time refuſed audience by the French King: but the Dutch tell us, that having ſhewn that theſe honours were granted them by HENRY IV, and LEWIS XIII, and even by his Majeſty himſelf in the year 1660; and that Ambaſſadors from the Venetians, the Duke of Savoy, and the Swiſs Cantons, were not denied this piece of reſpect; his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty at length complied with their demands, and they were admitted to their audience. But probably the principal inducement to this piece of complaiſance was the hopes of prevailing with their High Mightineſſes to ſtand neuter, while the grand Monarch made himſelf maſter of the reſt of the Spaniſh Netherlands and Alſace. The next year, anno 1680, the French propoſed that the States ſhould enter into a defenſive alliance with that crown, at which the Britiſh court taking the alarm, their Miniſter at the Hague declared, that his Majeſty could not look upon this propoſal otherwiſe than as intended againſt him, and uſed very moving arguments to diſſuade the States from entring into an alliance with France, which had the deſired effect. The French however did not lay aſide their deſign upon Flanders and Alſace, but ſometimes under pretence that the Spaniſh commiſſioners would not fairly adjuſt the limits with them in Flanders; and at the others, that his Catholick Majeſty retained the title of Duke of Burgundy, though that province was ſurrendered to France, threatened a ſudden rupture with the Spaniards. Upon the Rhine alſo the French erected courts or chambers of re-union, as they called them, by virtue whereof they extended their

dominion

Straſburg ſeized by the French.

And the duchy of Luxemburg.

And Orange.

dominion over ſeveral places and countries in the poſſeſſion of the Imperialiſts and German Princes, under pretence that they belonged to ſome cities or fortreſſes yielded to them by the late treaty of Nimeguen, or ſome former treaties; and not content with this, they proceeded to ſurprize and ſeize the Imperial city of Straſburg, the capital of Alſace, in the year 1681; at that time a town of as good trade, and as populous as moſt in Germany, but the fortifications miſerably neglected, after the cuſtom of the Germans: they have ſince been mightily improved by the French, while the trade is no leſs decayed under their tyrannical government; garriſons and citadels ever proving the bane of traffick. The French, about the ſame time, took poſſeſſion of almoſt the whole province of Luxemburg in the Netherlands, blocking up the capital city thereof with their troops. Whereupon, the Dutch looking upon a rupture on that ſide to be inevitable, entered into an alliance with Sweden, and propoſed the ſame to the court of Britain, which his Britiſh Majeſty declined, but aſſured the States, that if the French poſſeſſed themſelves of any conſiderable place in Flanders, he would declare war againſt them. The Emperor alſo finding no end of the encroachments of the French upon the Rhine, under colour of re-unions, came into the alliance with the States and Sweden for the defence of the German frontiers, as did ſeveral other Princes of Germany; at which the French King was ſo exaſperated, that he ſeized on the principality of Orange in France; nor would he be prevailed on to reſtore it, notwithſtanding the Britiſh Court eſpouſed the intereſt of that Prince, and joined with the Dutch in repreſenting the injuſtice of this proceeding.

The Dutch ſeize the Engliſh ſettlement at Bantam.

But while the Dutch were ſolliciting the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh in Europe, it ſeems they were diſpoſſeſſing them of their ſettlements and factories in India. Bantam in Java, the moſt commodious ſituation in the eaſt, for carrying on a trade with the Indian iſlands, was now to be raviſhed from us by our good friends the Dutch, even in a time of full peace, and when they were begging our protection againſt their enemies in this part of the world. By the account the Dutch themſelves give of this tranſaction, it is of a piece with the reſt of their behaviour towards the Engliſh in India. They repreſent Bantam as a powerful and populous kingdom, where trade flouriſhed extremely by the reſort of European nations thither, eſpecially the Engliſh; and pretend that the King of this place had made ſeveral attempts upon their darling ſettlement of Jacatra, or Batavia, a town about forty miles to the eaſtward of Bantam; that they were apprehenſive the neighbourhood of this Prince would ſooner or later be fatal to them, unleſs he was ſubdued: adding, that a favourable opportunity happened in the year 1681, when the old King of Bantam having reſigned the government to his youngeſt ſon, (the eldeſt having devoted himſelf to religion) the people diſſatisfied with the young gentleman's adminiſtration, depoſed him, and taking his brother out of the cloiſter, placed him on his throne; whereupon the old King reſumed the government again, or rather marched to the aſſiſtance of his younger ſon, while the eldeſt having made himſelf maſter of the caſtle of Bantam, implored the aſſiſtance of the Dutch. Our good allies hereupon immediately ſent him very conſiderable reinforcements both by ſea and land, and having defeated the father, and afterwards depoſed the ſon their allie, they uſurped the government of the place, ſeized upon the goods and effects of the Engliſh, and other European merchants, and expelled them the iſland, keeping poſſeſſion of the Engliſh ſettlement, the moſt conſiderable they had in India, without making any ſatisfaction for the merchandizes they ſeized, or reſtoring the factory from that day to this; which is repreſented by their friends in England as a trifling injury, not worth our demanding ſatisfaction for, of our good friends the Dutch. But if we conſider the ſituation of the place upon the ſtraights of Sunda, by which the ſeas of China and India have a communication, and that whoever is maſter of theſe ſtraights, and thoſe of Malacca, (as the Dutch now are) have it in their power to reſtrain all nations from entring the Chineſian ſeas, or having any intercourſe with the Molucca's and Banda iſlands, of more value for their ſpices than all the other Indian trade, muſt acknowledge that a more irreparable damage could not have been done to Britain: though had this been the only ſtratagem of this kind practiſed on that ſide of the world, we might poſſibly have imputed this enterprize to their fears of the King of Bantam, as is pretended. But it has been the conſtant practice of the Dutch, to force the Princes and Governors in the Indian iſlands, either to enter into contracts with them not to ſell the product or manufacture of their reſpective countries to any but themſelves; or if they refuſe, then to make war upon them, burn and deſtroy their countries, and maſſacre the inhabitants. At other times we find them blocking up their ports, and denying entrance to any ſhips but their own, aſſuming to themſelves the empire of the Indian ſeas, and all the iſlands and countries, that lie diſperſed in them; and the only reaſon they ſuffer us yet to trade to China and ſome parts of India is, becauſe very little advantage can accrue to Britain from the trade they have left us: and ſhould they deprive us of the whole, they might awaken the moſt drowſy and indolent amongſt us to demand ſatisfaction of them in Europe. But it muſt certainly render us deſpicable in the eyes of all the world, that we ſuffer that treacherous and encroaching people to deprive us entirely of the ſpices of the Eaſt, without ſo much as attempting the recovery of them; for it is theſe alone that render the trade of the Indies valuable. Theſe the Dutch exchange for other merchandizes all over Aſia and Europe, and have occaſion to lay out little treaſure in purchaſing the product of other countries. They have this inconceivable advantage by monopolizing the whole, that they ſet what price they pleaſe upon them, which they could not do while the Engliſh had a ſhare in the ſpices; this induced them to enter upon thoſe ſcenes of cruelty and treachery at Amboyna and Banda, mentioned in the former volume, and afterwards upon this villainous tranſaction at Bantam, leſt we ſhould one day attempt the recovery of what they formerly took from us, or diſcover ſome other country where theſe ſpices grow; either of which would bring down the price, and put us upon the level with them. If it be alledged, as it often is, that we muſt not quarrel with the Dutch on any account whatever, I muſt ſay we are in a very happy ſituation: Do we indeed ſtand in as much need of the Dutch as they formerly did of us, and can no longer ſubſiſt without their protection? I ſhould be aſhamed to hear any Engliſhman affirm this; not that I am for falling out with them or with any nation whatever, but upon the laſt neceſſity. At the ſame time, I cannot for my life apprehend, why we are not entitled to be fairly dealt with by the Dutch. Where two nations enter into an alliance or confederacy, it is preſumed to be for their mutual advantage, and not to give the one an opportunity, under a colour of friendſhip, of plundering the other of all they have. In partnerſhip, where one ſhall lay violent hands on what belongs to the other, and then repreſent the ill conſequences of quarrelling with him, would not the world look upon the injured party as a very deſpicable animal, not to aſſert his right? Shall a man be eſteemed litigious, becauſe he refuſes to part with his own and his family's ſubſiſtence? Or, will that people be thought unreaſonable who inſiſt upon reſtitution from a faithleſs allie, who has diſpoſſeſſed them of part of their territories and traffick in a time of full peace, and this in an hundred inſtances. The Engliſh Eaſt-India company upon this laſt inſtance of Dutch treachery, applied themſelves to his Britannick Majeſty for redreſs, who ordered his Miniſter at the Hague to demand ſatisfaction and reſtitution of the factory at Bantam; which the Dutch indeed promiſed from time to time, without any intention of performing; at leaſt never any thing was done in it from that day to this, for which it is not very difficult to account.

Courtray and Luxemburg taken by the French.

The French continuing their encroachments in the Spaniſh Netherlands on one pretence or other, the Spaniards, in hopes of being ſupported by the Germans and the Dutch, declared war againſt them in the year 1683; but being unprovided of men and money, they loſt Courtray and Dixmude in one campaign, and Luxemburg the next, when the Dutch marching to their aſſiſtance, the French King was content to grant them a truce for twenty years, which was ſigned the 15th of Auguſt 1684, at Ratiſbon; but their High Mightineſſes could not procure any ſatisfaction to be made to the Prince of Orange for his principality, which the Grand Monarch had taken poſſeſſion of, as is above related.

Duke of Monmouth's expedition to England.

Some Engliſh Malecontents, who had been engaged in conſpiracies againſt King CHARLES II, of whom the Duke of Monmouth, natural ſon to that Prince, and the Earl of Argyle, a Scot, were the chief; being fled into the Low Countries, and hearing of the death of his Majeſty, concerted meaſures with their friends in Britain, ſoon after King JAMES's acceſſion to the crown, to raiſe an inſurrection; the one in the weſt of England, and the other in Scotland, and bought up great quantities of arms and ammunition in Holland, to be employed in that ſervice; of which the King, who ſucceeded his brother in the throne on the ſixth of February 1684-5, having intelligence, required the States to deliver them up: whereupon the Duke of Monmouth retired to Bruſſels; but the Marquis de Grana, Governor of the Spaniſh Netherlands, receiving a letter from King JAMES, intimating that the Duke was fomenting a rebellion againſt him, his Grace was obliged to leave the Spaniſh territories; and returning into Holland again, he prepared, with the Earl of Argyle, for their intended expedition againſt Britain. Dr BURNET acquaints us, that Argyle having met with a rich widow at Amſterdam, zealous for the cauſe, ſhe furniſhed him with ten thouſand pounds, with which he bought arms and ammunition for the enterprize, and that the Duke of Monmouth would have embarked for Scotland with him, but that Argyle did not offer him the command, and on the contrary, adviſed his making a diverſion in England; which the Lord GREY, FERGUSON, and the Lady HARRIOT WENTWORTH, who conſtantly attended the Duke, were very zealous for. He adds, that in point of conſcience, the Duke and this Lady looked upon their cohabitation to be very innocent, his Grace having been married to the Ducheſs before he was capable of making a choice, (though he was above the age of conſent the law requires) and therefore they held the marriage with the Ducheſs was void. That the Lady HARRIOT had ſo poſſeſſed him with her enthuſiaſtical conceits, that they fancied their living together was approved by God. The Duke pawned his jewels to buy arms for the intended expedition, which were pretended to be ſhipped for Spain: but the Earl of Argyle being firſt ready, embarked the ſecond of May 1685, and ſetting ſail the ſame day with three ſhips, arrived on the fifth of the ſame month at the iſles of Orkney, in the north of Scotland, where ſending his Secretary and Surgeon on ſhore, they were both ſeized by the inhabitants, and ſent to Edinburgh. The Earl therefore meeting with ſuch diſcouragements here, ſet ſail again for the weſt Highlands, and on the 20th landed near Dunſtaffnage, a ruinous caſtle of his own, where he left a garriſon, and marched afterwards through the counties of Argyle and Lorn, inciting the inhabitants to join him: but all the men he could raiſe did not amount to above four or five thouſand, with whom he marched to the iſle of Boot, and encamped; but being purſued by the King's troops, they fled from one iſland to another, leaving their ſpare arms and ammunition in the caſtle of Ellengreg, with an hundred and fifty men to defend it; but two or three ſmall frigates coming before the caſtle the ſame day, the garriſon fled, and the King's forces took poſſeſſion of the place, where they found five thouſand ſmall arms, five hundred barrels of gun-powder, and the reſt of the rebels ammunition. Argyle in the mean time, marched through his own country of Argyleſhire towards Glaſgow, being cloſely purſued by the King's forces; and the rebels not finding themſelves in a condition to make head againſt them, ſoon after diſperſed; and Argyle himſelf running into a bog up to the neck, was knocked down and taken priſoner the 17th of June, and beheaded the 30th of the ſame month at Edinburgh, ſtanding outlawed for high-treaſon on a former conſpiracy againſt the government. With him was taken RUMBALD the maltſter, who propoſed the aſſaſſinating the late King CHARLES II, as he came by his houſe, called the Rye-houſe, in Hertfordſhire, who was alſo hanged at Edinburgh; and thus ended this ill-concerted inſurrection in Scotland.

Argyle's expedition to Scotland.

The Duke of Monmouth embarks.

The Duke of Monmouth having hired a man of war of thirty-two guns, and three ſmall veſſels in Holland, embarked arms for five thouſand men upon them; of which the Engliſh Envoy at the Hague having notice, preſſed the States to ſtop them in their ports: and one of the ſmall veſſels was actually ſeized, but the Duke uſed ſuch diligence, that he eſcaped out of the Texel with the reſt on the 24th of May. The States, as well as the Prince of Orange, were very averſe to this expedition of the Duke's, for they were conſcious if it ſucceeded, the Prince muſt never expect to mount the throne of England; therefore King JAMES no ſooner made application to them to ſend over the ſix Britiſh regiments in their ſervice, but they complied with him, and readily offered to enter into any other meaſures to defeat the Duke's deſigns. His Grace has been blamed by ſome of his friends for entering ſo precipitately on this enterprize, but as Argyle was at this time making a diverſion in his favour in Scotland, and himſelf and his friends were in danger of being ſeized in Holland, he was really under a neceſſity of embarking as he did, and could not defer it. The Duke meeting with croſs winds, and a tempeſtuous paſſage, was longer at ſea than he expected, it being the 11th of June when he appeared before the port of Lyme in Dorſetſhire. He went on ſhore with his ſmall body, which did not amount to an hundred men, the ſame afternoon; and having in a ſhort prayer implored the bleſſing of heaven on his undertaking, he ſet up his ſtandard in the market-place of Lyme, and ordered a long declaration, containing the reaſons of this expedition, to be read to the people; in which he charges King JAMES (the Duke of York, as he there ſtiles him) with uſurpation and tyranny; with aſſaſſinating the Earl of Eſſex, and even poiſoning his brother, the late King CHARLES; declaring that he will purſue the ſaid Duke of York as a mortal and bloody enemy, and endeavour as well with his own hand as the aſſiſtance of his friends, to have juſtice executed upon him: and ſo exceeding popular was the Duke of Monmouth at this time, that multitudes of the common people came over to him. On the other hand, King JAMES having acquainted the houſes of Parliament with the Duke's being landed at Lyme, they attended his Majeſty with an addreſs, promiſing to ſtand by him with their lives and fortunes, and immediately paſſed a bill of attainder of high-treaſon againſt the Duke, deſiring his Majeſty would ſet a reward of five thouſand pounds upon his head. From Lyme the Duke marched to Taunton-Dean in Somerſetſhire, having increaſed his army to five or ſix thouſand men; and here he took upon him the title of King, and was ſolemnly proclaimed. On the 21ſt of June, he advanced to Bridgewater, the militia conſtantly retiring before him, and ſome of them deſerting over to him, which made their officers cautious of engaging, finding them more inclined to the Duke than to the King; but his Majeſty ſending down a body of regular troops againſt the rebels, under the command of the Earl of FEVERSHAM and the Lord CHURCHILL, this ſoon altered the caſe, and the Duke of Monmouth received a total defeat at Sedgmore, near Bridgewater, on the ſixth of July 1685; the Lord GRAY, who commanded his horſe, being taken priſoner the next day, and on the eighth, the Duke himſelf was found in a ditch covered with fern, in a very abject condition, and being brought priſoner to London, was beheaded on the fifteenth of the ſame month. But to return to Holland.

Steps towards the Prince of Orange's expedition to England.

Male-adminiſtration of King JAMES.

The States reaſons for aſſiſting the Prince of Orange in his expedition.

The Engliſh Envoy at the Hague preſented memorial after memorial to the States upon the affair of Bantam to very little purpoſe, he demanded alſo, that Dr BURNET, and ſome others, who had been convicted of a conſpiracy againſt his Majeſty might be delivered up; but as the Dutch were now concerting meaſures to incite an inſurrection in Britain themſelves, and the Doctor was made uſe of by them as an inſtrument to effect it, their compliance was not to be expected in this particular, any more than the ſending back the ſix Britiſh regiments in the ſervice of the States, which that Miniſter alſo demanded; for this had been to defeat their grand deſign. And it muſt be confeſſed, that the meaſures King JAMES had taken ever ſince the defeat of Monmouth to render his ſubjects malecontents, had given the Dutch but too much cauſe to promiſe themſelves ſucceſs upon an invaſion of Britain: for he had introduced Popiſh officers into civil and military employments in all the three kingdoms, and claimed and actually exerciſed a power of diſpenſing with the laws. He ſet up an eccleſiaſtical commiſſion, proſecuting the clergy and univerſities in an unprecedented manner, diſplaced many Proteſtant officers in the army, and ſupplied their rooms with Iriſh Papiſts; and according to ſome, was entirely governed by Jeſuitical councils: but I take the Jeſuits to be a more ſubtle generation than to have put the King upon ſuch meaſures as muſt infallibly ruin both themſelves and him. There is much more reaſon to believe, that he was put upon doing many things by falſe friends in his councils, on purpoſe to render him odious to his people; for it may be demonſtrated at this day, that ſome who had the greateſt influence on his councils, kept a conſtant correſpondence with his enemies, and his bigottry for his religion ſo blinded him, that he did not ſufficiently animadvert on their conduct, though he had repeated intimations of their treacherous practices: even the birth of the Prince of Wales, which the King's friends looked upon to be of vaſt advantage to his cauſe, by the reports which were induſtriouſly ſpread of his being ſpurious, was made inſtrumental to his ruin. The Prince of Orange indeed ſent over a Miniſter to compliment the King on his birth, and ordered the ſame prayers to be uſed in his chapel at the Hague for the Prince of Wales as were uſed in the churches in England; but ſtill it was ſuggeſted by the friends of the Prince of Orange, that this was a cheat put upon him by the Jeſuits, in order to exclude the Princeſs Royal his conſort from the throne. The common people of England, who were terrified with the apprehenſions of Popery and Slavery breaking in upon them, made no difficulty in crediting the ſtory of the Prince's illegitimacy, and the Dutch had more reaſons than one to promote the belief of it. While King JAMES remained upon the throne, they had ſufficient reaſon to believe he would inſiſt upon a ſhare in the Indian trade, and a reſtoration of the iſlands and factories they had taken from us: that both the Engliſh and French would endeavour to reduce their naval force, and reſtrain that inſolent State within due bounds. Whereas if they could give a King to Britain, and, according to their own expreſſion, take us out of the hands of France, they had reaſon to believe the Engliſh would be made ſubſervient to all their deſigns; that they ſhould hear no more of their encroachments on the Britiſh trade: on the contrary, when the Prince of Orange ſhould be at the head of the Engliſh forces, they might reſt aſſured he would defend their frontiers againſt France, and perhaps enlarge them at the expence of other nations. And there appeared to be but little hazard or difficulty in bringing about a Revolution in Britain; for the miniſtry there had put King JAMES upon doing ſo many illegal and unpopular things, with an intention of ruining him; that his ſubjects were in general become malecontents, and even the ſoldiers and ſeamen in his pay ready to deſert on the firſt appearance of a competitor: the very Prime Miniſter and others of the council, many of the Biſhops, the Nobility and Gentry, the Generals and Admirals had joined in an invitation of the Prince of Orange, to ſecure them againſt Popery and Slavery; inſomuch, that if the Prince had the leaſt ſpark of ambition in him, which his friends ſay he did not want, ſo favourable an opportunity of placing himſelf at the head of the Proteſtant intereſt, and of a much more extenſive confederacy, was not to be reſiſted. For the Emperor, and moſt of the German Princes, Sweden, Denmark, Spain, and even the Pope himſelf, were ready to ſupport him in his intended enterprize, under an apprehenſion that if England ſhould unite it's forces with France, the reſt of the powers of Europe would ſoon lie at the mercy of LEWIS XIV. The Prince of Orange therefore, and the States having all imaginable encouragement to attempt a Revolution in England, ordered a fleet of fifty ſail of men of war, and five hundred tranſports, to be prepared with all expedition, ſelecting fourteen or fifteen thouſand of their beſt troops to be embarked on board the fleet, whoſe places were ſupplied by others from Sweden, leſt the French King ſhould attack the Netherlands in their abſence. Of theſe preparations King JAMES received intelligence from Mr SKELTON, his Miniſter at the Hague, and from the French King, aſſuring him that this armament was intended againſt England; but the Miniſters in the Engliſh Court, who had the greateſt influence over that Prince, and actually maintained a correſpondence with his enemies, lulled him aſleep, and made him neglect the proper means for his defence, till every thing was ready for the deſcent. The French King, apprehending of what conſequence the depoſing of his allie, the King of England, might be to his ambitious deſigns, propoſed the ſending over twenty or thirty thouſand men to his aſſiſtance; which King JAMES's treacherous miniſters had the addreſs to prevail with him to refuſe. Then his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty threatened the Dutch, that if any attempt was made upon his allie the King of England, he would look upon it as done to himſelf, and immediately invade their frontiers; but the confederacy againſt him was ſo great, and the bringing Britain into it of that importance, that his threats were ſlighted, and only ſerved to make his enemies more induſtrious in their preparations.

King JAMES being at length convinced of his miſtake, and finding he had been betrayed and flattered into meaſures the moſt oppoſite to his intereſt, hoped to retrieve the affections and eſteem of his ſubjects, by undoing all that he had done for two or three years paſt. Accordingly he endeavoured to reconcile himſelf to the Biſhops and Univerſities, by reſtoring to them their authority and privileges. He reſtored alſo the charters of London, and other corporations which had been taken from them, diſplaced many of the Popiſh officers and magiſtrates he had introduced, and diſgraced the miniſter, by whoſe advice he had been principally governed and precipitated into thoſe fatal meaſures.

The Prince of Orange embarks his forces.

In the mean time the Prince of Orange proceeded to embark his forces, and publiſhed a declaration, dated the tenth of October 1688, N. S. wherein he charges King JAMES with male-adminiſtration in all the inſtances above-cited, and with impoſing a pretended Prince upon the nation: Aſſuring them, that this expedition was intended only to procure a free Parliament, to whom he ſhould refer the enquiry into the legitimacy of the pretended Prince of Wales; to reſtore the conſtitution of the government to it's antient legal ſtate, and ſecure the people againſt Popery and arbitrary power.

The States alſo publiſhed their reaſons for aſſiſting the Prince of Orange with a fleet and army; wherein having taken notice of the invitation given him by the nobility, clergy, and gentry of the kingdom, they declare the apprehenſions they had of the French King, if King JAMES ſhould render himſelf abſolute, and join his forces with his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty; ſuggeſting that nothing leſs than the abſolute ruin of their ſtate would probably be the conſequence of it: for both Kings, either for reaſons of ſtate, or out of an averſion to their religion, would probably endeavour to ſubdue their country; which this expedition therefore was intended to defeat. From whence, and what has been already obſerved on this head, it is evident, that it was their own preſervation and intereſt which put them upon this invaſion, more than any regard to their good friends on this ſide the water; though for ſome years after the Revolution, it was thought impoſſible ever to pay that immenſe debt of gratitude we owed to theſe our high and mighty deliverers. But to proceed; the Prince having aſſembled a fleet of fifty men of war of the line, twenty-five frigates, as many fire-ſhips, and between four and five hundred tranſports, on which he embarked ten thouſand foot and four thouſand horſe, ſet ſail from the Briel the nineteenth of October; being accompanied by the Earl of SHREWSBURY, the Earl of MACCLESFIELD, the Lord Viſcount MORDANT, the Earl of ARGYLE, the Lord WILTSHIRE, the Lord PAWLET, the Lord ELAN, ſon to the Marquis of Halifax, the Lord DUNBLAIN, ſon of the Earl of Danby, Admiral HERBERT, Colonel SIDNEY, Mr RUSSEL, Sir ROWLAND GWYN, the infamous FERGUSON, and Dr BURNET. The Prince himſelf was on board a frigate of thirty guns, with ſome few officers and intimate friends of the Dutch nation, and took his ſtation in the centre of the fleet during the voyage. The flag he carried at the topmaſt-head had the arms of the Prince and Princeſs wrought in it with theſe words, viz. *The Proteſtant Religion and Liberties of England.* The fleet had not been many hours at ſea before there aroſe a terrible ſtorm, which drove them back to Helvoetſluys, but without any conſiderable loſs.

On the firſt of November the Dutch fleet put to ſea again, and ſtood to the northward, the original deſign, 'tis ſaid, being to have landed in Yorkſhire; but the wind coming about eaſterly, it was afterwards determined to ſail for the channel, and on the third of the ſame month they paſt by the mouth of the river Thames, where the Earl of Dartmouth lay at anchor with the Engliſh fleet. The fourth, the Prince was driven by a ſtrong gale beyond Torbay, the place where he deſigned to have landed; but the wind ſhifting to the weſt on a ſudden, they were ſoon after brought into the bay; and the next day, the fifth of November, 1688, they landed moſt of their troops.

The Dutch land in Torbay.

But it is very natural to enquire here, what was become of that gallant army and fleet which King JAMES had raiſed and fitted out to prevent a deſcent, a deſcent, that the Prince of Orange met with no oppoſition at ſea, or at his landing? It has been intimated already, that the military men were not leſs diſguſted than other people, by breaking many Proteſtant officers, and ſupplying their rooms with Engliſh or Iriſh Papiſts; which diſguſt JOHNSON, and ſome other pamphleteers, had heightened, by expoſing the adminiſtration. A declaration alſo was publiſhed by the Prince of Orange, wherein he addreſſes himſelf to the army, and tells them, he was come to reſcue them from Popery and Slavery, and hopes they would not be made inſtruments of enſlaving the nation, and ruining the Proteſtant religion; for when that was done, they muſt expect to be caſhiered, as the Engliſh officers and ſoldiers in Ireland had been, and many Proteſtant officers in England, for adhering to the conſtitution and religion eſtabliſhed: That they muſt not flatter themſelves to be better uſed in the end, and therefore invites them to join his forces, promiſing rewards to thoſe who ſhould come over to him.

A letter from Admiral HERBERT alſo was printed and diſperſed in the Engliſh fleet; wherein he repreſents the ruin that attended them and their families, if they delayed to join the Prince of Orange; and how infamous they would appear to poſterity, if by their means the Proteſtant religion, and the liberties of their country ſhould be deſtroyed. That he was well aſſured the beſt part of the army, as well as the nation, were in the Prince's intereſt, and exhorts them to be beforehand with the army, in aſſiſting an enterprize which was undertaken to ſecure all that was valuable to them.

King JAMES's preparations againſt the Dutch.

King JAMES was not backward in his naval preparations to defeat the deſigns of the Dutch; for we find him in June 1688, diſpatching his cruiſers to obſerve the motions of their fleet; and not long after a ſquadron of men of war, under the command of Sir ROGER STRICKLAND, put to ſea to intercept their paſſage, if they ſhould come out, or at leaſt to follow them and prevent their diſembarking any troops, whether they bent their courſe northward, weſtward, or into the Thames mouth; for the King had no manner of intelligence for what part of England they were deſigned; and it ſeems probable their own Commanders were not determined what courſe to ſteer, till they found how the winds would favour them. The King ſeems moſt apprehenſive of their landing in the north, by his marching a body of his troops that way, and leaving the weſt in a manner deſtitute of Forces. The firſt of October following, the Engliſh fleet being increaſed to threeſcore ſail, of which thirty-eight were of the line of battle, the Lord Dartmouth was appointed Admiral. The King, in his written inſtructions to that Lord, acquaints him, that he had undoubted advice, that a great and ſudden invaſion from Holland was intended, and that therefore he ſhould haſten the equipping out ſuch ſhips as were not come to the appointed rendezvous, and endeavour to prevent the approach of the Dutch fleet to the Engliſh coaſts, and their making a deſcent. The Engliſh fleet being at the Gunfleet (in the mouth of the river Thames) at this time, a council of war was held, and by a great majority, it was reſolved to continue there; though ſome were of opinion it was more adviſable to proceed to the coaſt of Holland, and there attend the coming out of the Dutch fleet: which laſt propoſal, ſays my author, Secretary BURCHET, certainly carried great weight, *Had there been a real deſign of obſtructing the Prince of Orange in his paſſage to England.* But inſtead of that, matters were ſo concerted and agreed among the flag-officers and commanders, who had frequently private meetings, that had the Admiral come fairly up with the Dutch, it would not have been in his power to have done much againſt them: while they were buſied in theſe cabals, the Dutch fleet paſſed by the Gunfleet in ſight of them. And ſince the Commanders were thus affected, it is no great matter whether the ſtorm which Mr BURCHET mentions, or their own inclinations, prevented their weighing anchor, and ſailing in purſuit of the Dutch; they would have left their anchors behind them, 'tis preſumed, if they had been very zealous for the ſervice. There is little heed to be given to what ſome officers alledge as an excuſe for deſerting their Prince, that the winds upon all occaſions favoured the Dutch, and were contrary to the Engliſh. Nor does there ſeem to be any thing very miraculous in the caſe, notwithſtanding Dr BURNET's opinion of the matter, that people who were reſolved not to fight, ſhould ſeldom meet, and if they did, ſhould part without ſtriking a ſtroke; but heaven is ever dragged in to favour what we deſire ſhould ſucceed; this having been found one of the moſt effectual ſtratagems to wheedle the vulgar in all ages. But to proceed in Mr BURCHET's account of this tranſaction: So ſoon, ſays he, as the Engliſh fleet could purchaſe their anchors, they put to ſea, and bent their courſe weſtward; and coming in a few days off of Torbay, the Dutch ſhips were there diſcovered. We had not viewed them long, e'er a ſtorm aroſe, and forced us out of the channel; but returning in a little time, we gave the Dutch an opportunity of ſeeing what our ſtrength might have enabled us to do, *Had our inclinations been to treat them as enemies.* (From whence it is evident, it was want of inclination, and not the want of favourable winds, that prevented their falling upon the Dutch at this time, as it is extremely probable therefore it was before, when they pretended they could not get up their anchors at the Gunfleet.) But the Prince being landed, ſays Mr BURCHET, and all things favouring his deſigns, the Admiral ſailed with his fleet to the Downs; where ſeveral officers known, or at leaſt ſuſpected, to be Roman Catholicks, being diſmiſſed from their employments, an humble addreſs was preſented from the reſt to his Highneſs the Prince. After conſidering which account, I believe few people at this day will be of opinion, that heaven need have been at the expence of a miracle, to prevent the Engliſh fleet's falling upon the Dutch.

The Prince of Orange being landed, proceeded no leſs proſperouſly on ſhore than he had done at ſea; for he advanced on the eighth of November to Exeter without oppoſition, and made his entry into that city in a triumphant manner; but the people did not ſeem at firſt very forward in coming in to him, having been terrified not long before with the executions that followed the Duke of Monmouth's rebellion. Here therefore the Prince thought fit to make a halt, till he was better informed how the country ſtood affected; and he was in ſuch ſuſpenſe at this time, that it was once debated, whether he ſhould not re-imbark his troops, and return to Holland. But a few days mightily altered the face of his affairs; for on the fifteenth of November great numbers of gentry of the neighbouring counties came in, and offered their aſſiſtance to the Prince; among whom were Sir EDWARD SEYMOUR, Sir WILLIAM PORTMAN, Sir FRANCIS WAR, &c. who propoſed the entring into an aſſociation for their mutual defence, and an inſtrument was drawn up accordingly; wherein they promiſe to the Prince, and to each other, to maintain the cauſe they were engaged in, and never to ſeparate, till their religion and liberties were ſecured to them in a free Parliament. And if their enemies ſhould attempt any thing againſt the life of the Prince, they ſolemnly engage to purſue them, and all they found in arms againſt them, with the utmoſt ſeverity of a juſt revenge; which being ſigned by all the nobility and gentry about the Prince, was ſent to Oxford and other parts of England, where it was ſigned by many more. In the mean time ſeveral others of the nobility and gentry joined the Prince at Exeter, particularly the Lord COLCHESTER, ſon to the Earl Rivers, an officer of the life-guards, and ſome private troopers of that body, the Earl of ABINGDON, Mr RUSSEL, and others; and ſoon after the Lord CORNBURY, ſon to the Earl of Clarendon, a Colonel of dragoons lying at Saliſbury, who pretending orders from the King to diſlodge the enemy from an advanced poſt, brought over his own regiment, and great part of the regiments of horſe of Berwick, St Albans, and Fenwick, and at the ſame time there were inſurrections in the Prince's favour in all parts of the kingdom.

King JAMES, obſerving how the Prince's troops every day increaſed by the defection of his own, which he apprehended could only be prevented by his appearing at the head of them, and entring upon immediate action, went down to Saliſbury; but to his great ſurprize, ſome of the principal officers of the army deſired the Earl of Feverſham, their General, to acquaint his Majeſty, that though they were ready to ſpill the laſt drop of their blood for him on any other occaſion, they could not in conſcience ſerve againſt the Prince, who was come over with no other deſign than to procure the calling of a free parliament, for the ſecurity of their religion and liberties. And the next day the Lord CHURCHILL, who commanded a brigade, and was the King's principal favourite, and conſequently the laſt man whoſe fidelity he could have ſuſpected, went over to the Prince, accompanied by the Duke of GRAFTON, and many of his officers and ſoldiers which ſerved under him. And now the King being entirely convinced there was no confiding in his troops, thought fit to return towards London, being deſerted on the way thither by Prince GEORGE of Denmark, the Duke of ORMOND, and others of the firſt quality, who left him at Andover: and arriving at Whitehall the twenty-ſixth of November, he found the Princeſs ANNE of Denmark alſo had privately retired from thence the night before; which ſo affected him, 'tis ſaid, that in the anguiſh of his ſoul, he cried out on entring his apartment, *God help me, my own children have forſaken me!*

In this diſtreſs his Majeſty ſummoned the Lords ſpiritual and temporal, which were about town to attend him, and give him their advice; who unanimouſly agreed, That conſidering the preſent ſtate of the kingdom, it would be adviſable for his Majeſty to grant a general pardon to all who had joined the Prince before or ſince his landing; and that he would depute ſome Lords to treat with the Prince concerning a ſuſpenſion of arms, and bringing matters to an accommodation: and laſtly, to quiet his people's fears, would immediately turn all Roman Catholick Officers and Magiſtrates out of their employments. And accordingly a proclamation was iſſued the 30th of November, for the Parliament to aſſemble the 15th of January following, and the Marquis of Halifax, the Earl of Rocheſter, and the Lord Godolphin, were appointed Commiſſioners to treat with the Prince of Orange. As to the turning out the Roman Catholicks, his Majeſty declared he would leave that alſo to the Parliament. The Commiſſioners ſet out from London to attend the Prince the ſecond of December, the Earl of Clarendon having deſerted his Majeſty the day before. On the ſixth of December the King received an expreſs from the Commiſſioners, acquainting him that they were to meet the Prince that night at Ameſbury; but the next day there arrived a ſecond expreſs, to acquaint him that the Prince would meet them at Hungerford, and had ſent the Earls of Clarendon and Oxford to them to deſire their propoſals in writing: which anſwer was not only looked upon as dilatory and evaſive, but to expreſs a contempt of his Majeſty; and the rather, becauſe the Earl of Clarendon, the profeſſed enemy of the Marquis of Halifax, the King's principal commiſſioner, was ſent with it. But however that was, the Commiſſioners on the eighth of December delivered to the Prince their propoſals in writing; wherein they obſerved, that as all the cauſes of complaint enumerated by the Prince ſeemed to be referred to a free Parliament, the King had actually iſſued a proclamation for their meeting, and they were come to adjuſt all matters neceſſary to the freedom of elections, and the ſecurity of their ſitting.

In anſwer to this, the Prince required, 1. That all Papiſts, and unqualified perſons, ſhould be diſarmed and removed from all employments. 2. That all proclamations againſt him and his adherents ſhould be recalled. 3. That the Tower of London and Tilbury-Fort be put into the hands of the city. 4. That if his Majeſty remained at London during the ſitting of Parliament, his Highneſs might be there alſo with an equal numof troops; or whatever diſtance the King thought fit to be, his Highneſs might be at the ſame diſtance. 5. That the armies be thirty miles from London, and no other forces admitted into the kingdom: and for prevention of the French landing, that Portſmouth be put into ſuch hands as ſhould be agreed between his Majeſty and the Prince. And laſtly, that part of the publick revenue be aſſigned for the ſubſiſtence of the Prince's troops.

With theſe conditions his Majeſty did not at firſt ſeem to be diſſatisfied; but the Popiſh party about him, 'tis ſaid, dreading nothing more than the meeting of the Parliament, concluding that their religion at leaſt muſt be given up, and ſome of them ſacrificed to atone for paſt miſcarriages; and the King himſelf apprehending that ſuch limitations would be put upon the prerogative, and his power ſo reſtrained, that he ſhould be little more than a cypher in the government; but chiefly relying on the aſſiſtance of the French King to reſtore him to his dominions, he determined to retire into France, and wait for a favourable opportunity, when he might return again with honour. And it was ſuppoſed, that the Prince alſo had ſome good Proteſtants about his Majeſty, who

King JAMES leaves Whitehall, and attempts to go beyond ſea.

encouraged him in theſe ſentiments, and terrified him with imaginary plots againſt his life, believing they ſhould be beſt able to accompliſh the ſcheme they had laid in his abſence. But whatever were the motives, in the night between the ninth and tenth of December, the King ſent away his Queen and ſon, an infant of ſix months old, who landed ſafely at Calais the next day; and the following night the King took water at Whitehall, in order to embark for that kingdom, leaving a letter directed to his General, the Earl of Feverſham; wherein he tells him, that if he could have relied on his troops, he would have had one blow for it, but though there were many brave men amongſt them, he had been adviſed by the General himſelf, and ſeveral other officers, that it was no way adviſable to adventure himſelf at their head, or fight the Prince of Orange with them; therefore he could only now thank thoſe who had been loyal and faithful to him, and hoped they would ſtill retain their fidelity, though he did not expect they ſhould expoſe themſelves at this juncture, but hoped they would keep themſelves free from aſſociations, and ſuch pernicious ſnares. Before his Majeſty took water, 'tis ſaid, he ordered the writs which were iſſued for calling a parliament to be recalled, and in his paſſage croſs the Thames, threw the broad ſeal into the river; which his adverſaries afterwards made an evidence of his abdicating the government.

Upon the King's withdrawing himſelf, the officers of the army who were about town met at Whitehall, and ſent an expreſs to the Prince of Orange to acquaint him with it; aſſuring his Highneſs, that they would aſſiſt the Lord-Mayor in keeping the city quiet till his arrival there. At the ſame time the Lords ſpiritual and temporal, to the number of thirty, which were about the city, aſſembled at Guildhall, among whom was the Archbiſhop of Canterbury; and having ſent for the Lord-Mayor and Aldermen, drew up a declaration; wherein reciting that his Majeſty had withdrawn himſelf, as they apprehended, in order to depart the kingdom, they unanimouſly reſolved to apply themſelves to the Prince of Orange, and to aſſiſt his Highneſs in the obtaining a free Parliament, wherein their laws, liberties, and properties, might be ſecured; and that in the mean time they would endeavour to preſerve the peace and ſecurity of thoſe great cities of London and Weſtminſter, by diſarming all Papiſts about the ſame; which declaration being ſigned by all the Lords preſent, the Earl of Pembroke, the Lord Viſcount Weymouth, the Biſhop of Ely, and the Lord COLEPEPER, were appointed to attend his Highneſs with it; and to acquaint him that they had taken the keys from Colonel SKELTON, Lieutenant of the Tower, and given the command of it to the Lord LUCAS, which the Prince approved.

The city of London alſo addreſſed the Prince, deſiring his protection, and that he would repair thither: and another addreſs of the ſame purport was preſented him by the lieutenancy. And notwithſtanding the militia were under arms, the mob roſe and demoliſhed the maſs-houſes, plundering the houſes of ſome perſons of quality of the Popiſh religion, particularly thoſe of the Spaniſh and Florentine Ambaſſadors, where many wealthy Roman Catholicks had lodged their beſt effects, and where the conſecrated plate and utenſils belonging to the royal chapels were depoſited, as in places of ſecurity, and what the mob could not carry away they burnt; neither were they much interrupted in theſe riotous practices, either by the militia or civil magiſtrates, who were moſt of them ſecretly pleaſed to ſee them exerciſe their fury againſt the Papiſts, from whom they were apprehenſive of a treatment of the like nature but a little before. The Lord Chancellor JEFFERIES alſo fell into the hands of the mob, and was in danger of being pulled to pieces, but was ſecured by the militia, and carried to the Tower at his own requeſt, as a place where he might be moſt ſecure from the inſults of the people, who were ſufficiently enraged againſt him, as one of the principal inſtruments in their late oppreſſions.

The Earl of Feverſham in the mean time having received his Majeſty's letter at Uxbridge, (where he lay with part of the army, in expectation of his Majeſty's coming down thither) having drawn out the troops, read the letter at the head of them, and afterwards diſbanded the army; which contributed to the diſtractions of the times; the ſoldiers being deſtitute of all means of ſubſiſtence, and forced to commit ſome irregularities. The next day happened that univerſal alarm over the whole kingdom, which obtained the name of *the Iriſh Fright*; when it was given out that the Papiſts and Iriſh regiments were burning and deſtroying the whole country. And as this report was ſpread in all parts of the kingdom at the ſame inſtant, it is ſuppoſed to have been a ſtratagem of the Prince's Generals, to create in the minds of the people the greater abhorrence of the late adminiſtration; as was a former account of the Papiſts preparing ſaws, ſpits, grid-irons, and other inſtruments of cruelty, in order to begin a perſecution againſt the Proteſtants, that ſhould equal any of thoſe in the primitive times. Thoſe fictions, how incredible ſoever, wrought wonderfully upon the common people, and even among thoſe who would be eſteemed ſomething above the vulgar, and ſerved to eſtabliſh the Prince's intereſt, and to beget in the people the utmoſt deteſtation of the late King and his Miniſters.

King JAMES ſtopt at Feverſham.

In the mean time his Majeſty, by contrary winds, or ſome other croſs accident, was detained upon the coaſt of Kent near Feverſham, when the ſeamen and fiſhermen thereabouts taking the liberty to ſearch all veſſels that paſſed that way for Popiſh prieſts, as they pretended, pillaged the paſſengers of what they had; and happening to ſeize the veſſel the King was in, uſed him a little roughly before they knew him, taking from him four hundred guineas, with ſome valuable ſeals and jewels: but a conſtable of the place at length diſcovering it was his Majeſty, fell upon his knees, and begged his pardon for the rudeneſs of the mob, commanding them to return what they had taken; but the King diſtributed the gold amongſt them, and kept only the ſeals and jewels. From hence his Majeſty was carried to an inn in the town, and ſending for the Earl of Winchelſea, who was at his ſeat in the neighbourhood, he prevailed upon the King not to leave the nation, but to return to London; and the Privy-Council alſo hearing where he was, ſent ſome of their number to attend him, and invite him to Whitehall. His Majeſty thereupon ſet out from Feverſham on the ſixteenth of December, and arrived at London the ſame night, with his guards and uſual ſplendour, being welcomed thither by the loud acclamations of the people, who made bonfires, rung their bells, and illuminated the ſtreets, as if his Majeſty had returned from ſome glorious expedition; which appeared to be no ſmall mortification to the Prince of Orange, who did not expect to have ſeen any thing of this kind, after the intelligence he had received of his Majeſty's being embarked for France: and it is evident this occurrence did a little ruffle the hero's temper, and induce him to forget the reſpect due to ſo near a relation and a crowned head; for the King ſending the Earl of Feverſham to the Prince, kindly to invite him to come to St James's palace, that they might perſonally confer together of the means for redreſſing the publick grievances, his Highneſs, inſtead of returning any anſwer, made the Earl of Feverſham priſoner, and ſigned a kind of an order, requiring King JAMES to remove out of his palace of Whitehall the ſeventeeth inſtant, to a houſe of the Dutcheſs of Lauderdale's at Ham, and commanded the Dutch guards to take poſſeſſion of the poſts about Whitehall that night by force, if the King's guards did not quit them voluntarily. King JAMES hereupon ſent for Count SOLMES, who commanded that detachment of the Dutch troops, who were ordered to take poſſeſſion of Whitehall, and earneſtly deſired him to let him have his own guards that night; but the Count anſwering he had poſitive orders to take the poſts at that time, the King bid him do as he was commanded, and the Engliſh guards thereupon retired. The Dutch having thus taken poſſeſſion of Whitehall, three Engliſh Lords from the Prince intruded into the King's apartment a little after midnight, when he was in bed, and ſhewed him the Prince's order above-mentioned for his leaving his palace, and removing to Ham, deſiring he would be gone early in the morning, that he might not meet the Prince in his way to London, whither he was to come that day: with which his Majeſty anſwered he would comply, but deſired he might rather go to Rocheſter than Ham, to which the Prince conſented; but would not ſuffer him to have his own guards or coaches to carry him by land, but compelled him, tho' the King urged the rigour of the ſeaſon and his ill ſtate of health, to go by water to Graveſend. And now, ſays one of our reverend Engliſh hiſtorians, the Prince having a clear ſtage, took this favourable opportunity of making his firſt appearance in London, (the ſame day the King was driven from his palace) where he received the congratulations of the nobility and gentry, and of the city of London, who but two days before had expreſſed no leſs joy at the arrival of his competitor King JAMES. The mob alſo, while their betters were complimenting the Prince, and offering him the adminiſtration, plundered the houſes of the Papiſts, not ſparing thoſe of the nobility and foreign miniſters.

The King goes over to France

The King having been uſed in that imperious manner by the Prince and his adherents at his return to London, and finding by their refuſing to treat with him, that he was no more to be conſidered as a ſovereign Prince, was apprehenſive that the next ſtep would be impriſonment at leaſt, which his preſent condition ſeemed to border upon, being put under a guard of foreigners; he took the opportunity therefore of a dark night, and went on board a ſhip provided for him in the river, on the twenty-third of December, early in the morning, and was ſoon after landed in France, to the unſpeakable joy of the Prince's party, as well as his own.

The Prince of Orange in the mean time having aſſembled about ſixty Lords, who ſat in their own houſe, and about an hundred and fifty Commoners, who were members in the reign of King CHARLES II, with the Aldermen of London, and part of the Common-Council, who ſat in the Lower-Houſe; he deſired their advice in the preſent conjuncture, and particularly as to the calling of a Parliament: whereupon they adviſed his Highneſs to ſend his letters to the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and to the ſeveral counties, univerſities, cities, boroughs, and cinque-ports of the kingdom. The letters for the counties to be directed to the Coroners of the reſpective counties, and in default of the Coroners to the reſpective Clerks of the peace; the letters for the univerſities to be directed to the Vice-chancellors; and the letters to the corporations to be directed to the chief magiſtrate in each; containing directions for chuſing members to repreſent them in parliament: notice of which elections to be publiſhed in the churches, and the ſaid Parliament to meet at Weſtminſter on the twenty-ſecond of January 1688-9.

The Prince of Orange alſo having aſſembled as many of the Scotch nobility and gentry as were about London, made a ſpeech to them much of the ſame purport with that he made to the Engliſh Lords and Gentlemen, viz. That the only reaſon that induced him to undergo ſo great an undertaking was, that he ſaw the laws and liberties of theſe kingdoms over-turned, and the Proteſtant religion in imminent danger, and deſired their advice in this conjuncture. Whereupon the aſſembly, having choſen Duke HAMILTON their Preſident, addreſſed his Highneſs, thanking him for this generous undertaking to preſerve their religion, laws, and liberties, and deſired he would take upon him the adminiſtration of the government, and the diſpoſal of the publick revenue, and call a Parliament to meet at Edinburgh the fourteenth of March. But the Preſbyterians in Scotland had been before-hand with the Lords, and taking the government into their hands, if it may be called a government, which conſiſted chiefly in plundering all that differed from them in opinion, not only Papiſts, but the Biſhops, Clergy, and people of the then eſtabliſhed Church.

King JAMES, apprehending from the ſteps that were taken in England, that there was a deſign to depoſe him, wrote letters to the Lords and others of his privy-council; wherein he deſires them to obſerve, that he had taken away all cauſes, and even pretences of diſcontent, and redreſſed all thoſe grievances that were ſet forth as the occaſion of the invaſion: That the Prince notwithſtanding had laid a reſtraint upon his perſon, and rendred it impoſſible to have a free Parliament by confining him; for as it was abſurd to call that a free Parliament, where a force was put upon either of the Houſes, it was much more ſo where the Sovereign, by whoſe authority they meet and ſit, and from whoſe aſſent all their acts receive their life and ſanction, is under actual confinement: That the ſenſe of the indignities he had ſuffered, and the apprehenſion of further attempts from thoſe who had already endeavoured to murther his reputation, by ſuggeſting he had impoſed a Prince of Wales upon the kingdom; and the conſideration of his royal father's maxim, *That there was little diſtance between the priſons and the graves of Princes*; had induced him to free himſelf from that unjuſt confinement, as well for the ſecurity of his perſon, as to put himſelf in a capacity of contributing to the peace and ſettlement of his kingdoms; and that no provocation of his ſubjects, or any other conſideration ſhould prevail with him to make the leaſt ſtep contrary to the true intereſt of the nation; which he required the Privy-Council to make known to the Lords, the city of London, and the reſt of his ſubjects, and that he deſired nothing more than a free Parliament, wherein their religion, liberties, and properties, might be ſecured. He deſired their advice therefore concerning his return to his people for the accompliſhment of theſe ends. This letter was printed and diſperſed about London, but no notice being taken of it by the Privy-Council, upon the aſſembling of the Convention-Parliament, King JAMES wrote another directed to the Lords and Commons: wherein he acquaints them, That nothing ſhould be wanting on his part for the redreſſing of former errors, or ſecuring the Proteſtant religion, or the property of the ſubject; deſiring to refer the whole to a Parliament legally called, freely elected, and held without reſtraint: That he ſhould extend his mercy even to thoſe who betrayed him, ſome few excepted, reſolving by an act of oblivion to cover all paſt faults. This letter was preſented to the Speaker of the Houſe of Lords the Marquis of Halifax by the Lord Preſton, and a copy of it was alſo given to the Speaker of the Commons; but neither the one or the other was opened, and very little notice taken of them.

Various opinions on the abdication.

In the convention, though it was generally agreed to provide againſt the return of King JAMES, and his being admitted any more to the adminiſtration of the government; yet various were the opinions on whom the government ſhould devolve at this conjuncture. One ſet of men inſiſted, That King JAMES having deſerted the kingdom, and appointed no perſon to adminiſter the government in his abſence, this amounted in law to a demiſe, and the next heir ought to ſucceed as if he was dead. Another party were of opinion, That King JAMES having broken the original contract between King and People, by violating the fundamental laws, and abdicating the government, the throne was thereby become vacant, the government diſſolved, and the people were impowered by the law of nature to fill the throne, or to ſet up any other form of government they ſaw fit. A third ſort held, That King JAMES having embraced a falſe religion, which obliged him to deſtroy thoſe ſubjects he ought to protect, the caſe was the ſame as if the King was under any natural incapacity, as phrenzy or doating old age; and that then the next in blood, according to the Engliſh conſtitution, ought to aſſume the adminiſtration of the government in the room of the diſabled Prince (but in his name) during his life, or ſo long as ſuch incapacity remained.

The Lords upon the queſtion reſolved, that the throne was not vacant, becauſe by the laws of England the throne is always full; that on a demiſe of the former King, the throne is immediately filled by the Succeſſor.

The Commons inſiſted there could be no demiſe while the King was living, but that the King by his male-adminiſtration had forfeited the crown for himſelf and his poſterity; and therefore, *That the throne was vacant*, and the people empowered to make a new election.

I ſhall not pretend to ſay here, which of theſe opinions had moſt law or reaſon to ſupport it; but after a long debate on this ſubject between the two houſes, they were given to underſtand, that the Prince of Orange was determined to have the adminiſtration of the government lodged ſolely in himſelf, excluſive of his Princeſs, or he would return to Holland again, and leave the people to ſhift for themſelves: which put the two Houſes into ſuch a conſternation, that on the 13th of February 1688-9, they declared the Prince and Princeſs of Orange to be King and Queen of England during their lives, and the life of the longer liver of them; but, *That the ſole exerciſe of the Regal Power be only in and executed by the ſaid Prince of Orange*, in the names of the ſaid Prince and Princeſs during their joint lives, remainder after their deceaſe to the heirs of the Princeſs, and for default of ſuch iſſue to the Princeſs ANNE of Denmark, and the heirs of her body, and for default of ſuch iſſue to the heirs of the body of the ſaid Prince of Orange. And the Prince, in purſuance of this declaration, took upon him the regal titles and authority. But the following Biſhops, notwithſtanding they had agreed in committing the adminiſtration of the government to the Prince of Orange, on King JAMES's withdrawing himſelf, thought fit to refuſe taking the oaths to King WILLIAM, viz. the Archbiſhop of Canterbury, and the Biſhops of Glouceſter, Ely, Norwich, Bath and Wells, and Peterborough. And about the middle of March, the royal Scots regiment of horſe quartered at Abingdon, and great part of DUNBARTON's regiment declared for King JAMES, and marched towards Scotland: but a detachment of Dutch troops being ſent after them, they were brought back priſoners to London.

The Prince and Princeſs of Orange declared King and Queen.

The Diſſenters having wheedled themſelves into the good graces of King WILLIAM about this time, he propoſed to the Convention, that they might be admitted into places of truſt and profit, and the oaths altered for their ſatisfaction; but the two Houſes did not think fit to comply with the motion. On the eleventh of April, King WILLIAM and Queen MARY were crowned at Weſtminſter by the Biſhop of London, Dr BURNET preaching the coronation-ſermon; and the ſame day they were proclaimed King and Queen at Edinburgh, the convention there having before declared the throne vacant, according to the precedent England had ſet them. But it was ſome months before King WILLIAM was ſo univerſally acknowledged in Scotland as in England: for the Duke of Gordon having poſſeſſed himſelf of Edinburgh-caſtle, did not ſurrender it till the thirteenth of June; and on the ſixteenth of July a battle was fought between the Lord DUNDEE, General for King JAMES in Scotland, and General MACKAY, wherein MACKAY was routed; but DUNDEE happening to be killed in the action, the intereſt of King JAMES declined in that kingdom, and his friends never appeared in a conſiderable body afterwards. On the twenty-ſecond of the ſame month an act paſſed in Scotland for aboliſhing epiſcopacy there.

On the other hand, Ireland being generally in the intereſt of King JAMES, he was convoyed thither by a ſquadron of French men of war, and landed there with five thouſand troops of that nation: ſoon after which he cauſed Londonderry to be inveſted, and aſſembled the Parliament of that kingdom, which met on the twenty-ninth of April 1689, and attainted the Duke of Ormond, the Archbiſhops, ſeven Biſhops, and many of the nobility and gentry of Ireland. But King WILLIAM having found means to relieve Londonderry by ſea, King JAMES's forces were obliged to raiſe the ſiege. On the twelfth of July, Duke SCHOMBERG was detached from England with a body of ten thouſand forces to ſupport King WILLIAM's intereſt in Ireland; but the bloody-flux reigning in the Engliſh army this campaign, they did not enter upon any conſiderable action.

The year following, *anno* 1690, King WILLIAM tranſported an army of between thirty and forty thouſand men into Ireland, commanded by himſelf in perſon, and fought King JAMES, his father-in-law, on the banks of the Boyne, on the firſt of July, obtaining a compleat victory over the old King. For the greateſt part of his army conſiſting of new-raiſed Iriſh regiments, not half armed, they were ſoon forced to give way to the veteran bodies of Germans, Dutch, and Engliſh, of which King WILLIAM's army was compoſed. The French and Swiſs however in King JAMES's army, made a regular retreat, and the King finding it impoſſible to maintain his ground after this defeat, retired into France; whereupon his ſon advanced to Dublin, making a kind of triumphant entry into that city on the third of July. In the mean time, the French fleet had defeated the Engliſh and Dutch, commanded by the Lord Torrington (formerly Admiral HERBERT) off of Beachy-head, and the French rode triumphant on our coaſts, making a deſcent with ſome few forces they had on board, and burning Tinmouth, put the kingdom into a very great conſternation. King WILLIAM however went on ſucceſsfully in Ireland, and made himſelf maſter of Waterford, and other places; but ſitting down before Limerick, was forced to raiſe the ſiege, his heavy cannon being rendred uſeleſs as they were coming to Limerick by a detachment of the enemy, commanded by SARSFIELD, who defeated their convoy, and deſtroyed the carriages and ammunition: whereupon King WILLIAM returned to England. The following year, *anno* 1691, his Generals gave the enemy another defeat at Aghrim; after which Limerick was taken, and the whole kingdom reduced under his power.

Having ſeen King WILLIAM in the peaceable poſſeſſion of England, Scotland, and Ireland, it is time to return to Holland, and obſerve the face of affairs on that ſide the water. The French King had threatened the Dutch, as has been obſerved already, to attack their frontiers, if they made any attempt againſt England; he was exaſperated alſo againſt them for taking part with Prince CLEMENT of Bavaria, who ſtood candidate for the biſhoprick of Cologne againſt his creature, Cardinal FURSTENBURG; it was expected therefore, that he would have fallen upon the Dutch with the greateſt part of his forces, to have diverted the Prince of Orange from his Britiſh expedition: but inſtead of this, the Dauphin marched with the flower of the French army into Germany, and made himſelf maſter of Philipſburg, Worms, Spiers, Mayence, and other places on that ſide. As to the Dutch, they contented themſelves with barely declaring war againſt them, on the 26th of November 1688, N. S. but marched no troops towards their frontiers; though the Prince of Orange was at that time actually landed in England. In the year 1689, the French made dreadful ravages in the Palatinate, deſtroying the cities of Heidelberg, Manheim, Frankendal, and all the places which had eſcaped them the preceding year. The Imperialiſts, on the other hand, took from them the cities of Mayence, Keyſerwaert, Rhineberg, and Bon. Upon the advancement of the Prince of Orange to the throne of Great Britain, the States ſent a ſolemn embaſſy to compliment him upon the occaſion, and to concert meaſures with him to oppoſe the French, againſt whom war had been proclaimed at London on the ſeventh of May 1689, by the Engliſh, as it was between the French and Spaniards, much about the ſame time. And on the 15th of Auguſt 1689, happened a ſmart engagement near Walcourt in Flanders, between the confederates commanded by Prince Waldeck, and the French commanded by the Marſhal D'HUMIERES; but it proved a drawn battle. In the ſame month the Engliſh Parliament paſſed an act for the payment of ſix hundred thouſand pounds to the States, for the charges of King WILLIAM's expedition to England.

Six hundred thouſand pounds paid the Dutch, for the charges of their expedition to England.

The French made their greateſt effort in Flanders in the year 1690, and gained a victory over the confederates in the plains of Fleury, on the firſt of July, taking ſix thouſand priſoners, and all their cannon. The ſame year the Duke of Savoy came into the confederacy, and a grand congreſs being held at the Hague between all the Miniſters of the allies in January 1690-91, King WILLIAM went over thither to aſſiſt at it. Wherein they came to theſe reſolutions, and ſolemnly engaged, 1. That they would never make peace with LEWIS XIV, until he had made reparation to the Holy See for all injuries and encroachments upon it: nor till he had annulled and made void all his infamous proceedings againſt the preſent Pope INNOCENT XI. 2. Nor till he had reſtored to every one of the allies all he had taken from them ſince the peace of Munſter. 3. Nor till he had reſtored to the Proteſtants of France all their poſſeſſions and goods, and granted them an entire liberty of conſcience. Nor till the Eſtates of France were eſtabliſhed in their antient rights; ſo that the clergy, the nobility, and third eſtate, might enjoy their lawful privileges. Nor till the King of France ſhould conſent to call together his ſaid three Eſtates whenever any ſupply was to be raiſed, without whoſe conſent he ſhould not levy money upon any pretence whatſoever. Nor till he ſhould conſent to reſtore to the parliaments of that kingdom, and the reſt of his ſubjects, all their juſt rights. And, in concluſion, the ſubjects of France were invited to join the confederates in this undertaking, for reſtoring them to their rights and liberties; and ruin and devaſtation was threatened to all that oppoſed them.

Terms of the Grand Alliance againſt France, *anno* 1690-91.

At this famous congreſs, there were preſent many ſovereign Princes beſides King WILLIAM; as the Elector of Bavaria, the Elector of Brandenburg, the Duke of Lunenburg-Zell, the Duke of Brunſwick-Wolfembuttle, the Landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, the Prince of Wirtemburg, the two Princes of Anſpach, the Duke of Cologne, the Duke of Holſtein, the Rhinegrave, and a multitude of other German Princes; with the Miniſters of the Emperor, Savoy, Denmark, Sweden, Spain, Saxony, Bavaria, Brandenburgh, Treves, Mentz, Cologne, Munſter, Lunenburgh, Heſſe-Caſſel, Brunſwick-Wolfembuttle, Hanover, the Elector Palatine, Poland, Holſtein-Gottorp, Liege, and Hamburgh.

Notwithſtanding this numerous confederacy, the French were maſters of the field in Flanders almoſt every campaign during the war. They ſat down before Mons in the beginning of the year 1691, and compelled that ſtrong fortreſs to ſur-

Mons taken by the French, *an.* 1691.

render on the firſt of April, O. S. King WILLIAM indeed put himſelf at the head of the confederate army, giving out that he would relieve the place; but finding it impracticable, returned to the Hague. The ſame campaign the French took Halle, and falling upon the rear of the confederate army afterwards, as they were decamping from Lens, put them into ſome confuſion at firſt; but the confederates made good their retreat, with the loſs only of a thouſand men.

Namur taken, *an.* 1692.

The victory of the confederate fleet at La Hogue.

The French opened the campaign of 1692 with the ſiege of Namur, which King WILLIAM not finding himſelf in a condition to relieve, the town ſurrendered on the fifth of June, after a ſiege of three weeks, and the caſtle, on the 20th of July following, being one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in the Low Countries. On the other hand, the Engliſh and Dutch fleets under the command of the Admirals RUSSEL and ALLEMOND, gained a ſignal victory over the French, near La Hogue, on the 19th of May, this year, burning and deſtroying one and twenty capital men of war, and among the reſt the French Admiral, the Riſing Sun, which was run on ſhore and burnt on the French coaſt, in ſight of the French army, that was intended to have made a deſcent in England, if their fleet had met with ſucceſs at ſea. How the French came to bear down ſo boldly on the Engliſh fleet, as they did, when their own conſiſted but of ſixty ſail, and the confederates of eighty at leaſt, ſtill remains a myſtery; though ſome, who would not be thought ignorant of the motives of any action, relate, that the French King apprehending the Engliſh and Dutch fleets could not be joined ſo ſoon, gave Admiral TOURVILLE expreſs orders to fight as ſoon as he diſcovered the enemy. Others are of opinion, that they had an aſſurance of Admiral CARTER's ſquadron coming over to them; but the Admiral behaved himſelf with that gallantry as perfectly cleared him from any ſuſpicion, and loſt his life in the action.

Battle of Steinkirk.

Still the French were victorious in Flanders; for King WILLIAM attacking Marſhal LUXEMBURG in his camp near Steinkirk, was forced to retreat with the loſs of many thouſands of brave officers and ſoldiers; which diſgrace was aſcribed to Count SOLMES, the Dutch General, who did not in time ſupport the Engliſh in their firſt attack. Towards the latter end of the campaign, a reinforcement of fourteen thouſand Engliſh for the confederate army landed at Oſtend and Newport, and poſſeſſed themſelves of Furnes and Dixmude. The following campaign of 1693, was opened by the ſiege of Huy, which ſurrendered to the French on the eighth of July, after a ſiege of five days; which King WILLIAM expecting ſhould have laſted much longer, had detached the Duke of Wirtemburg, with part of the confederate army, to raiſe contributions within the French lines; when the Duke of LUXEMBURG, taking advantage of the ſeparation of the confederate army, fell upon King WILLIAM on the 19th of July, near Landen, and obtained a compleat victory: after which he laid ſiege to Charleroy, and took it on the firſt of October. The ſame unfortunate campaign, Marſhal CATINAT defeated the confederate army under the command of the Duke of Savoy, near Turin, where Duke SCHOMBERG, who commanded the Engliſh forces, was mortally wounded and taken priſoner. This was the firſt battle where the foot charged with bayonets at the end of their loaded Muſkets, to which ſtratagem the ſucceſs of the French in this battle is generally aſcribed.

Battle of Landen.

Battle of Turin.

The French continuing ſuperior to the confederates in Flanders, the Commons of England reſolved to increaſe their land-forces to eighty thouſand men, and granted an aid of four ſhillings in the pound, as they had done the preceding year, that being the firſt that ever was raiſed in England. The campaign of 1694 proved unfortunate to the Spaniards, who were defeated by the French in Catalonia, on the 27th of May, and the city of Palamos taken by ſtorm on the 8th of June following. The laſt day of the ſame month Gironne in Catalonia ſurrendered to the French; but Admiral RUSSEL, with part of the confederate fleet, being commanded to protect the Spaniſh coaſts in the Mediterranean, prevented the further progreſs of the enemy, and ſaved Barcelona at this time. Another part of the confederate fleet, with a great body of land-forces on board, under the command of General TALMASH, were ordered to make a deſcent on the French coaſts near Breſt, which they attempted the eighth of June; when the General landing with the firſt ſix hundred men, found ſuch batteries and intrenchments, and other preparations made to receive them, that he found himſelf obliged to retire to his ſhips; but the tide ebbing, the flat-bottomed boats ſtuck upon the ouſe, and many of them were not able to get off. Moſt of them that landed were killed or wounded, and amongſt the reſt General TALMASH himſelf was mortally wounded, and died on his return to Portſmouth. The confederate fleet however afterwards bombarded Diep, Havre de Grace, Dunkirk, and Calais; but the powder and ſhot ſpent againſt them, amounted, 'tis ſaid, to as much as the damage the French ſuſtained. The grand armies in Flanders being pretty near equal this campaign, they ſeemed cautious of entring upon action, and there happened nothing conſiderable on that ſide, except the ſiege of Huy, which ſurrendered to the confederates on the 17th of September, after a week's open trenches. In the mean time religious diſputes began to revive in Holland, between the Calviniſts and Arminians, inſomuch that the States found themſelves obliged to interpoſe, and command a general ſilence concerning the things in diſpute, which put a ſtop to them for the preſent. The winter following, Queen MARY, King WILLIAM's conſort, died of the ſmall-pox on the 28th of December, at Kenſington. This did not however hinder the Hero from taking the field in Flanders the next campaign, *anno* 1695, where he found Marſhal VILLEROY at the head of the enemy's troops, that ſucceſsful General LUXEMBURG dying the winter before. On the third of July, King WILLIAM inveſted the city of Namur, which ſurrendered the fourth of Auguſt, and the caſtle the ſecond of September following. This was the moſt memorable ſiege that happened during the war, for the town and caſtle are of themſelves exceeding ſtrong, and had a garriſon of fourteen thouſand men in them, commanded by BOUFFLERS, a Marſhal of France, who defended themſelves ſo well, that the confederates loſt twelve or fifteen thouſand men before the place. While they were buſy at this ſiege, Marſhal VILLEROY had very near ſurprized Prince VAUDEMONT, who commanded a ſeparate army of the confederates in Flanders, of thirty thouſand men; but the Prince made a fine retreat to Ghent, without any

Diſgrace of the allies at Breſt.

Queen MARY dies.

Namur retaken by the allies.

Bruſſels bombarded.

England threatned with an invaſion.

any conſiderable loſs, upon which his military ſkill was much applauded, the enemy being twice his number. But the French met with better ſucceſs againſt Dixmude and Deynſe, which they took the latter end of July, and made the garriſons, conſiſting of ſix thouſand men, priſoners of war, whom the French refuſed to exchange, till Marſhal BOUFFLERS was arreſted on his marching out of Namur, and obliged to give his parole of honour for their releaſe. Before the caſtle of Namur ſurrendered, Marſhal VILLEROY alſo took the opportunity of bombarding Bruſſels, which was begun the thirteenth of Auguſt, and continued for eight and forty hours with the utmoſt fury, with bombs and red-hot bullets, whereby five and twenty hundred houſes in the heart of that fine city were entirely deſtroyed, beſides churches and publick buildings, whoſe very foundations were blown up, and converted into heaps of rubbiſh: and this the French did (though it was contrary to the Cartel to bombard any capital city) by way of retaliation for the towns the confederates had bombarded upon the French coaſts, without any view of taking them, which was looked upon as a barbarous way of making war among Chriſtians. About this time, there happened a dangerous inſurrection at Amſterdam, on account of ſome alterations that were introduced into their burial-ſervice, which laſted ſeveral days, the houſes of many wealthy citizens being plundered, and their perſons abuſed, till at length the militia being aſſembled under arms, fired upon the rioters, as they were ravaging the quarter of the Jews, and diſperſed them; and ſome of their leaders being executed for a terror to the reſt, the city was reduced to it's former tranquillity. The following winter, the French had concerted with King JAMES the making of a deſcent upon England, and King JAMES, with a great body of forces, was actually marched to the coaſt of France, with an intent to embark, waiting only to hear his friends in England were ready to receive him; for it ſeems there was a conſpiracy in England to have fallen upon King WILLIAM's guards, and to have made him priſoner; and they were charged alſo with a deſign to aſſaſſinate him, which occaſioned this conſpiracy to obtain the name of the *Aſſaſſination-Plot*: but 'tis certain the conſpirators denied this laſt part of the plot at their deaths, though they made no ſcruple of acknowledging their deſign of joining King JAMES if he had landed. However, the plot being diſcovered, and ſome of the principal conſpirators apprehended, and a good body of troops brought over to England from Flanders, to oppoſe the intended invaſion, the French King marched his troops back again from the coaſts, and King JAMES returned to St Germains.

The following year 1696, paſſed without any action in Flanders, and in Italy the Duke of Savoy having advantageous offers made him by the French King, made a ſeparate peace; whereupon the confederates concluded a treaty with France, for the neutrality of Italy; and the following winter a treaty was agreed to be ſet on foot between France and all the Confederates. The King of Sweden being accepted for mediator, the conferences between the reſpective Plenipotentiaries for treating of a general peace, were opened at Ryſwick near the Hague, on the 29th of April O. S. 1697. The French however, ſenſible what a mighty influence the ſucceſſes in the field have upon negotiations of this nature, made their utmoſt efforts on all ſides this campaign. In Flanders they laid ſiege to the ſtrong fortreſs of Aeth the 6th of May, and made themſelves maſters of it the 26th of the ſame month. In the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies Admiral POINTY ſtormed Cartagena, and plundered it, bringing home to France twelve millions of crowns, according to the Spaniſh account. And into Catalonia the French marched a powerful army, and laid ſiege to Barcelona, which was obliged to ſurrender on the 5th of Auguſt, though well defended by the Prince of Heſſe-Darmſtat, with a numerous garriſon, which induced the Spaniards very unwillingly to ſign the peace with the Engliſh and Dutch on the 10th of September O. S. The Imperialiſts were ſtill more averſe to the ſigning the peace, and not without reaſon; for the terms the Engliſh and Dutch had procured for them, were extremely diſadvantageous to the Empire; Straſburgh, with it's dependencies, and all Alſace, being yielded to the French by this treaty. But the Engliſh and Dutch having gained their main point, in getting King WILLIAM acknowledged King of Great Britain, were not very ſollicitous for their allies. The Dutch eſpecially were glad to make an end of the war when they found the Engliſh Parliament began to inſiſt on their bearing their ſhare of the expence. And the Engliſh had no reaſon to be fond of continuing it, when they were every year obliged to make good the deficiencies of their allies. The Germans alſo not finding themſelves in a condition to maintain the war alone, agreed firſt to a ceſſation of arms, and on the 30th of October, O. S. their Miniſter ſigned the treaty.

The peace of Ryſwick, *an.* 1697.

The treaty between France and Savoy.

By the treaty between France and Savoy, the Duke obliged himſelf to abandon his confederates and procure a neutrality for Italy, or if that was refuſed by the allies, to enter into a league offenſive and defenſive with his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty againſt the Confederates. The French King, on the other hand, agreed to ſurrender to his Royal Highneſs the city and citadel of Pignerol, with their dependencies, the fortifications being firſt demoliſhed; but his Royal Highneſs was allowed to incloſe the ſaid city with a ſingle wall not terraſſed. His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty alſo ſtipulated to reſtore to his Royal Highneſs the reſt of the towns and countries he had conquered and taken from him, amongſt which were Montmelian, Nice, Villa Franca, and Suza; and it was further agreed, that the Duke of Burgundy, the Dauphin's eldeſt ſon, ſhould marry Madame the Princeſs, his Royal Highneſs's daughter: That the Ambaſſadors of Savoy in the court of France, ſhould receive the ſame honours as thoſe of crowned heads: That thoſe who inhabit the Vallies of Lucerne by the name of Vaudois, ſhould have no communication with the ſubjects of France; nor ſhould any Proteſtant Preacher come from thence into his Majeſty's dominions: And as his Royal Highneſs ſhould not ſuffer the exerciſe of the pretended reformed religion in any of the territories or places relinquiſhed by his Majeſty, ſo neither would his Majeſty ſuffer it in his kingdom.

Between England and France.

By the treaty between England and France, concluded at Ryſwick the 10th of September O. S. 1697, the French King promiſed not to diſturb King WILLIAM in the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh Dominions, or to give any aſſiſtance to his enemies: And that he would reſtore to England all countries and places taken during the war. In like manner, the ſaid King of England agreed to reſtore all that had been taken from

France. The French King alſo agreed to reſtore to the King of England the principality of Orange, and the reſt of the territories belonging to him in France. And by a ſeparate article it was agreed, that the Emperor ſhould have time till the firſt day of November to accept the terms offered him by his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty.

Between France and the States General.

By the treaty between the French King and the States General it was agreed, That all countries, towns, and places which had been taken during the war, ſhould be reſtored on either ſide; and the late treaty between the moſt Chriſtian King and the Duke of Savoy was thereby confirmed: the reſt of the treaty contained nothing but matters of courſe.

Between France and Spain.

By the treaty between France and Spain, Gironne, Roſes, Barcelona, and all other places taken by the French in Spain, were reſtored to his Catholick Majeſty: and in the Low Countries, the city, province, and dutchy of Luxemburg, and county of Chinay, the fortreſs of Charleroy, the city of Mons, the town of Courtray, and all other towns and places, which his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty had taken during the war, were reſtored to Spain. The town and caſtle of Dinant alſo were reſtored by his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty to the Biſhop and Prince of Liege.

Between the Emperor and France.

By the treaty between the Emperor and Empire on the one part, and France on the other, concluded the 30th of October 1697, it was agreed, That the treaties of Weſtphalia and Nimeguen ſhould be the foundation of this treaty, where it was not otherwiſe expreſsly agreed to the contrary; and that reſtitution ſhould be made to his Imperial Majeſty and the Empire, and to the States and Members thereof, by the moſt Chriſtian King, of whatever had been taken during the war; but yet ſo as that the Roman Catholick religion ſhould continue in the ſtate it then was, in the places to be reſtored. But as it was thought proper to make an exchange of ſome places, his Imperial Majeſty yielded to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty the city of Straſburg and it's dependencies, on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, to be incorporated with the Kingdom of France. On the other hand, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty yielded to the Emperor the Fort of Kehl, the city and caſtle of Friburg, the Fort of St Peter, and the Star Fort; the town of Briſac, and fortreſs of Philipſburg, with all their dependencies: and the Duke of Lorrain was reſtored to the poſſeſſion of his capital city of Nancy, and the reſt of the dutchy of Lorrain; the fortifications of Nancy only to be demoliſhed, and the fort of Saar-Lewis, with ſome other ſmall places, to be reſerved to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty; and his forces were to have liberty to march through the dutchy to and from their frontier towns. It was ſtipulated alſo, that Cardinal FURSTENBURG, Biſhop of Straſburg, ſhould be reſtored to the poſſeſſion of his territories and rights in the Empire.

As to the remainder of the Modern Hiſtory of the United Provinces from the peace of Ryſwick to this time, the reader will meet with it in the former part of this Volume, blended with the hiſtory of Germany; wherein all the actions of the confederates and the French during the laſt war are deſcribed. I proceed therefore in the next place to enquire into the nature of the ſoil, and the produce of the United Provinces.

CHAP. VII.

Contains an account of the nature of the ſoil, and produce of the country, viz. their plants and animals.

The nature of the ſoil.

As to the maritime provinces, it has been already intimated that they lie upon a perfect flat, cut through with numberleſs canals; except that on the weſtern part of Holland, from the Maeſe to the Texel, containing the ſpace of fourſcore or an hundred miles, there lies one continued ridge of ſand-hills, which ſerve to break the fury of the Ocean, the ſoil whereof produces only herbage enough to feed the rabbets, which are very plentiful all along that coaſt. The ſtrand between the ſand-hills and the ſea is exceeding pleaſant, whether multitudes of people reſort on ſummer evenings, and are entertained with the proſpect of ſhips and veſſels under ſail, going to and returning from all parts of the world; nor is it eaſy to ſay whether a ſmooth calm water, or a tempeſtuous ſea, where the mariner is forced to uſe his utmoſt ſkill to preſerve a leaky bark, affords the moſt exquiſite delight. That part of the country which is not a barren ſand conſiſts either of arable, rich paſture, or a ſpungy marſhy ſoil, out of which they dig turf, the general firing of the country. Their arable is tolerably fruitful, but does not produce corn enough however for half the numerous inhabitants. Their meadow or paſture, which is moſt of it under water in the winter, on the return of the ſummer, either by the ſun, or the help of wind-mills, is drained or dried up, and the waters leaving a fat ſlime behind, become exceeding fruitful; on which they either feed ſuch lean cattle as come from Denmark and the North, or milch kine, with which they make vaſt quantities of as good butter and cheeſe, as are to be met with in Europe. They have alſo large plantations of flax and hemp, but much the greateſt part of what they work comes from Germany, or the Baltick. The turf which they dig in their bogs, or *Veens*, as they call them, are an excellent firing, which burn as clear and ſweet as the beſt wood; and this earth, 'tis ſaid, after cutting, ſwells and grows up again in the ſpace of a few years, and may be cut for the ſame uſe again. As for timber, there is very little in the country, except ſome groves and plantations on the ſides of their canals, intended more for pleaſure than profit. As to the inland provinces of Utrecht and Guelderland, here indeed the country begins to riſe into hills, and there is much the ſame variety of high and low lands, woods and champaign, as we meet with in England, and the country produces a tolerable quantity of grain. They ſeem to take pleaſure alſo in fine gardens and orchards, and are arrived to a great perfection in flowers. Minerals they have none, nor do they dig below the ſurface of the earth upon any account, unleſs it be for turf or clay. The province of Overyſſel conſiſts chiefly of heaths and marſhes, and is the worſt inhabited of any of the ſeven.

Grain.

The grain which is produced in the United Provinces, is either the common wheat, or buck-weat, rye, barley, peas and beans. They have alſo ſome plantations of hops and rape-ſeed, out of the laſt of which they draw oil.

Fruit.

Their fruit is much the ſame with ours, and frequently blaſted in the ſpring, or blown down in autumn by the tem-

Cattle

Fowls.

peſtuous winds on their coaſts, before it comes to maturity. Their milch cattle are very large, and give incredible quantities of milk; and thoſe which they buy from the northern countries, and fat in their paſtures, grow to a very great bulk. Their common breed of horſes are large and heavy; but, 'tis ſaid, care has been taken of late years to mend it. Their ſheep are very good, eſpecially in Zealand, where they feed on the ſalt-marſhes. Their hogs-fleſh is but indifferent. In the up-lands there are plenty of hares, rabbets and ſquirrels, but ſcarce any deer. Their wild beaſts, which are found chiefly in the provinces bordering on Germany, are wolves and wild hogs. Here are all manner of tame fowls as in England; and of the wild, the ſtork, about the bigneſs of a heron, is the moſt remarkable, which builds on the tops of their chimnies in moſt of the towns and villages; and, by virtue of a national ſuperſtition in their favour, are never deſtroyed. They take their flight with their young brood about the beginning of Auguſt, and, as ſome conjecture, retire into Africa, or ſome other warm country, returning again in February. There are prodigious numbers of wild geeſe, ducks, and other water-fowl alſo, which viſit the Low-Countries from the North every winter; nor do they want partridges, ſnipes, quails, or pigeons.

Fiſh.

The fiſh in their rivers are ſalmon, perch, trout, jacks, and eels; and their ſea-fiſh, haddock, haberdine, ſturgeon, ſoles, mackerel, ſmelts, crabs, and ſome other ſorts of ſhell-fiſh; but there are ſcarce any oyſters or herrings upon the coaſt. The game is generally the right of the nobility and gentry, inferior people being excluded theſe recreations, as in England; and the fiſheries in ſome places are appropriated alſo to them, but in others are open to every man who likes theſe kind of amuſements. I proceed next to give ſome account of their grand fiſheries, eſpecially that of herrings.

CHAP. VIII.

Treats of their great fiſheries.

The great fiſheries.

The Herring-fiſhery.

THE three great fiſheries, which by all that treat of the United Provinces are looked upon to be of ſuch vaſt advantage to their ſtate, are, the herring-fiſhery, the whale-fiſhery, and the cod-fiſhery. In theſe fiſheries the provinces of Holland and Zealand are principally concerned; and that of Holland alone, according to Penſionary DE WITT in his time, annually ſet out no leſs than a thouſand ſail, from twenty-four to thirty tun, to be employed in the herring-fiſhery, which are ſince increaſed in bigneſs from thirty to fifty tuns. Theſe buſſes, with the veſſels that attend them, and thoſe which are employed in carrying and diſperſing them all over Europe, amount to many thouſand ſail, and at a moderate computation, in all the maritime provinces, occaſion the employing of fourſcore thouſand hands, which makes it a noble nurſery for ſeamen. The buſſes are ſent out tree times every year, and begin to fiſh the firſt ſeaſon on midſummer-day, near the iſlands of Schetland (belonging to the Britiſh crown) and on the north of Scotland; and this ſeaſon laſts till September, when the buſſes having diſcharged their lading in Holland, fiſh near Yarmouth, and at the mouth of the Humber, on the coaſt of England; and hither they make two trips every year, the ſeaſon not being over till the latter end of November. According to Sir WALTER RALEIGH's computation in the reign of King JAMES I, the Dutch fiſhed on the Britiſh coaſt, with no leſs than three thouſand ſhips, and fifty thouſand men; and employed and ſet to ſea, to tranſport and ſell the fiſh ſo taken, and to make returns thereof, nine thouſand ſhips, and one hundred and fifty thouſand men more; adding, that every twenty buſſes maintained eight thouſand people at ſea or on ſhore. Theſe calculations I find ſome writers think to be of the largeſt; but I believe very few that have ſucceeded Sir WALTER are better qualified to make a computation of theſe matters than he was; and as the ſcheme was laid before King JAMES, with whom this gentleman was not on very good terms, it is to be preſumed he took care to have proof of what he advanced.

Why the herring-fiſhery is not ſo advantageous to the Engliſh as to the Dutch.

However, if it ſhould be admitted that the Dutch employ only one thouſand buſſes in the herring fiſhery, and that theſe buſſes at a medium may be reckoned forty tuns each, and that they make three trips every year; then every buſs may be ſuppoſed to take an hundred and twenty tun, and conſequently the whole fleet an hundred and twenty thouſand tun of herrings. Again, if every tun is ſuppoſed to be worth twenty pounds, then do they by the herring-fiſhery alone, make annually two millions four hundred thouſand pounds; out of which, if we allow a third part for charges, there remains clear ſixteen hundred thouſand pounds; to which if we add the profits they make by the goods they take in return for them and export again, two millions ſterling is the leaſt they can be ſuppoſed to make annually, clear of all expences; and the multitude of hands that are employed in the making of nets and caſks, ſhipping and tackle occaſioned by this fiſhery, and in the ſalting, curing, and packing of them, makes it an inconceivable advantage to Holland. If it be demanded why the ſubjects of Britain, on whoſe coaſts alone theſe fiſh are caught, reap ſo very little profit by this fiſhery, and their neighbours ſo much, it is generally anſwered, 1. That we do not underſtand the right method of curing them, which is the reaſon they will not go off at foreign markets as long as the Dutch have any to ſell. 2. That though we have timber for building veſſels of our own growth, yet the Dutch can import timber from Germany much cheaper than ours is at home; and that by their ſaw-mills, and other engines, they ſave ſuch a number of hands, that the building of ſhips and other veſſels is performed for half the expence it is here. 3. That the ſhipping ſent to the Baltick with herrings, loads back with corn, timber, and other heavy goods, which the Engliſh having little occaſion for, muſt return empty, and thereby loſe their freight homeward bound. 4. That the rivers Rhine and Maeſe running through a vaſt tract of a well-peopled country, and diſcharging themſelves into the ſea through the United Provinces, the Dutch have an opportunity of furniſhing the people which lie near the banks of thoſe rivers with herrings, and of taking their merchandize in return, which the ſubjects of Britain by their ſituation are perfectly excluded from. To the firſt of theſe objections aginſt the ſubjects of Britain applying themſelves to the herring-fiſhery, I find it replyed, that there is very little myſtery in the curing and pickling of herrings, and that the true reaſon the Dutch herrings are better than ours, is becauſe we want proper veſſels to cure and ſalt them in: that the Scots particularly fiſh in open boats, and let their herrings lie expoſed to the weather till they come on ſhore, before they ſalt them; while the Dutch buſſes are covered, and the fiſh ſalted in them before they are well dead. But this might certainly be done by the Engliſh as well as the Dutch, and would be ſo if the fiſhery was under any regulation, and made a government concern. It cannot be expected, indeed, that foreigners ſhould take off our herrings on the ſame terms they do thoſe of Holland, till we cure them as well, and then we need not doubt their cuſtom: but methinks we have this advantage of the Dutch, that our coaſts are ſo near the fiſhery, that we may put our herrings on ſhore, and prepare them for the market much ſooner than the Dutch can: for though the firſt ſalting be performed in the buſſes, they are all taken out and prepared in a different manner, and put into other caſks when they come on ſhore, in order to be ſent to foreign markets. And admit there be an art in the pickling them that we are yet unacquainted with, ſurely we are not ſo dull, but by ſending over half a dozen clever fellows thither to obſerve their method, or inviting ſome of them over hither by good rewards, we might ſoon come into it: and indeed till we do make them as good and as merchantable as the Dutch, it is in vain for our ſuperiors to concern themſelves in the matter, and beg foreigners cuſtom, as we did lately at Hamburgh; for we muſt ever expect the ſame anſwer that city gave us on this occaſion, viz. That if our fiſh were equally good, they would with all their hearts deal with us as ſoon as with the Dutch. It is however to be remembered in favour of the natives of this iſland, that though our pickled herrings are not ſo good as thoſe of Holland, our red herrings are the beſt in Europe, and are a manufacture almoſt peculiar to Britain, which is one great encouragement to the entering on this fiſhery.

2. As to that objection, That timber for building veſſels and naval ſtores are dearer here than in Holland, this ſeems generally admitted at preſent; but the caſe would be wonderfully altered, if due encouragement were given for importing them from the Britiſh plantations, where there is more timber ſtands neglected, and more pitch and tar, flax and hemp, might be produced at an eaſy expence, and brought us in return for the native commodities and manufactures we export, than are ſufficient to ſupply all the ſhipping of Europe. This would produce ſuch a variety of benefits, of ſuch importance to Britain, and of ſuch a laſting duration, that, 'tis preſumed, the government will not long overlook them. We want, in ſhort, nothing to make us the greateſt and wealthieſt people upon earth, but to improve the advantages we have in our hands. The very traffick we might maintain between our own people of the old and new world, would ſoon give us a vaſt ſuperiority over the reſt of the nations of Europe. As it is, this trade does not employ leſs than a thouſand ſail of ſhips from an hundred to five hundred tuns; whereas a little more than an hundred years ago we had little or no traffick with that part of the world. But I forbear to enlarge on this ſubject here, and proceed to conſider the ſecond part of this article; namely, That the Dutch can build their buſſes for the herring-fiſhery cheaper, becauſe they have more expeditious ways of working their timber by ſaw-mills, &c. by which means one man will do the buſineſs of ten: nor is this to be denied; for it ſeems we are afraid to introduce theſe machines, leſt our people ſhould want employment. Now did we conſider the irreparable injury we bring upon our country by neglecting to introduce ſuch engines, as might enable us to work as cheap as our neighbours, not a man of us would make this trifling objection againſt them; eſpecially againſt ſuch as promote our navigation and manufactures. The cheaper we can build ſhips, and work our manufactures, the cheaper we can ſend them abroad, and afford the better pennyworths to all we deal with: and this is one of thoſe important ſecrets, by which the Dutch have ever undermined and worked us out of our foreign trade. As for their living more frugally, and working their veſſels with fewer hands, I look upon theſe articles to be trifles: for what mighty difference can it make in the voyage, where fifteen or twenty hands are employed in navigating a ſhip of three or four hundred tuns, where the Dutch ſhall ſpend four ſhillings and the Engliſh five ſhillings a head per week; what great difference, I ſay, can this make in a cargo of three or four hundred tuns, even where it is of the meaneſt value? And perhaps if it be conſidered, as we employ more hands, conſequently we breed up more mariners, and our ſhips are liable to fewer hazards, I queſtion whether in the main they have any advantage of us in theſe reſpects. But further it is to be obſerved, That we ſhould in this caſe be ſo far from having our poor multiply upon us, and of having too many idle hands, that we ſhould have much fewer than we have at preſent. If we could build our veſſels cheaper than we do now, and work our manufactures with leſs charge, conſequently there would be a great deal more of them taken off our hands; and as our foreign trade flouriſhes, ſo does the home trade of courſe. A multitude of rich merchants will always find employment for a multitude of inferior people; which is not a meer notion, but we actually find it thus in Holland, where there is not an idle hand in the country; nay, the trader, among that croud of people, finds it difficult to procure ſervants and labouring men for his money, ſo little are they in danger of being over-run with poor in thoſe countries where they employ all manner of machines to enable them to work with a few hands. As there is no ſpot of ground of the ſame dimenſions on the face of the globe where there are ſo many rich merchants, ſo there is no place where labouring men are better paid, and live more comfortably.

As to the third objection againſt promoting the herring-fiſhery in Britain, namely, That our ſhips which carry them to the Baltick would for the moſt part return empty, becauſe we do not import corn, timber, and other cumberſome goods from thence, in ſuch large proportions as the Dutch do; I anſwer, If we could once prepare our fiſh as well as the Dutch do, and conſequently could find as quick a market for them, I do not doubt but our merchants would find ſomething to import from thence which might turn to a tolerable account: and as I propoſe in the foregoing articles, that our trade, if not neglected, will ſuddenly be improved and extended in other parts of the world, poſſibly we may find it as advantageous to carry our herrings to ſome other places, as the Dutch do in carrying them to the Baltick. And this alſo may ſerve as an anſwer to the fourth objection, as to our ſituation, whereby we are excluded from the trade of the Rhine and the Maeſe, in which rivers the Dutch diſpoſe of great quantities of herrings.

CHAP. VIII.

An enquiry into our right to exclude other nations from the herring-fiſhery.

As to our right to the herring-fiſhery excluſive of the Dutch and all other nations, this fiſhery lying all along cloſe to our own ſhores and no where elſe, this has been made ſufficiently evident by Mr Selden, and many other writers: And for my life I can't ſee why foreigners have not as much right to the oyſters upon the Britiſh coaſt as the herrings. Should it be admitted that ſeas and deſarts are generally free for all mankind to travel in, and wild animals the property of every one that can take them; yet ſurely there are ſome inſtances, wherein ſeas and deſarts may be, and are, appropriated, as well as their wild inhabitants. And as to the Dutch, who have actually appropriated the ſeas about the Molucca's, Amboyna, and Banda, where the fine ſpices grow, and would, if they had power, alſo exclude all other nations from the reſt of the Indian ſeas, under pretence that they are Lords of the ocean, the very title they give themſelves in that part of the world; againſt theſe people ſurely our claim will be allowed to have it's full weight, for we may with as much right appropriate to ourſelves the ſeas on our own coaſts, as they do the ſeas about the ſpice-iſlands, which they ſo unjuſtly and treacherouſly poſſeſſed themſelves of, and which lie ten thouſand miles from the ſhores of Holland. Should a Britiſh ſhip offer to ſail within ſight of the coaſts of Amboyna and Banda, the Dutch would make no ſcruple of taking or deſtroying her; why then ſhould they be permitted to come cloſe to the Britiſh ſhores, drive away our fiſhermen, and diſperſe the ſhoals of herrings after their own veſſels are laden, as they continue to do to this day. Theſe practices, I believe, the ſubtleſt ſophiſter amongſt them will be troubled to find a tolerable excuſe for. But ſuppoſing they had a natural right to do all this, and we had no natural or acquired right to come into thoſe ſeas which border upon the ſpice-iſlands; yet if we can ſhow that the Dutch have, for time immemorial, till the reign of King Charles I, ſollicited the Britiſh Princes for licences to fiſh on their coaſt, and have actually paid thirty thouſand pounds per annum for the liberty of fiſhing there, ſurely this puts the matter beyond all diſpute: people may part with and deprive themſelves of many natural rights, and the Dutch have actually done ſo here by repeated ſolemn compacts with this nation. Even Oliver Cromwell, their brother Saint, had infallibly compelled them to have performed this contract, if he had not afterwards found them neceſſary to ſupport his uſurpation, and accepted of their guarantee of his tyranny in lieu of that invaluable fiſhery: for were we to inſiſt upon our right, and exclude all other nations from the herring-fiſhery, as the Dutch do from the fine ſpices, we might ſet our own price upon them; and if the Dutch make two millions per annum neat profit of our herrings, we might by that means make five millions, or indeed what we pleaſed, and ſhould ſave an immenſe treaſure annually from going out of the nation: for with theſe we might purchaſe the merchandize of the Baltick, Germany, and other countries, as with ready money. Neither need we be over-nice in the curing of them, for if they were to be had no where elſe, there is no doubt but the worſt would go off. But if it ſhould not be thought expedient wholly to exclude the Dutch, or any other nation, from the herring-fiſhery on our coaſt; yet ſurely no Briton can think it unreaſonable that we limit the number of buſſes, or oblige them to pay an acknowledgment in proportion to the quantity of fiſh they take. This may be expedient, even in regard to the Hollanders themſelves; for if all nations be permitted to come and fiſh upon our coaſts without reſtraint, why not the French, Flemings, and Spaniards, and even the Hamburghers, and the Powers of the Baltick; and if this were allowed, of what advantage would the herring-fiſhery be, either to England or Holland? Thoſe very people who now take them off our hands, would take them themſelves out of the ſea, and conſequently the trade would be entirely loſt to both nations, which would then perhaps incline the Dutch themſelves to wiſh we had inſiſted more ſtrenuouſly upon our right. And as the Dutch are allowed to have their eyes in their heads, and to penetrate as far into future events as other people, I will venture to make them one propoſal, which if a little preſent profit does not biaſs their underſtandings, they will certainly cloſe with. The Dutch, as well as the Engliſh, can't but obſerve, that many powerful nations at this day, are endeavouring to improve their foreign trade and navigation, and will probably in a ſhort time fall into ſome branches of commerce which the Hollander at preſent monopolizes, and reaps great advantage by. We may ſee them, as I have already hinted, attempt the herring-fiſhery, and to diſcover ſome countries where the fine ſpices grow, which are not under the power of the Dutch; or they may poſſibly wreſt ſome of the ſpice-iſlands from them which they are poſſeſſed of, as they wreſted them from us, and ſo ſhare theſe two valuable branches of trade with them: And if this ever ſhould happen to be the caſe, the Dutch will then be deprived of their greateſt ſtrength, and theſe giants in trade become like other men. I beg leave therefore, even for the ſake of the Hollanders themſelves, to propoſe a moſt intimate union in commerce between them and Britain; and in order to this I do inſiſt, that they ſubmit to ſhare the trade of the world with us: this, if any thing, will perpetuate their grandeur; for our intereſt muſt be mutual, if we expect to remain long united. I know no bands ſo indiſſoluble between Princes and States as thoſe of intereſt: let them, upon our admitting them into a ſhare of the herring-fiſhery, and excluding all other nations from it, admit us into a ſhare of the ſpice-trade, (originally our own) and then we will unite our maritime force with theirs, by which means we may put what conditions we pleaſe upon the reſt of the trading world. On the other hand, if they refuſe to let us ſhare the trade of the world with them, and pretend to ſtand upon their own bottom, it is not difficult to foretel, that other nations will ſoon encroach upon their foreign trade, and they may poſſibly by their parſimony loſe the whole. In the mean while, Britain has ſuch a noble proſpect opening to her view by the increaſe of her plantation-trade, that I don't doubt in a few years to ſee her able to manage the commerce of the world alone, without the Dutch, or any other foreign aſſiſtance. Therefore let that High and Mighty State in time conſider and cultivate a ſtrict friendſhip with Britain before it be too late, and ſhe ſee herſelf with regret ſtripped of the moſt darling branches of her navigation and traffick.

The whale-fiſhery.

I proceed now to treat of the ſecond great fiſhery, that of Greenland, where whales are taken; and this too they have in a manner monopolized; for the Dutch ſend annually to Greenland between two and three hundred ſail of ſhips, from two to four hundred tuns burthen, and all the reſt of the nations of Europe together ſcarce fit out fifty. That part of Greenland where they uſually fiſh for whales is ſituated between ſeventy-ſix and eighty degrees of North latitude. The Engliſh were the firſt who practiſed the taking of whales in theſe ſeas; and apprehending of what conſequence the ſecuring this trade to the nation might be, our people went on ſhore, ſet up the arms of Britain, and formally took poſſeſſion of the country for King JAMES I. And as there were at that time no inhabitants there, or any foreign nation that could have any manner of claim to it, this was then thought to veſt a ſufficient right in the Kings of Great Britain to fiſh on theſe coaſts, excluſive of all others; but that pacific Prince, King JAMES, rather than hazard a war, ſuffered the Dutch to break in upon that part of our navigation, and even to ſeize our ſhips and merchandize in thoſe ſeas in time of full peace, 'till in the end our merchants were wearied out, and obliged to abandon that branch of buſineſs; which indeed there has been many attempts to revive, but none of them have ſucceeded 'till the South-Sea company undertook it; and they may if they pleaſe no doubt make it as advantageous to this nation as it is to the Hollander: but they don't however at preſent ſet out a tenth part of the ſhips the Dutch do for this ſervice; for, as has been obſerved, the Dutch employ between two and three hundred ſhips annually, manned with forty men each, and the South-Sea company do not employ more than three or four and twenty ſhips in it: and indeed the judicious DE WITT, and moſt writers who have treated of trade, are of opinion, that companies and monopolizing grants tend to the deſtruction of commerce and navigation. The largeſt whales it is computed yield ſeven or eight tuns of oil, which is eſteemed the beſt in the world for dreſſing ſeveral kinds of leather and ſkins. The price of it riſes or falls according as the voyage ſucceeds; for ſome years they meet with whales, and in others with more than they can manage. If every ſhip takes a whale, they look upon it to be no bad voyage. Beſides oil, each whale affords ſix or eight hundred lengths of that bone which is become ſo neceſſary in cloathing our females; theſe are found in the mouth of the animal under and on each ſide the tongue, which lies in the midſt of them, as in a bed. As to the ſeaſon and manner of taking them and extracting their oil, theſe have been treated of in the firſt volume, and therefore I forbear to ſay more of them here.

The cod-fiſhery.

The third great Dutch fiſhery is that for cod, which they meet with chiefly on the Dogger bank, a ſand between the Britiſh coaſt and their own, in which they employ about three hundred veſſels called Doggers, (from the bank they fiſh upon) being between forty and ſixty tuns burthen; and tho' this fiſhery be of great advantage to them, the Engliſh are ſuppoſed to have as good a ſhare of it as the Dutch, eſpecially if we take in our fiſheries at Newfoundland and Nova Scotia to the northward of New England, where there appears to be the greateſt plenty of this kind of fiſh that are to be found in any part of the world.

The inland fiſhery.

The fourth and leaſt, is their inland fiſhery in their lakes and rivers, which is not however inconſiderable, conſiſting of almoſt all kinds of freſh-water fiſh. Of theſe, what are not ſpent at home, they ſalt up alſo and export with their herrings and codfiſh to other countries. Sir WALTER RALEIGH computed in his time, that of all kinds of pickled and ſalted fiſh the Dutch did not export leſs annually than three hundred thouſand tuns, which exportation M. DE WITT ſuppoſed to be increaſed one third when he was Penſioner; and as they are exchanged for foreign merchandize, may (as well as their ſpices) be looked upon as ſo much treaſure, and probably together are of greater advantage to the Hollander than the mines of Potoſi are to the Spaniard.

CHAP. IX.

Treats of the Dutch manufactures.

How manufactures were introduced into Holland.

THERE is not a nation under the ſun where the people apply themſelves with more diligence to all manner of mechanick arts than the inhabitants of the United Provinces. Thoſe manufactures which an hundred and fifty years ago were appropriated to this or that particular country, have been of late years introduced amongſt them, and brought to as great perfection almoſt as in the places they were formerly peculiar to. Nor is this much to be admired, if we conſider, that when the mechanicks of the nighbouring countries of France, Flanders, and England, were driven from thence by their bigotted Princes, they retired hither, and ſet up the ſame employments as they carried on in their reſpective countries. It is not therefore to the ingenuity of the Dutch that we are to aſcribe their proficiency in this great variety of manufactures; but to the neceſſity they were under of making their country the refuge or aſylum of all diſtreſſed people, in order to ſtrengthen their hands, and enable them to reſiſt the then formidable power of Spain. It was this that occaſioned their proclaiming an univerſal liberty of conſcience, and making that one of the fundamental articles of their union. In imitation of antient Rome, this diſtreſſed people invited all others in the like diſtreſs to join them; and out of a variety of nations who brought their ſeveral arts along with them, firſt formed their little republick: conſequently ſuch mechanick arts as were practiſed by the ſeveral people, of whom this commonwealth was compoſed, muſt be in ſome perfection here, eſpecially if we conſider that the country was ſmall, and the people ſo numerous that they could not be ſubſiſted out of the product of it. They were in a manner forced to work for their lives, and by the fruits of their labour purchaſe the corn and produce of other countries to feed the multitudes that retreated thither. Thus the diligence and parſimony they are ſo famed for, were founded in neceſſity rather than choice; and when they were once become habitual, practiſed without reluctance. They ſaw what great things their frugality and application had effected, and as theſe became the ſubjects of univerſal applauſe amongſt them, every one preſſed forward to excel his neighbour in theſe arts, 'till they arrived at ſuch a degree of covetouſneſs, as to ſtick at nothing to advance their fortunes; even their governors became guilty of all manner of injuſtice, cruelty and treachery towards their allies to promote their foreign trade, and private men ſcrupled no frauds that did not bring them under the penalty of the laws, or affect their credit. Like their brethren here, they excluded only expenſive and unprofitable vices, whatever had a proſpect of gain, with them was godlineſs. But to be a little more particular as to their manufactures.

Every province and every town almoſt in the United Provinces have ſome particular manufacture which they value themſelves upon; not that theſe trades are carried on in no other places, but there are particular towns and diſtricts where the reſpective mechanick arts are brought to a greater perfection than in others.

Harlem famous for fine linnen and ſilks.

In Harlem, for example, they make the fineſt linnen, and give it ſo pure a white, that they bring it from all the reſt of the provinces, and even from Germany, and other foreign countries, to be bleached here: And Harlem lying in the province of Holland, this kind of linnen is generally called by that name, tho' one third part of it is not wove in Holland. Harlem is alſo diſtinguiſhed for its manufactures of fine ſilks and gauzes, coarſe flowered velvets, and gold and ſilver brocades, and other rich ſtuffs.

Leyden for woollen manufactures.

Their woollen manufactures flouriſhes moſt at Leyden: Here they make the fineſt broad and narrow cloths, ſerges, and camlets; but ſtill inferior to thoſe of Britain, or they would not purchaſe ſuch vaſt quantities of our woollen manufacture as they do to export to other nations. Their wool they have from Spain, Germany, Turkey; and ſome from England, Scotland, and Ireland, clandeſtinely; and tho' their want of Britiſh wool is the occaſion that this manufacture is no better, yet they have of late years much leſſened their demand for our Engliſh cloth, being able to ſupply their own people and other nations with ſuch cloth as ſerves their turn, tho' not altogether ſo good as ours. Nor are the ſilk manufactures of Holland ſo good as thoſe of France or Italy; but the difference in the price, being twenty per cent. cheaper, makes them go off better.

Delft for earthen ware.

In Delft is made that fine earthen ware which takes it's name from this city: And the brewing trade, which flouriſhes here, is reckoned among their manufactures.

Sardam for ſhip-building.

Sardam, three miles from Amſterdam, hath prodigious magazines of timber of all kinds, and the inhabitants build more ſhips and veſſels here than any town of the known world; which makes it highly reaſonable to include ſhip-building among their manufactures.

Enchuyſen for herrings. Horne for cheeſe.

Enchuyſen is remarkable for it's herrings. Horne for the beſt cheeſe in North Holland, and for it's refineries of ſalt, &c.

In Amſterdam all kinds of manufactures.

In Amſterdam all theſe manufactures, and more, are carried on, except that of Delft-ware: Here they weave broad-cloth, woollen and hair-ſtuffs, ſilks, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and ribbons of all kinds. Here they make gilt-leather, morocco, ſhammy, and many other ſorts. Nor is dying one of the leaſt of their manufactures. Here are alſo refineries for ſugar, ſalt, ſulphur, yellow wax, &c. mills for ſawing timber, for poliſhing marble, for drawing oil from ſeveral ſeeds, powder-mills and fulling-mills; and here all kinds of tapeſtry are wrought. Their linnen manufacture alſo is brought to great perfection, particularly that of ſail-cloth, in which the Engliſh fall extremely ſhort of them; as they do alſo in printing, and the manufacture of paper: but why we do ſo, is not eaſily accounted for; ſurely there is nothing ſo very difficult in theſe manufactures but an Engliſh genius might imitate.

Printing and Paper.

Sail-cloth.

As to ſail-cloth, our ſea-commanders in general complain, that what they buy in England is ſo ſlight, it frequently rends from top to bottom in a ſtorm, and ſometimes occaſions the loſs of their ſhips; whereas that of Holland wears like a board, and will bear the moſt furious tempeſt. Now the defect of ours muſt be either in the materials or the weaving, either of which 'tis preſumed might be remedied, if thoſe who had the care of fitting out our fleets gave due encouragement to the manufacturer. The materials we have from the Baltick as well as the Dutch, and ſurely we might ſpin and weave them as ſtrong as the Dutch do, if it was made a government concern; and if we conſidered what vaſt ſums are ſent annually to Holland, to purchaſe this manufacture for our ſhipping, it would be thought worth enquiring into.

As to printing and paper, there may be ſome reaſon why we do not come up to the Dutch, if what our printers ſay be true; namely, that their founders and paper-makers in Holland have greater encouragement than thoſe of Britain: tho' how this can be, when we pay much dearer for paper and print in England than in Holland, is not eaſy to diſcover. As to paper indeed, the manufacture is but lately ſet up amongſt us, and therefore it cannot be expected yet to be brought to that perfection it is in Holland: Beſides, there are ſuch taxes laid upon this manufacture, as are enough to diſcourage thoſe that deal in it. Another diſadvantage our paper-makers tell me they lie under, is, that tho' we uſe the greateſt quantities of fine linnen of any people in the world, yet the rags are ſo tinged with the coal-ſmoak and dirt, eſpecially in London, that they can never bring them to be of a pure white. As to the types made in our founderies, it is ſomething ſtrange they are no better, becauſe in all other iron-work and hard-ware there is no nation which excels us: Why then are we obliged to fetch all our types from Holland or France when we expect to have a work beautifully printed, in the bookſellers phraſe? I would adviſe our workmen to try again if they cannot outdo the Dutch in this, as well as in all other iron manufactures; and do not doubt but they will meet with the like encouragement as other mechanicks do: for though it be true, that there is a ſlight kind of hard-ware which foreigners afford exceeding cheap, yet thoſe ſame foreigners are willing to give double or treble the price for our London-ware, it is ſo ſubſtantially and exquiſitely wrought. The reader will pardon me that I dwell ſo long upon theſe things, but they are indeed no trivial matters; I would have my country-men excel all others in mechanick, as they do in liberal arts, and draw over the trade of the whole world to them by their merit; or at leaſt, prevent foreigners drawing over ſo much of our treaſure to them for manufactures which might be made as well here, and the money for them circulate among our ſelves.

CHAP. X.

Treats of the foreign trade of the United Provinces.

The Baltick and Northern trade of great advantage to the Dutch.

IF we regard the number of ſhips the Dutch employ in their voyages to the Baltick, and the nothern crowns, and the various kinds of merchandize abſolutely neceſſary to their very being, which they import from thence; this may be looked upon as far the moſt conſiderable of any trade they carry on in Europe. For from Norway they import vaſt quantities of fir-timber, maſts and yards for their ſhipping, pitch, tar, ſtockfiſh, furs, ſkins, pot-aſhes, and dried fiſh, and, as ſome ſay, copper and iron; but this muſt be in very ſmall quantities, for there are few mines wrought in this country. In return for theſe commodities they ſupply the Norvegians with wine, brandy, vinegar, tobacco, ſpices, ſalt, cheeſe, drapery, both linnen and wollen, and haberdaſhery wares; but their exports not being near equal to their imports from hence, they are forced to pay the difference in dollars, and other ſpecie. This trade is however of vaſt advantage to the Dutch, though the exchange be againſt them; becauſe they export again the fir-timber and other merchandizes of Norway to the ſouthern countries of Europe for a conſiderable profit, and employ annually two or three hundred ſhips of four or five hundred tuns burthen in their Norway navigation. They have this further benefit alſo by it, that they man great part of their fleet with Norvegian ſailors, as hardy a race of mariners as are to be met with in the world, and have in a manner incorporated them with their own people.

Their Ruſſia trade.

Their trade with Ruſſia was antiently carried on through Livonia by the ports of Riga, Revel, and Narva: but upon the diſcovery of the north paſſage into the White Sea by the Engliſh, the trade removed to Archangel at the bottom of that ſea. In the late Czar's time it was by him drawn to Peterſburg, and the ports of Livonia; but after his death the Ruſſian government thought fit to open the trade with Archangel again; and now it is carried on at all the ports above-mentioned. As the Engliſh firſt diſcovered the way to Archangel, the only Ruſſian port by which they had then a communication directly with the reſt of the kingdoms of Europe, they had large privileges granted them by the Ruſſian Princes, and were in poſſeſſion of that trade, excluſive of all other nations, for ſome time; but the Dutch, by bribing the Ruſſian miniſtry, and the falſe and ſcandalous repreſentations they made of our nation at the Ruſſian court, ſoon worked us out of that trade, and ſent thither ten ſhips to our one.

From Ruſſia the Dutch import flax, hemp, pitch and tar, linſeed, honey, wax, furs, ſkins, Ruſſia leather, fir-timber, tallow, pot-aſhes, cavear (the ſpawn of ſturgeon), and linnen: for which they exchange, ſpices, pickled-herrings, tobacco, drugs for dying, and phyſical drugs, wines, brandy, oil, vinegar, fruit, ſugar, and woollen manufactures, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, ſilks, ribbons, haberdaſhery, hard-ware, toys, hats, ſoap, and paper; but the ſilks and hard-ware they uſed to carry thither are like to become a drug, if they are not ſo already; for the Muſcovites have now a more intimate communication with Perſia, India, and China, than they had formerly, and can purchaſe ſilks there at a better hand than in Europe: nay, the Ruſſians talk of furniſhing the reſt of Europe from thence with ſilks and other merchandize of the Eaſt. And for iron-ware, which they uſed to receive from Holland and other ſouthern countries, the late Czar eſtabliſhed founderies and forges for all manner of iron-ware in his own dominions; particularly for great guns, bombs, ſwords, ſmall arms, &c. inſomuch, that it is ſaid, they will be able to ſupply the ſouthern countries of Europe, in a few years, with theſe things, on eaſier terms than they can make them at home. From Livonia alſo, now ſubject to Ruſſia, as ſoon as the country has recovered itſelf, they will no doubt import as large quantities of corn as they did heretofore. Notwithſtanding that prodigious quantity of ſpices and herrings, which the Dutch diſpoſe of in the Ruſſian dominions, the balance of trade is againſt them here alſo, and conſequently they are obliged to pay the difference in ſpecie; but then as they manufacture moſt of the commodities they receive from thence, and export them afterwards to other European nations, this trade is in the main of exceeding advantage to them.

Their trade with Denmark and Sweden.

Denmark affords very little merchandize, except lean cattle, which the Dutch buy up and fat in their rich paſtures: but from Sweden they import a great deal of iron, ſteel, and copper, and ſome manufactures of theſe metals, with fir-timber, pitch and tar, but not ſuch quantities as from Norway and Ruſſia: in exchange for which the Dutch carry them ſpices, drugs, ſalt, fruit, ſugar, wine, brandy, ſilks, linnen and wollen cloth, and ſtuffs; but not ſo many herrings as to Ruſſia: for the Ruſſians being of the Greek communion, have twice the number of faſts that the Roman Catholicks have, and conſequently are prohibited fleſh the better part of the year; and theſe faſts they obſerve ſo religiouſly, that they will rather die than eat a morſel of meat while they laſt. The Swedes alſo having of late fallen into the woollen manufacture, work up moſt of that cloth which the common people wear, and ſuffer as little as may be to be imported from abroad. Their late acts of navigation alſo, whereby they prohibit other nations importing ſeveral kinds of merchandizes, which are not of their own growth or manufacture, are no ſmall prejudice to the Dutch commerce, which conſiſts chiefly in tranſporting the produce of one nation to another.

Their trade with the ſouthern coaſt of the Baltick.

From Pomerania and Mecklenburg the Dutch import all kinds of grain, coarſe wool, timber, Sileſia linnen, ſkins and leather, honey, wax, and flax. From the ports of Royal and Ducal Pruſſia, that is, from Dantzick, Koningſburg, and Memel, where the merchandizes of Poland and Livonia are frequently ſhipped, the Dutch bring vaſt quantities of corn, leather, furs, timber, pipe-ſtaves, pot-aſhes, wax, hemp, and flax, amber, quick-ſilver, ſalt-petre, ſulphur, pitch, and tar. And from Courland, the principal port whereof is Libaw, the Dutch import grain, timber, and linſeed: in exchange for which, they carry to the ſouthern coaſts of the Baltick, ſpices, herrings, tobacco, ſugar, fruits, ſalt, paper, haberdaſhery and hard ware, wine, brandy, and, till lately, linnen and woollen manufactures; but the Pruſſians have now ſet up woollen manufactures, with which they do not only clothe their own people, but ſupply good part of the great empire of Ruſſia. Others of the Northern and German Princes have alſo erected manufactures of linnen and woollen, which has very much abated the demand for thoſe goods. In this trade to the Baltick and the north, the Dutch do not employ leſs than twelve hundred ſail of ſtout ſhips, and I queſtion if Britain ſends two hundred thither; but then the Dutch are freighted homeward chiefly with corn, timber, and other cumberſome goods, which the Engliſh do not ſtand in ſo much need of: nor do the Dutch want half the corn they import from thence; but if there happens a ſcarcity in any of the ſouthern kingdoms of Europe, they ſeldom fail of ſelling the grain they import at double the price they give for it. HUETIUS obſerves, that the monopolizing the trade to the Baltick and the North, is of that importance to the Dutch, that it is a fundamental maxim of their government, to hinder as much as in them lies, the northern nations from trading to the ſouthern and weſtern parts of Europe, and the ſouthern nations from trading to the north. Accordingly, I find a certain modern writer declaring, that the Dutch will not ſuffer the Spaniards to import the merchandize of the Baltick in their own ſhips. He ſpends a great deal of time indeed a little before, in endeavouring to ſhew, that the Spaniards, by treaty with the Dutch, have excluded themſelves from the India trade, but does not attempt to prove, that the Hollander has any right to exclude them from the trade of the Baltick, only ſays that the Dutch *will* do it; and ſeems to intimate, that becauſe it is their *pleaſure*, therefore they *ought* to do it, and that there is no injury done the Spaniards, if they ſhould oppoſe their trading thither by force. I don't doubt but the ſame author, though he pretends to be of Britiſh extraction, could, if he pleaſed to undertake the taſk, juſtify the Dutch in excluding the ſubjects of Britain from the ſpice-trade and the herring-fiſhery; for he ſeems to be one of thoſe who are ready to juſtify all their encroachments, only by ſaying, *They will have it ſo*, and *they muſt not be provoked*; for poor diſtreſſed Britain cannot ſubſiſt without their high and mighty protection; we muſt ſupport them in all their injuſtice, in order to our own preſervation. But ſure theſe poor-ſpirited animals deſerve no other notice than our contempt; I proceed therefore to enquire into the other branches of the Dutch trade.

Their trade to Germany.

The trade of the United Provinces to Germany is carried on chiefly by the rivers Rhine, Maeſe, Elbe, Weſer, and Ems. The river Rhine is navigable from Switzerland to the Low Countries, containing the ſpace of three hundred leagues, and running through ſeveral rich and populous provinces, and being joined by ſeveral other conſiderable ſtreams in it's courſe (among which are the Moſelle and the Mayn) furniſhes Holland with incredible quantities of merchandize; particularly with wine, timber and oak-planks; iron-guns, bullets, cutlers-ware, copper, linnen-thread and flax. By the Maeſe they receive bullets, bombs, grenadoes, ſmall arms, braziers ware, wrought ſteel and iron, lead and pit-coal: in return for which, the Dutch carry them vaſt quantities of their herrings and ſpices, ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, drugs, ſugar, fruit, and cheeſe. By the Elbe, and eſpecially from the city of Hamburgh, ſituate on the eaſtern bank of it, the Dutch import vaſt quantities of corn, tin-plates, or white iron, (as 'tis uſually called) braſs-wire, and timber. By the river Weſer alſo they receive excellent timber, wool, grain, ſeveral ſorts of metals, beer, and Brunſwick mum; for which they exchange herrings, ſpices, ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, and other goods, the product or manufacture of their own country or plantations. But inſtead of carrying treaſure to Germany, they bring a great deal from thence, the balance being very much on their ſide.

Their trade with the Auſtrain Netherlands.

The trade the Dutch formerly had with the Auſtrian Netherlands was very advantageous to them, and carried on with great eaſe by the rivers and canals which water theſe countries. From thence the Dutch imported fine Bruſſels and Mechlin laces, cambricks, lawns, damaſk, diaper, and other fine linnens, fine thread-tapeſtry or arras, ſerges, and ſheeps-leather nicely dreſſed; for which the Hollanders exchanged their ſpices, and all manner of Indian goods, as alſo the ſilk and woollen manufactures of their own country. But ſince the erecting of the Oſtend Company, the Flemings take off no more Indian merchandize; and the Emperor having prohibited the importation of Dutch goods into his hereditary countries, there ſeems to be a perfect ſtagnation of trade on this ſide at preſent. Neither have the Dutch only loſt their trade with Flanders, as to the point of India goods; but with ſeveral other countries contiguous to Flanders, which have been of late ſupplied by the Oſtend Company, on which I ſhall enlarge when I come to treat of the trade of the Auſtrian Netherlands.

Their trade with France.

The trade of the United Provinces with France was much more conſiderable in the year 1660 than it is at preſent; for the French ſince that time having laid high duties upon the merchandize of Holland, and ſet up ſeveral manufactures, the Dutch, by way of retaliation, encouraged the making the manufactures of France in their own country, which very much leſſened their importations from thence. It appears, that about the year 1660, the Dutch imported from France to the value of four millions ſterling of French goods; conſiſting of velvets, ſattins, gold and ſilver tiſſues and taffaties, ribbons, ſilk and thread-laces, hats, watches, looking-glaſſes, gilt frames, and toys; gloves, paper, pins, needles, ſmall iron and ſteel-ware; linnen, ſail-cloth, beds, quilts, and other upholſterers goods; wines of various ſorts, brandies, and vinegar; ſalt, ſaffron, ſoap, almonds, capers, olives, prunes, and other fruit.

The merchandizes imported at this day by the Dutch from France, are wines, brandy, vinegar, and ſalt; ſail-cloth, ſmall iron and ſteel-ware, pins and needles; ivory, ebony, and box-combs; watches, looking-glaſſes, gilt frames, plumes, and a great variety of toys; ſaffron, almonds, olives, capers, prunes, and ſome other fruits: for which the Dutch ſend them in return, ſpices, tin-plates uſually called white iron, timber and naval ſtores, herrings and other dried and ſalted fiſh; butter, cheeſe, tallow, Ruſſia leather, arms, gun-powder, wood and drugs for dying and other uſes; linnen, ſteel, and copper. And notwithſtanding they have ſtruck off ſo many conſiderable articles in their importations from France, ſtill the balance is againſt them, and they pay the difference in treaſure. The French trade however is held to be of great advantage to them, in as much as they export moſt of the goods they receive from thence again, with which they purchaſe the merchandize of other countries.

Their trade with Spain and the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies.

From Spain the Dutch import wine, brandy, raiſins, oranges, lemons, oil, ſalt, wool, figs, olives, almonds, ſonde or kalt, (an herb which being burnt, turns to an hard ſubſtance, and is uſed in making of ſoap) iron, ſteel, cheſnuts, anchovies, and anniſeeds, which are the produce of old Spain. The merchandize of America, which the Dutch import alſo from Cadiz, are pearls, emeralds, quinquina, cochineal, indigo, cocoa, and vanelloes (uſed in making chocolate) Campechy-wood bark, balſam of peru, tobacco, and leather; but above all, thoſe precious metals of gold and ſilver, of which 'tis computed the Dutch receive no leſs than five hundred thouſand pounds ſterling annually, for goods ſent to America. For it ſeems the Spaniſh merchants not having cargoes ſufficient to freight their ſhips, for that country, take goods of the Italians, Engliſh, and Dutch, which they ſend thither, and having exchanged them for the merchandize and treaſures of Peru and Mexico, deliver the produce to the foreign merchants who intruſted them; ſo that the Spaniards are in reality but factors to thoſe nations for great part of the goods ſent by the flota and flotilla to that part of the world, and the Spaniards they employ have ever proved very faithful in this truſt, as the profit they reap by ſuch commiſſions encourages them to be. 'Tis true, if the whole cargo the Spaniard ſent to America were their own, the profit would be much greater; but ſince they make all the advantage they can deſire of their proper goods, and have a further advantage by dealing for the merchants of other nations, it is not to be wondered at that they undertake the charge; neither is it to be ſuppoſed that the government would ever put a ſtop to this practice, becauſe the larger the returns are, the larger are the duties and indults payable to the crown. And there may be this farther political reaſon for the Spaniſh government's winking at this underhand traffick, namely, that the neighbouring powers having already all the advantages within a trifle they can expect by a *direct* trade with the Spaniſh dominions in America, will not be ſo ſollicitous to attempt a trade thither, or endeavour to encroach on their weſtern plantations and ſettlements, as they might otherwiſe be. Of all the nations that traffick thus to the new world through the hands of the Spaniards, the trade of the Italians is much the moſt conſiderable; for the weſtern people ſeem to love to made a figure and ſhine in ſilk, which manufacture the Italians ſeem to be arrived at the greateſt perfection in of any nation in Europe. The trade of the Engliſh and Dutch alſo is very conſiderable to New Spain; and I take it for a rule, that the leſs the Engliſh trade is here, the more the Dutch have of it; for which reaſon the Hollander cannot but rejoice to find us at variance with the Spaniard: nor will he ever deſire to ſee us in the quiet poſſeſſion of Gibraltar, a port in the neighbourhood of Cadiz, from whence the flota annually ſets out for New Spain, leſt we ſhould have too great an influence on the navigation to that part of the world. But I forbear to make any further reflections on this head here, and proceed to enumerate the ſeveral ſpecies of merchandize the Dutch export to Spain; and theſe are ſpices, herrings, cod, and all manner of ſalted and dried fiſh; butter, cheeſe, and, in ſcarce years, corn; timber, maſts, pipe-ſtaves for caſks, planks, and all manner of naval ſtores; linnen and woollen manufactures, as hollands, cambricks, lawns, muſlins, callicoes, table-linnen and tapes; broad and narrow woollen cloths, ſerges, camblets, plain ſilks, brocades, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, lace, hats, ribbons, ſmall wares, paper, cards, Ruſſia leather, white and yellow wax, medicinal drugs, and thoſe for dying. But beſides the trade the Dutch carry on with the Spaniſh ſettlements in America by the way of Old Spain, they trade clandeſtinely alſo with the Spaniards in that part of the world from the iſland of Curaſoa, which lies not far from Cartagena; the merchants of which port, and of the other towns along the coaſt of Terra Firma, have a very good underſtanding with the Dutch, as HUETIUS relates: and this is almoſt the only advantage which the Dutch have of their American ſettlements, for I do not know any iſland or place they are maſters of in the Weſt-Indies, that produces any thing worth the taking notice of. But I had almoſt forgot one branch of the Dutch trade with America, and that is the furniſhing the Spaniards there with Negro-ſlaves from Africa, which is chiefly tranſacted at Curaſoa; this is not the leaſt beneficial part of their traffick, and the Engliſh endeavour to rival them in it: but this dealing in our own ſpecies in the manner it is uſually managed, is ſo barbarous a practice, that I muſt confeſs I cannot wiſh my country-men ſucceſs in it: this part of commerce is only fit for Dutchmen, who can diveſt themſelves of all humanity, where there is a gain to be expected.

Their trade with Portugal.

The merchandizes the Dutch import of the growth of Portugal, are wine, oil, olives, lemons, oranges, anniſeeds, raiſins, figs, dry ſweet-meats, and ſalt. And thoſe of their plantations and ſettlements in America, are ſugar, tobacco, brazil-wood, and other woods for dying, hides, ginger, indigo, ambergreaſe, pearls, and diamonds, for which the Dutch exchange their ſilk, linnen and woollen manufactures; hard-ware, haberdaſhery, leather, and in a ſcarce year corn. And here the balance is on the ſide of the Dutch, which they receive in moidores, or other gold coin.

Their Turkey trade.

The Dutch Turkey trade is ſo conſiderable, as to become the particular care of the government, who have eſtabliſhed a council ſtiled the Chamber of Direction, conſiſting of ſix Deputies and a Regiſter, who have been Burgomaſters of Amſterdam, to take care of it. This council regulates the convoys, and ſees the orders of the States obſerved concerning their navigation and commerce. The ſhips employed in this ſervice are uſually veſſels of good force on account of the rovers of Barbary, who are ſeldom long at peace with the Dutch, and were lately ſo troubleſome, that the Hollanders were obliged to intercede with their allies, the Engliſh, to procure a peace for them; which that good-natured nation brought about, though much to the diſadvantage of their own trade: for while the Dutch were at War with the towns on the Barbary coaſt, the Engliſh enjoyed the Levant trade almoſt without a competitor; for the convoys the Dutch ſent into thoſe ſeas, could not protect their merchant-men. Their ſhips bound for Turkey uſually touch at Cadiz and Leghorn, as well to take in Spaniſh pieces of eight, as for freſh proviſions. And there are other ſhips which touch at the ports of Spain and Italy with merchandize, which they diſpoſe of there, and take in other goods for Turkey, either on their own account, or for the French, Italians, and other nations; and in returning alſo, they frequently ſell the merchandize of Turkey in the ports of Italy, or Spain, and ſhip other goods for Holland, either on their own account, or for others.

The principal port the Dutch uſe in Turkey is Smyrna, from whence, and other ports, they bring raw and ſpun ſilk, goat's and camel's hair, cotton and ſeveral kinds of Turkey leather; camlets, wax, allum, galls, wool, coffee, currants, medicinal and dyers drugs, particularly rhubarb, which comes through Turkey from the eaſtern Tartary; ſcammony, galbanum, tutia, frankincenſe, ſenna, caſſia, aloes, ſal armoniac, tamarinds, and maſtick. To purchaſe which, the Dutch carry to the Levant their ſpices, woollen-cloth, tin, lead, iron, and ſteel; Ruſſia-leather, cochineal and indigo, and a pretty deal of treaſure, conſiſting of pieces of eight or Spaniſh dollars.

Their trade to Italy.

The Dutch have alſo a conſiderable trade with Italy and Sicily, the principal ports whereof are Genoa, Leghorn, Venice, Naples, and Meſſina, from whence they import raw, twiſted, and wrought ſilks of various ſorts, as ſattins, damaſks, tabbies, gold and ſilver brocades, the moſt beautiful of their kind in Europe, gold-thread drawn and twiſted, velvets, oil, fruits, confections, allum, ſulphur, Venetian ſteel, manna, amber, turpentine, cream of tartar, lacca, glaſſes, white marble in ſquares and tables, paper, ſoap, eſſences, perfumed gloves, ſnuff, rice, and anniſeeds. In exchange for which the Dutch ſend thither their ſpices, China-ware, ſalted and dried fiſh, iron, Swediſh copper, Engliſh tin, and lead, whalebone, maſts, planks, and naval ſtores; woollen-cloth, ſerges, camlets, Flanders thread, cavear, and grain in ſcarce years; except that at Venice they will ſuffer no iron, copper, or cloth, to be imported, becauſe they have very good of their own.

Their trade with Britain.

The trade of the United Provinces with the Britiſh iſles is very great. From England they import broad-cloth and other woollen manufactures in large quantities; for whether it proceeds from want of ſkill, or of materials, certain it is the Engliſh ſtill excel all other people in making of fine cloth. Tin and lead is another great article in their importations from Britain, as well as tobacco and ſugar. Malt and grain is another, when it bears a moderate price in England; and the exportation of coals from Newcaſtle and Scotland increaſes every day. From Scotland alſo the Dutch import ſome coarſe woollen manufactures, lead, ſalted ſalmon, hides, and tallow. From Ireland they receive ſalt beef and butter, tallow, hides, and wax; and theſe ſeveral kinds of merchandize are exported generally in Britiſh ſhips and veſſels, to the city of Rotterdam, the centre of the Britiſh trade in the United Provinces. In exchange for which, the Dutch export to the Britiſh iſles, ſpices, fine linnen, ſail-cloth, Rheniſh wine, and brandy, geneva, and other ſpirits; deal and wainſcot-boards, with ſome of the merchandize of the Auſtrian Netherlands, ſuch as tapeſtry, lace, cambricks, lawns, and pictures. And a late writer aſſures us, that from an inſpection of the entries of imports and exports at London, and the beſt information he could procure, this traffick has been extremely to the advantage of the ſubjects of Britain for the laſt ſeven years. But (admitting this to be true, which I have ſome reaſon to queſtion) how much more conſiderable would the balance be on the ſide of Britain, if we were not wanting to ourſelves: what neceſſity have we of importing that prodigious quantity of fine linnen from Holland that is uſed here? Is there not a linnen manufacture in Ireland brought to a very great perfection? and ought we not in juſtice, and even compaſſion, to that people, to encourage their linnen manufacture, when we have ſuppreſſed that of woollen? and in the end, would not the greateſt advantage reſult to our ſelves by this conduct? As the ſeat of government is in England, thither would the wealth of Ireland as naturally flow, as rivers fall into the ocean. The ſame may be ſaid of Scotland: Were that people encouraged to eſtabliſh a herring-fiſhery, they too in time would become rich, and we ſhould in ſome meaſure make them amends for the loſs of their Court and Parliament. How much ſoever it may be thought our intereſt to ſtrengthen the Dutch, ſure it is much more ſo to ſtrengthen and advance the wealth of our own kingdoms and provinces, which might by theſe means be brought to bear a great ſhare in the charges of the government. Let me recommend to my countrymen alſo, the introducing all manner of machines that may enable us to work with as few hands as the Dutch do, and we ſhall ſoon find our importations from Holland conſiderably leſſened. Let us alſo encourage by rewards, every man that ſhall bring any branch of our manufactures to perfection, and teach us to finiſh them as well as our neighbours do. For example: Let that Iriſhman who can produce a piece of linnen equal to that of Holland, have ſuch a reward as ſhall encourage others to imitate him. Let a proportionable ſum be given to our manufacturers of paper, and founders of types for printing, and we ſhall not fail to ſee them in a few years equal the French and Dutch in thoſe particulars. Let the Scotch mariner, who can produce a cargo of pickled herrings equal to thoſe of Holland, receive a reward ſuitable to thoſe advantages the nation may reap by his induſtry and ingenuity. Let the man that can diſcover how to tranſplant cinnamon, nutmegs, or cloves, to ſettlements under the Britiſh dominion, have all the encouragement my native country can give him. And let the like be done in every other beneficial branch of buſineſs, and we ſhall ſoon ſee a new face of things. 'Tis true, in ſome former reigns, when attempts have been made towards advancing our manufactures or traffick, we have miſcarried by the covetouſneſs of our own miniſters, who have accepted bribes to betray the intereſt of their country to foreigners; but this is not to be ſuſpected from gentlemen ſo perfectly free from corruption as the preſent, and who have no other views than the proſperity of their country.

The way to render our trade ſuperior to that of the Dutch.

Navigation.

As to the navigation of the Dutch, it is frequently ſaid, that they have more veſſels and mariners than all the reſt of Europe put together; but then we muſt bring into this account all the veſſels, ſeamen, and watermen, that are employed in their fiſheries, and upon their rivers and canals: for it is evident, that the Engliſh have as many large ſhips, and veſſels of burthen, as the Dutch, except in their Baltick and Northern trades, where they may poſſibly employ a thouſand ſhips more than the Engliſh do (but this is balanced by the number of ſhips the Engliſh ſend to their plantations in America, where the Hollander has little or no trade). In every other country almoſt, whither the Engliſh and Dutch trade to, we alſo find more of the Engliſh ſhipping than of the Dutch. But this article will be farther conſidered when we come to treat of their forces by ſea and land. The reader may expect here that I ſhould enlarge on the Hollanders trade to the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies and Africa, but he may be pleaſed to remember, that theſe branches of trade have been treated of in the former volume; and I would not weary him by repeating what has been already ſaid on thoſe heads: beſides, I ſhall have further occaſion to treat of their Eaſt-India trade, when I come to enquire into their naval force.

CHAP. XI.

Treats of their revenues, taxes, ordinary and extraordinary, and of their forces by ſea and land; as alſo of their coin, weights, and meaſures.

Their revenues and forces.

THE ſubjects of the United Provinces are liable to a great variety of charges and impoſitions. The council of ſtate every winter draw up an eſtimate of the expences of the enſuing year, and preſent it to the States General, who ſignify to the reſpective provinces their ſeveral ſhares and proportions of it, the whole uſually amounting to between two and three millions ſterling in time of peace. The States of every province demand of the ſeveral cities and diſtricts within their limits, their reſpective ſhares; which when brought in, each province ſends it's quota to the treaſury of the States General;

out of which are paid their land-forces, conſiſting of twenty five thouſand men, compoſed of Switzers, Scots, and other foreigners, as well as national troops. And there are ſeldom leſs than fifty men of war in commiſſion, either employed in convoys to protect their merchants and fiſheries, or which lie ready equipped in their harbours, for any ſervice the ſtate may have occaſion to make uſe of them in; and there are ſeldom leſs than fifty or ſixty ſail more unrigged, which are from time to time repaired out of the publick money. The reſidue is employed in paying the ſalaries of the officers of ſtate, ambaſſadors and publick miniſters, in entertaining foreign Princes, or their miniſters, or other accidental charges of the ſtate.

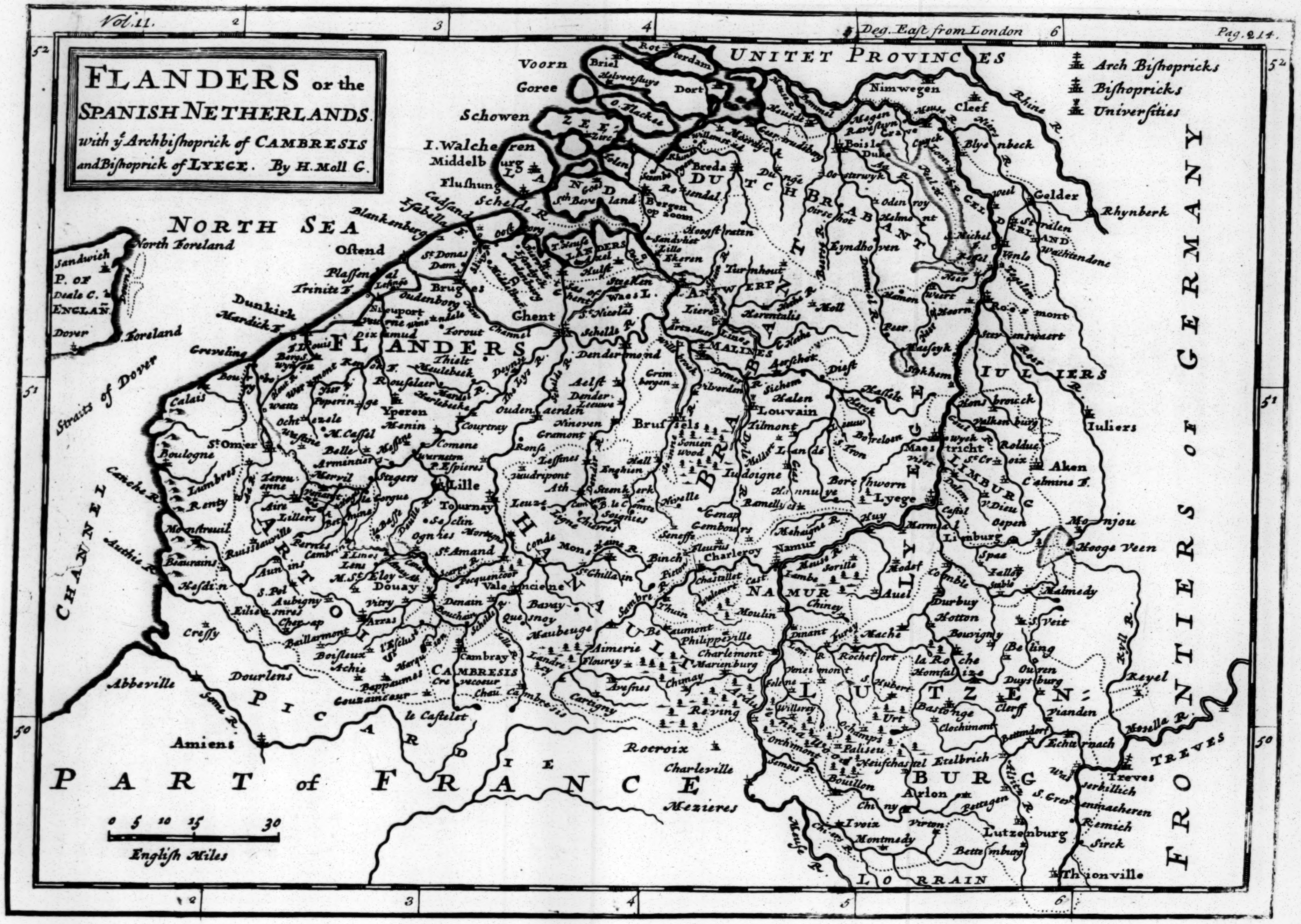
The forces of the barrier.

To the ſtanding forces of the United Provinces, we may now very well add the troops they are obliged to keep in the barrier towns of the Auſtrian Netherlands, by a treaty concluded between his Imperial Majeſty and the States General, on the 15th of November, 1715. By the third article of this treaty it is ſtipulated, That his Imperial Majeſty and the States General ſhall conſtantly maintain in the ſaid Netherlands, a body of thirty or twenty-five thouſand men, whereof his Imperial Majeſty to have three fifths, and the Dutch two: And when there is any appearance of war, the ſaid body is to be augmented to forty thouſand men, according to the ſaid proportion: And in caſe of actual war, ſuch a further force as ſhall be thought neceſſary by both parties. By the fourth article of the ſaid treaty his Imperial Majeſty agrees, That the States General ſhall have private or ſeparate garriſons of their own troops, in the towns and caſtles of Namur and Tournay, and in the towns of Menin, Furnes, Warneton, Ypres, and Fort Knocque; but the States General engage not to garriſon the ſaid places with troops belonging to any Prince or nation at war with, or ſuſpected to be in engagements contrary to the intereſts of, his Imperial Majeſty. In the town of Dendermond it was agreed there ſhould be a garriſon compoſed of an equal number of Germans and Dutch, under an Imperial Governor, who is, however, as well as the inferior officers, to take an oath to the States General, not to do or ſuffer any thing that may be prejudicial to their ſervice, with reſpect to the preſervation of the ſaid town and garriſon, and the Governor to be obliged by the ſame oath, to give free paſſage to the States troops as often as ſhall be deſired. And it was further ſtipulated, That in the places to be garriſoned by the States, they might place ſuch govenors, commanders, and officers, as they ſaw fit, provided they were not chargeable to his Imperial Majeſty, or the country, unleſs for lodging, which governors and officers ſhould be dependent only on the orders and juriſdiction of the States General, for what concerns the guard or ſecurity of ſuch places; but are however to take an oath to his Imperial Majeſty, to guard the ſaid places faithfully for the houſe of Auſtria, and not to intermeddle in civil affairs. It was agreed alſo, that the States might change their garriſons as often as they ſhould ſee proper, and ſhould have free paſſage for their troops through any of the towns of Brabant and Flanders, as well going as returning, and through all the open country; with liberty of making bridges on the canal between Ghent and Bruges, and upon all the rivers in their road, upon requeſt firſt made to the Governor of the Netherlands, with whom the rout of ſuch troops ſhould be ſettled. By the 13th article it is agreed, That the States ſhould be at liberty to augment the fortifications of any of the ſaid towns at their own expence, adviſing firſt with the Governor of the ſaid Netherlands. And becauſe it was found neceſſary in the laſt war to leave a conſiderable body of troops in the towns of the States General, to prevent their being ſurprized (whereby their army was much weakened) a ſecond barrier is granted them within the former upon their own frontiers; for his Imperial Majeſty, by the 17th article of this treaty, conſented to let the States poſt their troops on the Demer between the Scheld and the Maeſe; and to give up to the States General ſuch forts and territories of the Auſtrian Flanders bordering upon their frontiers as lie between Dendermond and the ſea, for the better covering of thoſe parts where they cannot make inundations upon the lands already belonging to the States General, in caſe of a rupture with France: and in conſideration of the expences, the States will neceſſarily be at in maintaining the troops in the ſaid barrier towns, and repairing their fortifications; his Imperial Majeſty agreed by the 19th article, That the States ſhould have and receive out of the revenues of the Auſtrian Netherlands the ſum of five hundred thouſand crowns per annum. And by the 27th article it was agreed, That the fortifications of the citadel of Liege, and the caſtle of Huy, ſhould be demoliſhed. Of which treaty his Britiſh Majeſty became Guarantee.

500000 crowns granted to the States, to maintain the troops of the barrier.

The forces thus maintained in the barrier towns, the reader obſerves, are not any charge to the States; ſo that though their ſtanding forces be now increaſed to forty thouſand men, their charge is not at all augmented. The reſt of the troops are for the moſt part quartered in the conquered places and countries of Brabant, Flanders, Juliers, &c. and not in the Seven Provinces, who have beſides the forces abovementioned, their reſpective militia's; the town of Amſterdam alone hath a body of two or three thouſand men in their pay, to whom the guard of their city is committed. Nor can the ſoldiers of the States General regularly quarter in any of their cities without the conſent of their reſpective Magiſtrates; which was one occaſion of the loſs of ſo many of their towns ſo ſuddenly on the French invaſion in 1672; for while they were deliberating whether they ſhould admit the troops of the States General or not, the French took advantage of their diſſenſions, and made themſelves maſters of many conſiderable places without the trouble of a formal ſiege; from whence it appears, that the ſeveral towns and provinces are put to ſome additional charges in maintaining their reſpective militia's, as well as miniſters and officers, beſides their quota of two or three millions, which they pay to the States General: and over and above theſe there is an everlaſting enemy, namely, the water, which coſts the maritime provinces incredible ſums to defend themſelves againſt: tho' the frontier provinces againſt France and Germany, before the barrier was ſettled, uſed to complain no leſs of the charge they were at in maintaining the fortifications of their towns; for every province or city repairs it's own fortifications, though thoſe of the conquered countries are kept up at the charge of the States General.

I come next to inquire into the ſeveral kinds of taxes, whereby the reſpective provinces and towns raiſe their quota, towards the expence required of them by the States General, and the charges



FLANDERS or the SPANISH NETHERLANDS. with yͤ Archbiſhoprick of CAMBRESIS and Biſhoprick of LYEGE. By H. Moll G.

Deg. East from London
2
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4
6
52
51
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Arch Biſhopricks
Biſhopricks
Univerſities
NORTH SEA
CHANNEL
Straits of Dover
UNITET PROVINCES
FRONTIERS of GERMANY
PART of FRANCE
PICARDIE
LORRAIN
FLANDERS
ARTOIS
HAINAULT
BRABANT
DUTCH BRABANT
NAMUR
LYEGE
LUTZENBURG
LIMBURG
IULIERS
GELDERLAND
ZEELAND
ANTWERP
CAMBRESIS
P. OF ENGLAN
Sandwich
North Foreland
Deale C.
Dover
S. Foreland
Voorn
Goree
Briel
Rotterdam
Dort
Schowen
I. Walcheren
Middelburg
Flushing
Schelde R.
Blankenberg
Isabella
Cadsand
Ostend
Plassendal
Bruges
Dam
Sluys
Nieuport
Dixmuide
Dunkirk
Mardick
Greveling
Calais
Boulogne
St. Omer
Ypeeren
Menin
Courtray
Lille
Tournay
Ghent
Dendermond
Aelst
Brussels
Mechlen
Louvain
Tilmont
Antwerp
Breda
Bergen op zoom
Bois le Duc
Grave
Nimwegen
Cleef
Gelder
Rhynberk
Rhine R.
Maestricht
Aken
Iuliers
Lyege
Huy
Namur
Charleroy
Mons
Conde
Valenciennes
Douay
Arras
Cambray
Bavay
Maubeuge
Philippeville
Marienburg
Charlemont
Dinant
Rochefort
Bastogne
Arlon
Lutzenburg
Thionville
Treves
TREVES
Mosella R.
Malmedy
St. Veit
Moujou
Limburg
Spae
Abbeville
Amiens
Somme R.
Cressy
Dourlens
Hesdin
Monstreuil
Authie R.
Canche R.
le Castelet
Rocroix
Charleville
Mezieres
Bouillon
Montmedy
Ivoix
Maese R.
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English Miles

3 MA 53

The various ways of raiſing money in Holland.

requiſite to ſupport their reſpective States Provincial as well as cities. And theſe are in ſhort, by an almoſt general exciſe, and their cuſtoms; but becauſe it may be a ſatisfaction to my readers to be a little more particular, I ſhall here ſpecify ſome of the chief of them. Their taxes are divided into ordinary and extraordinary; their ordinary or conſtant taxes, which are levyed as well in time of peace as war, are, 1. A duty upon ſalt, called *Sout-geldt*, which is very moderate: one of the Magiſtrates of the place takes an account of all the ſouls in each family, and gueſſing at the quantity of ſalt they may ſpend, levies on them annually a proportionable ſum. 2. A duty upon beer, for which every private man pays about twenty pence a barrel; only ſuch ſmall beer as is not worth half a crown a barrel, which the pooreſt people drink, pays nothing. 3. Another duty amounting to twelve pence per barrel is paid by every publick brewer; and Engliſh, German, or other foreign beer imported, pays a much higher duty. 4. The victuallers, or retailers of beer, pay alſo a further duty of twenty pence per barrel. 5. Every hogſhead of vinegar pays nine ſhillings the barrel. 6. French wine pays ſix pence the ſtoop, or gallon; Spaniſh wines twelve pence the ſtoop; and brandies ten pence. 7. Butter ſix ſhillings the barrel, containing three hundred and twenty pound. 8. For a pipe of eating-oil, eight ſhillings; and for a pipe of fiſh-oil, four ſhillings. 9. Wax and tallow-candles, eight pence the hundred weight. 10. Turf for firing, three halfpence per tun, and coals from England and Scotland, thirty ſhillings per tun. 11. Five pence per hundred for lead. 12. Wood, an eighth part of the value. 13. Silver and gold ſtuffs, twelve pence per yard or ell. 14. Engliſh cloth, a third part of the value. 15. Tapeſtry hangings, and other houſhould goods, a ninth part of the value. 16. For a laſt of wheat which is ground in Holland, ſix pounds ſix ſhillings; half as much for a laſt of rye; and five and thirty ſhillings per laſt for barley or oats. 17. For all cattle, ſheep and hogs that are killed, a ſeventh part of the price. 18. For every horned beaſt above three years old, three pence per month; and for every horſe, two pence. 19. Herrings and ſalt-fiſh ſold to private citizens, twenty pence the pannier. 20. Every retail fiſhmonger pays a ninth part of the value for ſalmon and ſturgeon. 21. Tobacco, ten pence per pound; ſoap, eleven ſhillings the barrel, and pitch ſixteen pence the barrel; every cart or little boat twenty pence a year, and every coach ten ſhillings a year. 22. All farms and lands, one pound in ſixteen. 23. All lands ſown or planted, pay four pence half-penny an acre per month, till the grain or plants are cut. 24. Every houſe pays an eighth part of the rent. 25. Every ſervant-man or maid pays twenty pence per head. 26. All immovables, under which title they comprehend ſhips, as well as eſtates in land and houſes, pay a fortieth part of the price when ſold or alienated, which ariſes to a very great ſum, there being no part of the world where eſtates are more frequently ſold. 27. A duty or ſtamp upon paper, according to what is written thereon. And indeed, there is not that thing ſcarce in the whole country but ſome duty or other is laid upon it: and every province and city varies their taxes as they ſee fit; ſo they raiſe the quota required of them, nether the Provincial Eſtates, or the States General interpoſe in the matter. And where any province refuſes it's proportion of taxes, I don't find that the States General ever proceed againſt them for it by military execution, but by perſuaſion and argument, and ſhewing the ill conſequences of breaking the fundamental articles of their union.

Their extraordinary taxes in time of war are either, 1. Poll-money, which is uſally twenty pence per head. 2. Chimney-money, twenty pence every hearth: or, 3. The land-tax, as it is called, or two hundredth penny, being ten ſhillings on every hundred pounds a year; which though their country be but ſmall, ariſes to a conſiderable ſum, there being ſo many great towns with houſes of good value in them.

I proceed next to obſerve the conſtant charges or taxes laid upon them to defend their country againſt the ſeas and floods; and the famous DE WITT aſſures us, that every rod of ſea-dyke coſts them ſix hundred gilders, or ſixty pounds ſterling, to make; that againſt the rivers alſo the charge of maintaining the banks is very great: but the greateſt charge of all, is the draining the country when it is over-flowed, and their dykes broke through, as they frequently are. In Rhineland, a part of the country which has very little communication with the ſea, or with any running water, only with ſtanding lakes, every acre pays two ſhillings acredge money, and fifteen pence per acre more towards draining the ſnow and rain-water off their lands every ſpring, and another ſhilling per acre towards highways, cauſeys, and foot-paths, beſides great fines and charges they are put to by their Dyke-Graves, (officers who have the inſpection and care of repairing their dykes) and by their Bayliffs and Heemraden, who are governors and judges in the country villages.

The forces of the Dutch in the Eaſt-Indies.

Before I leave this head of their forces and revenues, it may not be improper to inquire into the ſtrength and forces of the Dutch in the Eaſt-Indies; becauſe I find it ſaid by many writers, and ſome of them men of figure, That the Dutch can fit out a fleet of forty ſail of men of war of the line at Batavia, and muſter an army of thirty or forty thouſand men there: and I don't doubt the Dutch would be very glad to have this believed in Europe; and that their fleet and army there are as good in all reſpects as an equal number of their ſhips and forces are allowed to be on this ſide the world, that other nations may be deterred from making any attempts on their ſettlements in the Indies. But whatever the number of their men of war, or land-forces be on that ſide, I will take upon me to ſay, that twelve or fifteen fourth-rate men of war fitted out in Europe, would drive their whole naval force out of the Indian ſeas, and joined with a very ſmall detachment of land-ſoldiers, would take the beſt town they have in the Indies, even Batavia their capital: for neither the ſhips that are built and fitted out in India are comparable to thoſe of Europe; neither are the Dutch troops or ſeamen there an equal match for ours. Thoſe in Batavia, and other Indian ſettlements, who are of Dutch extraction, are become as effeminate as the former inhabitants were of the Portugueſe, whom the Hollanders diſpoſſeſſed of theſe very countries, and may as eaſily be diſpoſſeſſed of them in their turns. 'Tis true, the Dutch are at preſent the moſt formable naval power in the Indian ſeas; becauſe the Princes of the Eaſt, the Mogul, and the Emperor of China, have not yet applied themſelves to navigation; neither has any European Prince or State yet attempted to drive the Dutch from thoſe coaſts, as they did the Portugueſe and Engliſh. But I would have my countrymen well apprized, that the thing is not impracticable, and the uſage we have received from the Dutch in that part of the world, may one day poſſibly occaſion it's being attempted, if they do not behave themſelves in a more friendly manner than they have done.

One obſervation more I ſhall take leave to make in relation to the Dutch trade in India, which I omitted in the former chapter, where it ought properly to have come in; and that is, concerning their managing that trade by a Company. It is no ſecret at this day, that the company's ſervants, their Governors and inferior Officers, run away with moſt of the profit of this trade, and the company itſelf does not thrive in proportion to the advantages they might be expected to reap by a monopoly of the fine ſpices. Which is occaſioned by the members of the States of Holland being alſo members of the Eaſt-India company, who advancing their relations and friends to all important poſts in that part of the world, and in the fleets that are ſent thither, give them ample opportunity of making their fortunes and families; and, 'tis ſaid, frequently ſhare with theſe gentlemen they ſend abroad in the plunder of the company. One of theſe Indian Governors for the Dutch having been a little too open and ſcandalous in this practice, was, I remember within theſe few years, fined an hundred thouſand pounds, and yet was thought to come off with a great deal more: and theſe delinquents having ſuch powerful ſupporters, it is not one time in an hundred that they are called to account at all. When theſe gentlemen have amaſſed prodigious eſtates in the Indies, they uſually return and ſpend the remainder of their lives in their own country; which, conſidering the many hundreds of gainful employments the company has to diſpoſe of in India, may well be ſuppoſed to fill Holland with more wealthy overgrown merchants than are to be met with in other places. Two ways eſpecially the Indian Governors and Officers have of making their fortunes: one is by ſelling ſpices under-hand in the Indies to the Engliſh and other foreigners, and the other is by trading in the country for themſelves and thoſe that employ them; the firſt of which the Company have taken all imaginable care to prevent, by placing three or four Officers in every conſiderable port to be checks upon each other; but nothing it ſeems is more common than for all of them to agree together to defraud their maſters, and make their own fortunes. As for little villains indeed, they are very ſevere upon them: we are informed that a native of Ceylon happening to furniſh an Engliſh mariner with a ſmall quantity of cinnamon, was upon the diſcovery inſtantly hanged up without mercy; and thus, no doubt they would have ſerved any of their own common people who had offended in the like nature: but when this is done by a brother officer, who may wink in his turn, the caſe is otherwiſe, eſpecially if the roguery is capable of being concealed from vulgar eyes. But I wave any further reflections on this head at preſent, and proceed to inquire further into the ſtate of the forces and public revenues of the Dutch in Europe.

A further enquiry into the Dutch forces and revenues.

Since the States General apprehended a rupture with the Emperor, they have increaſed their ſtanding forces to near fifty-four thouſand men, conſiſting of 4612 horſe, 2400 dragoons, and 46914 foot, which, joined with the militia of their towns, conſtitute a very formidable land-army; and they have alſo ordered their fleet to be conſiderably augmented, and publiſhed a proclamation, prohibiting their ſea-men to enter into any foreign ſervice on pain of death.

To ſay what forces the Dutch are able to maintain, might be looked upon as a piece of preſumption in me; but I have ſome reaſon to believe that there are not many kingdoms in Europe able to equip out larger fleets, or more numerous armies than the States. The friends of the Dutch indeed tell us, that their naval force is much leſſened, and that they run themſelves very much in debt by maintaining their quota of troops the laſt war: the deſign of which ſuggeſtions is no doubt to induce their good allies, the Engliſh, to take the whole charge of defending them on themſelves; and whether the confederates of Hanover have a quarrel with the powers of the Baltick, Spain, or the Auſtrian Netherlands, the Engliſh alone may if they pleaſe be at the expence of a fleet to aſſert their common rights; nay, to defend all the extravagant pretenſions of the Dutch to monopolize the trade of the world to themſelves. But if the Dutch have really fewer men of war in commiſſion than the Engliſh, who have of late years employed theirs in many expenſive and hazardous voyages, in ſome of which by ſickneſs alone, without ſtriking a ſtroke, they have loſt their compliment of men and officers twice over, and ſuffered their ſhips to be eaten up with worms; theſe circumſtances to me are very far from proving that the Britiſh fleet is at preſent in a better condition than that of the Dutch. There are no people in Europe who take more care in laying up their men of war, and keeping them in repair, than that nation does; and ſuppoſing there have been ſome of their fleet ſuffered to decay, there are few nations who can ſooner ſupply their rooms than the Hollanders can. If we may believe eye-witneſſes, there is not ſuch a magazine of ſhip-timber, and other naval ſtores in the world, as is to be met with at Sardam, a league from Amſterdam; and their ſhipwrights and artificers there, ſome writers tell us, are ſo numerous, that they are able to build a ſhip of five hundred tuns every day in the year: add to this, that there is no kingdom where there are always ſuch numbers of mariners ready to man the largeſt fleets; inſomuch, that in the fierceſt conteſts between the Engliſh and Dutch for the Empire of the ſea, in the times of CROMWELL and King CHARLES II, they never had occaſion to preſs a man into the ſervice. Let any Gentlemen, I ſay, but lay all theſe circumſtances together, and conclude, if he can, that the Dutch are not able to fit out a fleet equal to that of any of their neighbours.

As to their remaining ſtill in arrear, and not able to diſcharge their debts they contracted the laſt war, I look upon this to be all grimace; they might ſoon be out of debt if they pleaſed, but this ſerves them for a good pretence to beg with. By pleading poverty they prevail with their allies to take the burthen of their defence upon them: beſides, they pay little or no intereſt for the ſums they owe; and their credit is ſo good, that people croud in with their money when there is the leaſt intimation that the government will do them the favour to accept it; and the proprietors, in the phraſe of a writer of figure, ever receive it back again with tears; they value a ſecurity from the State much beyond ready money: but admitting their government were deeply in debt, and did not know which way to turn themſelves: what is the reaſon of it? Why, to ſay the truth, their exciſes and taxes lie chiefly upon the pooreſt, or the middling ſort of people, and thoſe of the greateſt fortunes pay but a trifle towards the publick expences in compariſon of the eſtates they enjoy.

An old hunks, who has two or three hundred thouſand pounds in trade, in the bank or lombard-houſe (a publick office for pawns) and keeps but two or three ſervants, pays no more towards the ſupport of the government than an ordinary ſhop-keeper, the exciſes affect him little more, and the cuſtoms upon import and export being ſo extremely low. Now, was the government reduced to any great diſtreſs, it lies in their power to tax theſe gentlemen who have perſonal eſtates, equal to the real eſtates of our noblemen in proportion to their fortunes; and ſhould the Dutch ever exert themſelves in this manner, I do not doubt but their publick revenues would at leaſt equal thoſe of Britain: for there is no place in the world ſo well planted with overgrown merchants as Holland, which will readily be acknowledged, if we conſider the advantages they have in trade beyond the reſt of the world. 1. They have in the firſt place the monopoly of the fine ſpices, on which they ſet what price they pleaſe: with theſe, as hath been obſerved, they purchaſe the merchandize of every other country. 2. They have the benefit of nine parts in ten of the herring and whale-fiſheries. And, 3. They employ above a thouſand ſail of ſhips in tranſporting the merchandize of the Baltick and the northern kingdoms, to the ſouthern countries of Europe, and the product of the ſouthern countries to the north. And, 4. They have much the greateſt trade of any nation in the world upon the coaſt of Africa. Let any perſon but well conſider the riches that are to be gained from theſe four articles, in which the reſt of the nations of Europe ſcarce interfere with them, and they will not vary much from my opinion, that there are more rich merchants in the ſeven United Provinces than in all the kingdoms of Europe; and conſequently, that this nation is able to raiſe very large ſupplies; nor can any thing eaſily ruin them, unleſs their aſſuming too much; and by their haughty and inſolent behaviour inciting a confederacy of the moſt potent nations of Europe againſt them, as they did in the year 1672. If it be demanded why the States do not lay their taxes more equally, and comprehend the wealthy as well as the meaner ſort of people in their levies; it may with a great deal of truth be affirmed, That it is, becauſe the legiſlative power in every province and city almoſt is lodged in the hands of the wealthieſt inhabitants, or their relations. And, 2. That if they ſhould lay higher cuſtoms upon merchandize, it might diſcourage their importations and exportations, which are one great ſupport of the ſtate.

There remain two things ſtill to be conſidered, in order to give us a juſt idea of the preſent ſtrength and ſecurity of this mighty ſtate, namely, the alliances they have lately entered into, and the ſtrong towns of the Auſtrian Netherlands they are poſſeſſed of, which makes the ſituation of their affairs much more deſirable than in any preceding times: they have not only an army of between fifty and ſixty thouſand men in their own pay, but by the treaty of Hanover, Great Britain and France are engaged to aſſiſt them with the forces of their reſpective nations, if there happens a rupture with the Emperor; and there are not at preſent any other powers in Chriſtendom the Dutch can be under any apprehenſions of. The barrier towns they are maſters of, are ſome of them the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in the known world, particularly Namur and Tournay, as appears from the notable reſiſtance they made in the late wars, and the time they held out againſt armies conſiſting of an hundred thouſand men, commanded by the greateſt Generals in Europe; and ſuch is their ſituation, that ſhould a war happen between the Imperialiſts and the Dutch, the latter would probably be able to make an entire conqueſt of the Auſtrian Netherlands, and unite it to their ſtate, if their allies the French and Engliſh, in their wiſdoms, ſhould think fit to contribute towards ſuch a union. 'Tis true, the Dutch frontiers lie a little open to the Imperialiſts on the ſide of Guelderland and Over-Yſſel, but as they are now actually fortifying all the paſſes on this quarter, by which they can be attacked, and with their confederates will be able to form an army equal, if not ſuperior, to what the Emperor can bring into the field, they have little to fear from any attempt on the ſide of Germany. On the contrary, ſhould there happen a miſunderſtanding between the French and the Hollander, the latter have now ſo ſtrong, and continued a barrier from the ſea-ſhore near Furnes to Namur, and ſo along the river Maeſe as far as Maeſtricht in their own territories, that the French would find it much more difficult to approach their frontiers in caſe of another war than they did in the laſt; eſpecially if they were ſupported by Britain and the Emperor, as they will infallibly be, if it is not their own fault. I look upon the Dutch ſtate therefore to be in a manner impregnable on the land-ſide; and if they keep a good correſpondence with Britain, as it is certainly very much their intereſt to do, they have nothing to fear from the ſea. But if they ſhould again encroach upon our trade, and inſult our Princes, and imagine themſelves to be ſelf-ſufficient, and to ſtand in need of no foreign aſſiſtance, as in the days of De Witt, who in his hiſtory of Holland plainly aſſerts, they were a match for all the powers of Europe; I ſay, if they ſhould become as vain again as they were then, and wantonly and unneceſſarily provoke the neighbouring powers to attack them with their united forces, they muſt expect to be reduced to the like diſtreſs, notwithſtanding all the advantages they at preſent enjoy.

Their coin.

I proceed next to give ſome account of the coin which paſſes in the United Provinces, of which there is a great variety; as gold ducats, gold ducatoons, ſilver ducatoons, and half ducatoons, rix-dollars, half and quarter rix-dollars, florins, ſchillings, four-penny, two-penny, and penny pieces, deuts, and pennings, whereof ſixteen pennings make one ſtiver, or penny, and three deuts, or doits, make one ſtiver; ſix ſtivers, or pence, make one ſchilling; twenty ſtivers make one florin (or gilder); fifty ſtivers make a rix-dollar; ſixty-three ſtivers make a ducatoon; fifteen florins or gilders make a gold ducatoon; and five florins five ſtivers a gold ducat. The coin of England, France, and Germany, alſo paſs here for their intrinſick value: the French Lewis-d'Or goes for about nine gilders, or an hundred and eighty ſtivers, and a French crown for fifty ſtivers; but the reader is to obſerve, that the Dutch ſtiver is ſomething more in value than the Engliſh penny, and therefore I find moſt people, who treat of the Dutch coins, make a gilder, or twenty ſtivers, equal to two ſhillings Engliſh: ſo that when foreigers reckon by livres, florins, or ſtivers, we have nothing more to do, than to divide by ten, and this reduces the ſum to pounds ſterling. The coin called a ſchilling, and which goes for ſix ſtivers, is always a baſe metal, and not a third part of the value it goes at; and whoever travels from one province to another, will take care therefore not to carry too much of this coin with him, for it is never taken for ſo much in a foreign province as in the place where it is coined.

Their bank.

And here, give me leave to add a word or two concerning the bank of Amſterdam, where is ſuppoſed to be lodged more treaſure than in all the banks of Europe; one reaſon whereof may be the great ſecurity thoſe who lodge their money there apprehend it to be in; for it ſeems the whole city is obliged to make good the treaſure depoſited there, and it is obſervable, that a bank-note is of more value here than current money, the reaſon whereof is, that they take no coin but at the intrinſick worth: for example, a ducatoon of ſilver, which in current payment paſſes for ſixty-three ſtivers, or pence, is received in the bank but for ſixty ſtivers; ſo that there is in reality, five per cent. difference between bank-money and current-money, and this ſurplus is called the *Agio*, which is not always the ſame, but is ſubject to riſe and fall as our ſtocks are, but uſually it is from four and a half to five per cent. The Directors of this bank, it ſeems, are not known to trade with this money, or make any uſe of it; but I find it is very much ſuſpected that they do underhand, and particularly, that they go ſhares with the publick lombard-houſe, or pawn-office, when jewels, or things of great value are lodged there by neighbouring Princes, as they frequently are: nor do they in this caſe at all hazard the treaſure intruſted with them; for the directors of the lombard-office do not lend above two thirds of the value upon any pawn; nor do they ever ſuffer the intereſt to run, but if it be not regularly paid, immediately give notice of a ſale, as they did in the caſe of the late Elector of Bavaria's jewels.

There are ſeveral cities in the United Provinces which ſtill retain the privilege of coining money, as Arnheim in Guelderland, and Dort in Holland; and the States or Magiſtracy of North-Holland (uſually called Weſt-Friezeland, and in ſome reſpects a diſtinct province) have a mint within their own juriſdiction, ſometimes at Hoorn, and ſometimes at Enchuyſen. The province of Zealand alſo have a mint at Middleburgh; and the city of Utrecht ſtill enjoys it's antient privilege of coining money. In Friezeland the city of Leuwarden hath the ſame privilege; as have the cities of Deventer, Campen, and Swoll in Over-Yſſel, without any regard to the States of the province, claiming it as free cities of the Empire, as they were formerly; and the city of Groningen makes the like pretence. But as by the union of Utrecht there was to be a certain ſtandard of all money current through the whole ſtate; the States General appoint officers to inſpect the ſeveral mints, and to take care that no counterfeit money be coined in their dominions.

Their weights and meaſures.

Their weights are, the pound; an hundred whereof make the Dutch quintal, that is an hundred and eleven pounds Engliſh (or, according to ſome an hundred and eight pounds) which is equal to an hundred and ſeven pounds of Antwerp, an hundred and ſeventeen pounds of Flanders, and ninety-eight of Paris.

Their moſt uſual meaſure is the ell, an hundred and thirty-four whereof make an hundred yards Engliſh: and their corn is ſold by the laſt, which contains an hundred and three of their ſhepels, or ten quarters Engliſh. The ſhepel I may denominate the Dutch buſhel; an hundred and eight ſhepels making fourſcore of our buſhels.

CHAP. XII.

Treats of their Language, Learning, Univerſities, and of their liberal and mechanicks Arts.

Their language and learning.

THE language of the United Provinces is a dialect of the German or High-Dutch, but more corrupted and clowniſh than that of Higher Germany; of which the reader will find an account in the former part of this volume. There are few of the better ſort but underſtand French, which is indeed become the common language of the courts of Europe.

As to the ſtate of learning here, ſays a modern writer, the mechanick arts are preferred to the liberal ones: for how can it be expected that people who are ſo bent upon trade, ſhould trouble themſelves much with ſpeculation or nice diſtinctions. This country hath however produced ſome very great men in the commonwealth of learning: and they have two Univerſities, which ſome of our countrymen ſeem to prefer to our own, by ſending their ſons and relations thither; though perhaps the cheapneſs of the place, and the little trouble they have in acquiring degrees, may be the principal inducements for entring their friends here; for our people don't generally admire a Dutch education. But to proceed;

Their Univerſities.

The Univerſity of Leyden was founded in the year 1674, by the States: the ſchools are one pile of brick building three ſtories high, containing two rooms on a floor, the uppermoſt having been **Elzivɛr**'s printing-office. There is here, as in ſome other foreign Univerſities, a *Series Lectionum* printed annually, and affixed to the ſchool-gates, whereby people are apprized what hour every Profeſſor reads. The number of ſcholars in this Univerſity is computed to be about two thouſand. They have a phyſick-garden contiguous to the ſchool-yard, conſiſting of an acre of ground well ſtocked with plants. On the left of it is a long gallery, in which the Botanick Profeſſor reads his lectures, and in which are a great variety of rarities. There are but two colleges in the Univerſity, the Students living in private lodgings in the town. The Profeſſors alone wear gowns, and that only when they read lectures, or preſide at diſputations, others performing their exerciſe in cloaks; and the auditors ſit covered at lectures and diſputations. They confer degrees without any regard to their ſtanding: and for exerciſe, he that intends to commence, prints a ſtate of the queſtion he deſigns to maintain, which he is obliged to defend againſt all opponents. Each Profeſſor, beſides the profits which ariſe to him from his auditors, who are in the nature of pupils, hath two or three hundred pounds a year allowed him by the States. *Liberalium artium Magiſter*

giſter and Doctor in each faculty, are the only degrees conferred. Thoſe who are matriculated in the regiſter of the Univerſity enjoy large privileges, and Students above the age of twenty are exempted from paying of exciſe for a conſiderable quantity of wine and beer. The Rector, who uſed to be choſen by the Stadtholder, and now by the States, enters annually on his office on the day of the dedication of the Univerſity, viz. on the 8th of February N. S. and he enjoys the title of *Magnificus*. There are alſo three Curators, aſſiſted by the four city Conſuls as their colleagues; who have the Syndick or Recorder for their counſel. The ſenate of the Univerſity conſiſts of twelve Profeſſors, namely three of each faculty; but they may be augmented by the Curators, under certain limitations. All cauſes among the Scholars, both civil and criminal, are decided ultimately by the Rector and his four Aſſeſſors, to whom are joined the conſuls and ſome of the Schepins of the city. The library of the Univerſity is only conſiderable for it's manuſcripts, which are eſteemed of great value two hundred and twenty one whereof were brought out of the Eaſt by J. GOLIUS. There are ſkeletons innumerable of all ſorts and ſizes in the Anatomy-Theatre; mummies, heathen idols and reliques; a variety of minerals, and habits of ſeveral countries. They ſhew here a man's bladder containing two gallons of water; and the mummy of an Egyptian Prince reputed to be eighteen hundred years old. Many learned Profeſſors this Univerſity is ſaid to have produced, 1. In Divinity, LAMBERTUS DANÆUS, FRANCISCUS GOMARUS, and FRIDERICUS SPANHEMIUS. 2. In Law, HUGO DONELLUS, BERNARDUS SCHOTANUS, and JACOBUS MESTERTIUS. 3. In Hiſtory, JUSTUS LIPSIUS, PAULUS MERULA, PETRUS CUNÆUS, JOHANNES VOSSIUS, and DANIEL HEINSIUS, ADRIANUS HEREBOORD, JOSEPH SCALIGER, and CLAUDIUS SALMASIUS; the two laſt being natives of France, and invited hither by the States of Holland, who allowed them conſiderable ſalaries. And, 4. In Phyſick, FRANCISCUS DE LA BOE SYLVIUS. The reader may meet with a fuller account of this Univerſity in MEURSIUS's *Athenæ Batavæ*.

As to the original of the Univerſity of Utrecht, the Dutch hiſtorians inform us, that DAVID of Burgundy, Biſhop and Prince of the Province, erected a publick ſchool in this city about the year 1459. That in the year 1636, the magiſtrates of the place erected it into an Univerſity. The power of the academical Governor and Officers is exceedingly limited; both the Profeſſors and Students, being ſubject to the ordinary magiſtrates of the town, who inflict puniſhments on all offenders. The hour and ſubject of their lectures, are printed every half year by their Profeſſors; among whom ISBRANDUS DIEMERBROECK is in great reputation for his *Anatome Corporis Humani*, publiſhed here anno 1672. This library has more printed books than that of Leyden, but not near ſo many manuſcripts.

As to their mechanick arts, the reader will find many of them taken notice of already in the chapter of their manufactures, to which I ſhall therefore refer him; and only add, that their ſkill in painting, graving, and carving is much admired, and their muſical inſtrument-makers are eſteemed excellent artiſts: but it is generally obſerved of them, that they are much better at imitation than invention.

CHAP. XIII.

Treats of the religion of the inhabitants of the United Provinces, and of their marriages and funerals.

The religion of the United Provinces.

UPON the firſt ſtruggles for their religion and liberties, the Proteſtants of the Low Countries agreed, that the publick profeſſion ſhould be Lutheraniſm, with liberty of conſcience however for thoſe of different opinions. But by the union of Utrecht, concluded in the year 1579, each of the provinces was empowered to eſtabliſh ſuch a religion in their reſpective limits, as was thought moſt conducing to the welfare of their Province, with a proviſo ſtill, that none ſhould be forced in matters of conſcience. But in the year 1583, it was agreed by the States General, that Calviniſm ſhould be the eſtabliſhed religion of the United Provinces; for theſe reaſons, ſays Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE, among others, 1. Becauſe their chief ſupporters in England, France, and Germany, were of that perſuaſion. 2. Becauſe thoſe of that perſuaſion ſeemed moſt violent againſt the Spaniards. 3. Becauſe by this profeſſion all the rights and juriſdiction of the clergy being ſuppreſſed, there was no eccleſiaſtical authority left to diſturb or fetter the civil power; and all the goods and poſſeſſions of churches and abbies were ſeized into the hands of the State, which occaſioned a great increaſe of their publick revenues, a thing the moſt neceſſary for the ſupport of their infant government. The ſame honourable writer obſerves further, That ſince this eſtabliſhment, it hath been the great care of the State to favour no particular or curious inquiſition into the faith or religious principles of any peaceable man, who came to live under the protection of their laws, and to ſuffer no violence or oppreſſion to be uſed towards any man, whoſe opinions broke not out into expreſſions or actions of ill conſequence to the State. The Roman Catholick religion only was excepted from the common protection of the laws, on account of their acknowledging a foreign and ſuperior juriſdiction. But though this is not provided for by the conſtitution of their government, it is in a manner tolerated by the connivance of their officers, who upon certain conſtant payments from every family, ſuffer the exerciſe of the Roman Catholick religion in their reſpective juriſdictions, as freely, tho' not ſo cheap and ſo avowedly, as the reſt. But as to what this honourable writer ſays further, I cannot agree with him, namely, That no diſputes are ever heard of here, on account of religion, and that the civil government hath never been diſturbed by religious feuds for a long courſe of years; when all the world knows, that there is no country in Europe has been more endangered and diſturbed by religious diſputes than this, and that even from the very foundation of the State to this day, as is evident from the repeated conteſts between the Gomariſts and Arminians in this very country; ſo that however it may be true, that a general liberty of conſcience is the readieſt way to promote peace in any government, the Hollanders are but a very unlucky inſtance of it. And Sir WILLIAM, in working up a panegyrick of this people and their government, ſeems to have forgot a great many particulars he could not but be acquainted with: nor are the Dutch at laſt to be altogether acquitted of perſecution, for they have frequently diſpoſſeſſed the Gomariſts and others, of their eſtates and preferments, who would not ſubſcribe to the doctrine of Calviniſm: nay, they have impriſoned and baniſhed Nonconformiſts, and even condemned them to death. And as to the Papiſts, do they not make them conſtantly pay for a liberty to profeſs themſelves of that communion? And do not the Scouts, or civil Officers, frequently ſhut up their private chapels, in order to extort ſums of money from them? And after all this will the Dutch wipe their mouths, and ſay they are not guilty of perſecution! But further, do they not exclude all people who are not Calviniſts from all places of profit and truſt in the government, which their brethren on this ſide the water look upon as no ſmall degree of perſecution, telling us of their birth-rights and natural privileges, from which, according to them, no ſubject can be juſtly excluded? And as to the friendſhip and unity among the ſubjects of the United Provinces, which are ſo much applauded, ſome late writers aſſure us, that one ſect or party will ſcarce deal with another, but if a tradeſman comes to ſettle any where, who is not of the ſame communion with the people of the place, they will ſtarve him: and ſurely the man who is thus treated muſt reſent the uſage, and then what good neighbourhood is to be expected amongſt them, more than we meet with in other countries? Authors of undeniable credit alſo aſſure us, that ſuch have been the diſputes between the Gomariſts and Arminians, that they frequently came to blows in many of their cities, even while they were coming home together from church, and ſometimes actually beat out one another's brains; till the Gomariſts called in the civil power to their aſſiſtance, and impriſoned and baniſhed the moſt conſiderable of their enemies. And though the mob are generally Calviniſts, the better ſort of people I find are Arminians in their hearts, and do not ſtick to diſcover their opinions upon ſome occaſions. But it is remarkable, that the Calviniſts here, contrary to thoſe of Scotland and other Preſbyterian countries, are great advocates for a monarchical form of government; while the Arminians, who approach pretty near to the church of England, are altogether of commonwealth principles.

And as the Dutch are in many inſtances as guilty of perſecution as their neighbours whom they charge with it, ſo are they, in ſome particulars, intolerably remiſs and negligent; there is no ſect, how ſcandalous and blaſphemous ſoever, that they will not entertain, if they bring but wealth along with them, and may contribute to enrich their country; inſomuch that there are above thirty ſeveral ſects in Amſterdam, even Browniſts, Familiſts, and ſuch extravagant opinions as no other eſtabliſhment will bear, and ſuch as have long been ſuppreſſed in all other civilized countries. But the Dutch perhaps (according to the opinion of ſome of their friends on this ſide of the water) are in the right in tolerating what the reſt of mankind abhor.

But to proceed: The bulk of the people are Calviniſts at preſent, and have the power in their hands, though whether the Roman Catholicks do not equal their numbers in many of the villages, I perceive is made a queſtion of late years. The Deputies of the general Synod we find complained to the States General in the year 1725, that the number of Roman Catholicks was increaſed in the United Provinces ſince 1650, at leaſt three hundred and fifty thouſand. The Arminians alſo, now they are without a Stadtholder, begin to lift up their heads; and as there are many of them among the magiſtracy, may poſſibly, e'er long, give a turn to eccleſiaſtical affairs in this country. Some of their greateſt men have conjectured, That the ſtruggles for power between the Calviniſts and Arminians, will one day endanger the deſtruction of their State; and yet this is the country where Sir William Temple, and, after him, ſome modern writers, without examination, affirm that there are no heats or conteſts occaſioned by different opinions in Religion. The Anabaptiſts alſo are very numerous in this State, eſpecially in North Holland, where I think they reckon up no leſs than ſix diviſions or ſects of them. The Jews have two ſynagogues at Amſterdam, and two others at Rotterdam and the Hague; among which one of thoſe at Amſterdam is eſteemed one of the greateſt ornaments of that city, by this people ſometimes called their New Jeruſalem.

The Calviniſts, who are the eſtabliſhed ſect, or Church, as they call themſelves, are governed by a preſbytery, among whom there is almoſt a perfect equality, except that the ſeniors, or thoſe made choice of to preſide amongſt them, have ſome preference in their aſſemblies. Particular congregations are under the direction of the Miniſters, Elders, and Deacons; but all cenſures and degradations, and what concerns religion in general, is determined in their ſynods, which are either provincial or general. Theſe aſſemble twice a year, having firſt given notice to the States of the time of their meeting; whereupon the States appoint a member of their own body to preſide in the ſynod, who is ſtiled the *Commiſſarius Politicus*. The General ſynod ſend a deputation to the States General once in three years, to repreſent the ſtate of religion, and to petition for a reformation of ſuch abuſes as their own authority does not extend to. The miniſters receive their ſtipends, which are uſually about an hundred and fifty pounds a year, from the magiſtrates of the city, or place where their cure lies; and I do not find that any of them are allowed a plurality of livings. As to tythes and church-lands, it has been already obſerved, that the States took poſſeſſion of theſe on the firſt conſtitution of their government, and have retained them ever ſince, ſo that the Dutch clergy depend entirely on the magiſtracy; and if their diſcourſes offend them, 'tis ſaid, they ſend the preacher a pair of ſhoes and a ſtaff, by which he underſtands 'tis their pleaſure that he march out of their territories, and he dares not be ſo impertinent as to offer at a defence.

The Dutch churches are ſeldom without organs, eſpecially in their cities and great towns, and no part of their worſhip delights them like pſalm-ſinging; accordingly we find ſcarce any other books in their churches but pſalters, bound up with their catechiſm; and the pſalm to be ſung is uſually marked on ſlates, hung up in ſeveral parts of the church. Collections for the poor are made in ſermon-time, a purſe and a bell being faſtened at the end of a ſtaff, and carried about by the Deacon, (who if a kind of overſeer for the poor) for that purpoſe. They are very far from obſerving the Lord's day with that ſtrictneſs the Preſbyterians do on this ſide the water, making no ſcruple of travelling by boat or waggon, or of buying or ſelling ſmall matters; nay, there is not any diverſion they refrain from on theſe days: and yet what a work did our Preſbyterians make in the laſt age, about a permiſſion to the common people to follow their recreations on a ſunday, after divine ſervice in the evening? even this alone was thought cauſe ſufficient to juſtify a rebellion againſt the government by ſome, and to murder an Archbiſhop in cold blood; ſo various are Preſbyterian principles in one country from what they are in another!

Their marriages.

Before the celebration of any marriage, there is a ſolemn contract made between the parties in the preſence of their friends, whereby their choice is ſo far determined, that there is no receding from it; which to me ſeems to be the marriage itſelf, and to be ſo looked upon by the parties eſpouſed; for they make very little ſcruple of living together as man and wife afterwards, and the woman is frequently pregnant before the marriage is ſolemnized in a church, or bleſſed, according to the French phraſe. There are in ſome towns commiſſaries for cauſes matrimonial, choſen out of the principal citizens; theſe take the names of the perſons to be married, and ſee that they have the conſent of their parents or guardians; after which they deliver the names of thoſe who are to be married (if they approve of it) to the miniſter of the place, who publiſhes the banns three times in the church before or after ſermon, according to the cuſtom of the place. As to thoſe who are not of the eſtabliſhed church, it is the cuſtom in many cities to publiſh the banns before the ſtadt-houſe, or town-hall, in which the ceremony is celebrated afterwards, according to their reſpective forms, in the preſence of two Senators; though this is ſometimes diſpenſed with, and their marriages are ſuffered to be ſolemnized after banns publiſhed in their reſpective chapels, or places of divine worſhip. Though the Dutch women in their bloom are handſome enough, yet after marriage, applying themſelves to all manner of drudgery, and drinking pretty freely with their huſbands, their beauty is gone uſually before they are five and twenty. If the huſband be a tradeſman, the wife manages every thing in the ſhop, as well as in the houſe, and her man, as ſhe calls her huſband, has very little to do within doors, and indeed can ſcarce be called maſter of his family; the very children, eſpecially his wife's favourites, inſult him, and his ſervants ſhew him but little reſpect; nor dare he correct any of them, they are ſo very much upon a level in this country.

Their funerals.

At the burials of the Calviniſts I cannot learn there is any funeral-ſervice read at the grave, or any bell rung to give notice of the time of their death or interment; but a certain perſon, whoſe office it is, gives notice to the neighbourhood to attend the corps to the grave, three or four days after his deceaſe; and there is in many places a penalty inflicted on thoſe who neglect to perform this laſt office to their deceaſed friends. In ſome places both men and women attend their friends to the grave, and in others the women are prohibited. They follow the corps as with us, being uſually clothed in long black cloaks, and having ſeen their friend put into the ground, return to the houſe, where they meet with an entertainment, or at leaſt a glaſs of wine; and in ſome places it is the cuſtom to be very merry, in the room where but a little before they wept and lamented their loſs: but people of diſtinction, 'tis ſaid, order a ſum of money to be ſpent on the bearers and company at ſome tavern or publick houſe, and retire decently to their chambers to lament their misfortune. There is a certain ſet time of day appointed both for marriages and funerals, in ſome places in the morning, and in others in an afternoon; and if the corps is not brought out at the appointed time, thoſe who have the direction of the funeral forfeit a certain ſum for every hour they exceed the limited time, to the uſe of the poor, which people of figure frequently chooſe to do, for the ſtate of the matter, and to ſhew their charity. The time of mourning for a parent, for a huſband, or wife, is a year and ſix weeks.

The Papiſts and Lutherans ſeem to lay a great ſtreſs upon ringing a bell at the death and interment of their deceaſed friends, and having them buried in churches, or conſecrated ground, which the government makes them pay very dear for; and indeed there are no rites, how ſuperſtitious ſoever they are eſteemed, but the Dutch will tolerate if they are paid for it.

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE Auſtrian and French Netherlands.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the ſituation and extent of the Auſtrian and French Netherlands, containing thoſe ten provinces, the remainder of the ſeventeen, which were not included in the union of Utrecht; deſcribing their ſeas, harbours, rivers, canals, air, and climate.

CHAP. I.

The ten Auſtrian and French provinces.

THE ten provinces of the Netherlands, which were not comprehended in the union of Utrecht, and which are now ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria and France, (except ſome ſmall part of Brabant and Flanders, which the Dutch have made themſelves maſters of) are, 1. The duchy of Brabant. 2. The county of Flanders. 3. The county of Artois. 4. The county of Hainault. 5. The County of Cambreſis. 6. The county of Namur. 7. The duchy of Luxemburg. 8. The duchy of Limburg. 9. The marquiſate of the Holy Empire, or Antwerp. And, 10. The lordſhip of Malines or Mechlin. Theſe ten provinces are bounded by the Ocean and the United Netherlands towards the north, by Germany on the eaſt, by Lorraine and part of France on the ſouth, and by another part of France and the Britiſh ocean towards the weſt; being about an hundred miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about fourſcore in breadth from north to ſouth.

Their ſeas and harbours.

The north-weſt part of theſe provinces only is waſhed by the ocean, and is a very unſafe coaſt, on account of the numberleſs ſhelves and ſands which lie upon it. The only ports are thoſe of Graveling, Dunkirk, Newport, Oſtend, and Sluys, and theſe will ſcarce admit ſhips of any great burthen; the beſt of them are Oſtend and Sluys. The harbour of Dunkirk was deſtroyed, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht: but of theſe I ſhall give a more particular account when I come to deſcribe the towns to which they belong.

Their chief rivers.

The Maeſe, the Scheld and Lys.

The Lieue.

The Aa.

The Sambre.

CHAP. I.

The Dyle.

The Rupel.

The Demer.

The Scarpe.

The Dendre.

Canals.

The chief rivers that have their courſe through theſe ten provinces, are, the Maeſe, the Scheld, the Lys, the Lieuve, the Aa, the Sambre, the Dele or Dyle, the Demer, the Scarpe, and the Dendre. The three firſt of which, namely, the Maeſe, the Scheld, and the Lys, have been deſcribed already in treating of the United Provinces. The Lieue riſes near Middleburg in Flanders, and falls into the Scheld at Ghent. The Aa has it's ſource in Artois near Terouen, and paſſing by St Omer's, divides itſelf into two branches, which are re-united near Graveling, where it falls into the ſea. The Sambre, called by CÆSAR *Sabis*, riſes in Hainault, and paſſing by Landrecy and Maubeuge, is united with the Maeſe at Namur. The ſpring of the Dyle is in Brabant, and takes it's courſe by Louvain; and afterwards receiving the Demer, runs on to Mechlin, a league from whence it acquires the name of Rupel, communicating, it's name to the town of Rupelmond. The Demer ariſes from two ſprings in the county of Liege, about a league from Tongres, which uniting below Bilſen, paſs on to Haſſelt, Dieſt and Arſchot, uniting with the Dyle a little below Boteſlaer. The Scarpe hath it's ſource from two ſprings in the province of Artois, which being united near Arras, flow on to Doway and Marchiennes, and a little below St Amand fall into the Scheld. The Dendre hath it's ſource in Hainault, not far from Conde, and running by Aeth, Ninove, and Aloſt, falls into the Scheld at Dendermond. Beſides theſe rivers there are as fine canals here as in Holland, though not ſo many of them: the chief whereof are thoſe of Bruſſels, Ghent, and Middleburg.

No ſprings in the flat country near the ſea.

It is obſervable that in the flat country, and eſpecially that part of it which borders on the ſea, there are no ſprings, though there are ſeveral in the hilly part of theſe provinces at a diſtance from the ſea; which, as Dr NICHOLSON intimates, is a confirmation of the modern opinion, that the ſource of fountains is not from the ſea, but from great quantities of waters otherwiſe, and chiefly by rain, collected in ſubterraneous receptacles; and this is farther evinced from a well in one of the maritime provinces, not far from the ſea, of a very great depth, but with little or no water in it.

The air.

The air of this country is for the moſt part healthful, at leaſt much more ſo than the air of the United Provinces, except that part of Flanders which lies near the ſea, as about Dunkirk, Oſtend, and ſome few other maritime places. But of this and the ſoil I ſhall ſpeak more parcularly, when I come to deſcribe the ſeveral provinces.

Foreſts.

This country was antiently famous for it's fine woods and foreſts, of which there are ſtill ſome remains, though far the greateſt part of them are now converted into populous towns and villages,

and

Of Ardenne.

and fruitful fields of arable land and paſture. The chief of theſe foreſts is that of Ardenne, in CÆSAR's time the largeſt of all Gaul; for beginning near the Rhine, and extending itſelf through the middle of the country of Triers, it reached on one ſide as far as the territories of the city of Tournay, and on the other as far as Rheims in Champaigne, being five hundred miles in length. The thickeſt part of it at preſent is between Thionville on the eaſt borders of Luxemburg, and the city of Liege, which is about thirty leagues; in which limits alſo there are many villages and plowed fields; the principal whereof is the town of St Hubert, ſituate on the middle of it.

Mormant.

2. The foreſt of Mormant in Hainault, which begins near Queſnoy, and reaches ſeveral leagues towards Vermand, containing however ſome towns and villages: and here are made great quantities of charcoal, from whence ſome ſuppoſe it to be part of that antient foreſt, called by the French, *La Cherboniere*.

St Amand.

3. The pleaſant wood of St Amand, ſituate alſo in Hainault, beginning from the limits of French Flanders near the town of St Amand, and extending to Valenciennes. But this, as I remember, the late French King ordered to be cut down.

Faigne.

4. The foreſt of Faigne, being near Aveſnes in Hainault, and extending as far as Meziers in Champaigne, being about ſixteen leagues.

Soigny.

5. The foreſt of Soigny, adjoining almoſt to the city of Bruſſels, is above one and twenty miles in compaſs, and contains fourſcore thouſand acres; one hundred of which being cut down every year, yields the Emperor a revenue of fifty thouſand florins per annum, according to Mr PEERS, which makes 5000 *l.* per ann. when reduced to pounds ſterling. But this reverend Gentleman (or his author) muſt certainly mean a thouſand acres, as well from the price he rates it at, as becauſe he ſays it is all cut down once in eighty years; and then ſuppoſing it to be worth five pounds an acre, it muſt yield five thouſand pounds per annum. But I am apt to think they cut four thouſand acres a year; becauſe 'tis uſual in moſt other places to cut underwoods at twenty years growth; and in this caſe it will be a revenue worth the mentioning, namely twenty thouſand pounds ſterling per annum. If it be meant indeed, that a hundred acres of timber are cut every year, which are worth fifty pounds an acre, then Mr PEERS's calculation of fifty thouſand florins, or five thouſand pounds per annum is right: but then the timber muſt not be cut above once in four hundred years, which can hardly be ſuppoſed.

Meerdale, &c.

6. Meerdale, near Louvain; Zaventerloo, between Louvain, Bruſſels, and Vilvord; and Grootenhout, near Tournhout in Brabant.

Marlaigne.

7. Marlaigne, beginning near the caſtle of Namur, and extending along the banks of the Maeſe, reaches almoſt to Philipville.

Niepe.

8. Niepe, which begins on the confines of Artois, extends as far as the river Lys, and is the principal foreſt in Flanders. There is alſo a foreſt called Nonna, contiguous to Ypres, which extends itſelf to the northward.

Poodſberg.

9. Poodſberg, on the confines of Flanders and Hainault, between Grammont and Leſſines, a large foreſt of a round form, which with Niepe and Nonnen were formerly part of the foreſt of Ardenne.

William's Wood.

10. Le Bois Guillaume, or William's Wood, in Artois near Renty.

Mountains.

In Luxemburg and Namur, and ſome parts of Hainault, there are ſome hills which may deſerve the name of mountains; and part of Brabant is hilly, but the reſt of the country is upon a flat.

CHAP. II.

Contains a deſcription of the particular provinces, and of their chief towns.

Brabant.

THE duchy of Brabant, being the firſt province of the Auſtrian Netherlands which lies in my way weſtward from the country laſt deſcribed, I chuſe to inquire into the preſent ſtate of this in the firſt place.

The ſituation and extent.

The air.

The face of the country.

Soil and huſbandry.

Brabant, in which I comprehend Antwerp, or the marquiſate of the Holy Empire, is bounded by Holland towards the north; by the duchy of Guelderland, and the biſhoprick of Liege towards the eaſt; by the counties of Hainault and Namur towards the ſouth; and by Flanders on the weſt: extending near ſeventy miles in length from north to ſouth, and ſixty miles in breadth from eaſt to weſt, in the broadeſt part. The air is temperate and healthful, and the country generally fruitful, except the northern part, called *Kempenland*, which is a ſandy barren ſoil, affording only paſture for ſheep. The face of the country is generally plain and open, but in ſome parts it riſes into little hills, and is clothed with wood; but what is remarkable in the inhabitants both of Brabant and Flanders, is, that they have found means to improve moſt of their barren lands, and make them more valuable than the richeſt grounds. Of the ſoil and huſbandry of which provinces I meet with the following account, viz. That though the ſoil of Brabant be for the moſt part good, that of Flanders is much better; that the richeſt land in Flanders lies between Dunkirk and Bruges, extending about forty Engliſh miles in length, conſiſting of rich meadows, and fields of as good wheat and barley as are to be met with in Europe. But that between Bruges and Ghent, which lie about twenty-four miles aſunder, the ſoil begins to alter for the worſe, and between Ghent and Antwerp we find a gravelly or ſandy ſoil, reſembling the moſt barren part of Surrey, producing ſcarce any thing but heath or broom, if it remain uncultivated. Nor does the ſoil much alter for the better till we come within two miles of Antwerp, from which Ghent is five or ſix and twenty miles diſtant. That part of Brabant which lies between Antwerp and Holland, is no leſs barren than that which lies between Antwerp and Ghent; but this ſoil, which is ſo remarkably bad for grain and graſs, happening to be the moſt proper for flax, by the induſtry of the huſbandman, is become ſo far preferable to that called the richeſt, that one acre of their flax-ground is now worth four of the other. After the flax is pulled, the ſame ground produces a crop of turneps; and in April following, they ſow the ſame land with oats, harrowing in clover-graſs ſeed upon it with buſhes, which graſs appears after the oats are mowed, and is good paſture till Chriſtmas. The year following they have three crops of clover; the firſt about the beginning of June, the ſecond at the end of the ſame month, and the laſt before the end of Auguſt. Other part of their heath-grounds they plant with hops, fruit-trees, and other trees, which they have found means even upon this barren ſoil to bring to great perfection.

Diviſion of Brabant. Louvain quarter. Chief towns.

Brabant is uſually divided into four quarters, diſtinguiſhed by the names of the four principal cities, viz. Louvain, Antwerp, Bruſſels, and Boiſleduc. The chief towns in the quarter of Louvain are, 1. Louvain, the capital city. 2. Tienen, or Tirlemont, 3. St Truyen, or St Tron. 4. Leue. 5. Dieſt. 6. Gemblours. 7. Halen. 8. Sichen. 9. Judoigne. 10. Hannue. 11. Landen. And, 12. Ramelies: the chief whereof I ſhall endeavour to deſcribe.

Louvain city.

The city of Louvain is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Dyle, in the latitude of fifty degrees, fifty minutes, fifteen miles north-eaſt of Bruſſels, and twelve ſouth-eaſt of Mechlin: the walls are ſix or ſeven miles in circumference, but include ſeveral fields and vineyards, ſcarce one third of the ground incloſed being built upon. It is a town of no great ſtrength, as appears by it's ſurrendering to the allies after the battle of Ramelies, on the twenty-fifth of May 1706, without making any defence. The caſtle ſtands on the top of a hill ſurrounded with vineyards and fine gardens, and has an unbounded proſpect over a very pleaſant country, and the air is eſteemed the beſt in the Netherlands; which occaſioned it's being the reſidence of their antient Earls, and afterwards of CHARLES V, in his minority. This place was formerly very conſiderable for it's manufactures, it being computed, that there was no leſs than four thouſand maſter-weavers in it at once, and ſtill they have a trade in fine linnen, but not comparable to what it was. The univerſity is now it's only glory; and this, 'tis ſaid, reſembles thoſe of England more than any foreign univerſity, and was founded about the year 926, but firſt endowed by JOHN IV, Duke of Brabant, with the concurrence of Pope MARTIN V, anno 1425. Though the ſituation and buildings of this univerſity be much admired, as well as it's noble endowments, Mr PEERS aſſures us, it is inferior to Oxford in all theſe reſpects. The ſtudents in divinity here conſtantly wear gowns and caps, but the reſt only at publick exerciſes. There are forty-three colleges in this univerſity; of which there are not more than four for the education of youth, where ſtrict diſcipline is obſerved: the others are for thoſe of riper years, who come and go when they pleaſe. In every one of the four colleges above-mentioned, is taught philoſophy by two Profeſſors, each of whom read two hours in a day, the young ſtudents writing after them, who when they are matriculated, make oath that they believe all the articles of the Church of Rome. The Profeſſors of theſe four colleges chuſe annually forty-eight ſcholars of two years ſtanding; and out of that number, after publick examination, twelve are choſen to exhibitions. The degrees taken here are thoſe of Maſter, Licentiate, and Doctor; the Licentiate ſeems to be a kind of middle graduate between Bachelor and Doctor, and may anſwer to our Maſter of arts. He is upon his going out conducted from the ſchools with drums and trumpets, treats all the Doctors and his opponents, and gives gloves: at his lodging a bell is rung four and twenty hours together, and he is at liberty to chuſe a coat of arms, and immediately accounted a gentleman. The Governor of the univerſity is ſtiled Rector, and is choſen every half year by the *Senatus Academicus*, to whom the chief magiſtrate of the city gives place. He has plenary juriſdiction over the ſcholars, and is on holidays, and ſolemn proceſſions, attended by eight beadles, who go before him with ſilver maces. There is another officer, called the Promoter, who, by the authority of the Rector, inflicts puniſhments on offenders, and ſometimes gives judgment of death; but generally crimes are expiated by pecuniary mulcts.

If a citizen be plantiff againſt a ſtudent in a civil cauſe, the Rector determines it; but if a ſtudent ſue a citizen, the Conſervator of the univerſity takes cognizance of the cauſe. This Conſervator is an eccleſiaſtical perſon, who with his Aſſeſſor, being a perſon learned in the law, proceeds in caſes of contumacy to excommunication, and the offender if obſtinate is delivered to the ſecular power. They have alſo a Chancellor, whoſe only buſineſs is to confer degrees, and who in all publick aſſemblies takes place next to the Rector. Degrees are taken here in five faculties, viz. divinity, canon-law, civil-law, phyſick, and arts: and of the ſuperior graduates in theſe faculties does their academical ſenate conſiſt.

The town-houſe of Louvain is a magnificent building of great antiquity, the outſide being adorned by abundance of curious ſculpture: the Jeſuits church alſo is a handſome ſtructure, and their liberty is ſaid to be the beſt in the Auſtrian Netherlands, in regard of the great number of valuable manuſcripts it contains. In the church of the Cordeliers lies buried JUSTUS LIPSIUS, an eminent Profeſſor in this univerſity, and of great eſteem in the learned world.

Tirlemont. St Tron. Leue. Dieſt. Gemblours.

About two miles from this city ſtands the Duke of Arſchot's palace of Heverly; the walks leading to it being much admired by travellers, conſiſting of tall lime-trees, which afford a delightful ſhade, but the palace itſelf, an antique building, is in a ruinous condition at preſent. In the chapel here they ſhew a piece of money, ſaid to be one of the thirty for which JUDAS betrayed our Saviour: it has indeed great marks of antiquity, and weighs about an Engliſh ſhilling, having the head of TIBERIUS on one ſide, and a flower reſembling a lily on the other. 2. Tienen, or Tirlemont, formerly a large walled town, but now in a ruinous condition; lying about eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Louvain, ſtill about a league in circumference, and has the ſame privileges as the four capital cities of the province abovementioned have. 3. St Truyen, or St Tron, between Tirlemont and Tongren; the walls whereof were demoliſhed by the French, together with thoſe of Tirlemont. It takes it's name from an abbey of Benedictines here, the Abbot whereof is lord of half the town, and puts in the magiſtrates. 4. Leue, or Levia, five miles eaſt of Tirlemont; a little fortified town, remarkable for the great priory of St AUSTIN's, whoſe Prior is one of the chief nobility of the province. 5. Dieſt ſituate on the river Demer, ten miles north-eaſt of Louvain, a pretty town, with a large territory belonging to it: has the title of a barony, and belongs to the Princes of Orange; the French demoliſhed the fortifications in the late war. 6. Gemblours, nineteen miles to the ſouthward of Louvain, and eleven north-weſt of Namur, ſtands on a ſteep hill, encompaſſed on all ſides by precipices, except towards the eaſt, on which ſide a hill hangs over it, conſiderable at preſent only for a monaſtery dedicated to St BENEDICT, the Abbot whereof is lord of the place, and takes the firſt place among the lay-nobility in the States Provincial. In this monaſtery the late King WILLIAM took up his quarters for a conſiderable time during

Landen. Ramelies.

during the late war. 7. Landen, ſituate five miles ſouth of Leue, remarkable only for a victory obtained near it by the French over the allies in the year 1693. 8. Ramelies, eleven miles north of Namur, a village famous only for a victory obtained over the French near it, by the allies in the year 1706.

Bruſſels quarter.

The ſecond quarter of Brabant is that of Bruſſels: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Bruſſels. 2. Nivelle. 3. Senef. And, 4. Vilvorden.

Bruſſels city.

Bruſſels, the capital of Brabant, and of the Auſtrian Netherlands, ſtands on the declivity of a hill on the little river Sinne, or Saine, in the latitude of fifty degrees, fifty minutes; twenty-five miles ſouth of Antwerp, and thirty ſouth-eaſt of Ghent; in a pleaſant fruitful country, being about ſix miles in circumference, and ſurrounded with a wall, and other fortifications, but not capable of ſuſtaining a long ſiege, as appears by it's ſurrendring to the allies, after the battle of Ramelies, in the year 1706, without making any reſiſtance. And indeed the fortifications are ſo extenſive, that it would require an army to defend them. In the year 1696, it was bombarded by Marſhal VILLEROY, who came before it with an hundred thouſand men, while King WILLIAM was at the ſiege of Namur; and though Prince VAUDEMONT, who lay within the walls with an army of thirty thouſand men, prevented it's being ſurprized, there were above two thouſand houſes demoliſhed in the middle of the town, together with the Stadthouſe, and ſeveral churches, whoſe foundations were blown up by the bombs; and the city lying on the ſide of a hill, and expoſed thereby to the enemy's artillery, they fired red-hot bullets into the heart of the place for eight and forty hours, whereby the town became a heap of rubbiſh, though it was ſoon after rebuilt with great advantage. It was again vigorouſly attacked by the Duke of Bavaria in the year 1708, while the confederates were employed in the ſiege of Liſle; but the Duke of Marlborough marching with great expedition to it's aſſiſtance, the enemy withdrew precipitately from before it.

There are abundance of noble abbies and monaſteries in the town; the country about it is well planted with fruit and timber-trees, and watered with fountains, canals, and rivulets: The river Sinne runs through the city; and is united to the Rupple, which falls into the Scheld, by a fine navigable canal, near twenty miles in length, whereby this city hath a communication with Antwerp and other cities. This was performed by CHARLES V, and PHILIP II, Kings of Spain, and was a work of incredible labour and expence, the engineers being obliged to level a mountain to effect it, and to erect ſluices, whereby veſſels are raiſed perpendicularly to a ſurprizing height upon this canal. Bruſſels is a populous city, containing large handſome ſtreets, ſpacious market-places, and uniform elegant buildings both publick and private, eſpecially ſince the bombardment above-mentioned in the year 1696. It is the uſual reſidence of the Regent of the Auſtrian Netherlands, and of the nobility and people of diſtinction. Here alſo is held the court of chancery for Brabant, and the aſſemblies of the States of all the provinces. The place is ſituate in the higheſt part of the town, a large antient ſtructure, which eſcaped the fury of the French bombs, being too far from their batteries, which were erected on the lower-ſide of the town: Marſhal VILLEROY, indeed, ſent a compliment to the Electreſs of Bavaria, to acquaint her that he would ſpare that part of the town which ſhe reſided in, if ſhe would let him know it; to which ſhe returned no other anſwer, but that he might execute his Majeſty's orders (the Duke of Bavaria was then Viceroy of the Netherlands). The church of St GUDULA is eſteemed the moſt magnificent in this city: in which are kept three conſecrated hoſts, from which, 'tis ſaid, blood iſſued on their being ſtabbed by certain Jews in contempt of our Bleſſed Saviour. Among their religious houſes, there is one for penitent whores. Their hoſpitals are kept exceeding neat, and well endowed, and there are ſome for the entertainment of ſtrangers, who are ſupplyed with all neceſſaries for three days. There is another erected for foundling children, who are not ſuffered to periſh through the cruelty or poverty of their parents. Adjoining to the palace is a large circuit of ground incloſed with a wall, containing in it whatever can contribute to the diverſion of the court, among which are a park and aviary, grotto's, canals, water-works, and flower-gardens, in which laſt the natives of Bruſſels in general are very curious. The Stadthouſe, which is a noble building, has over it a brazen ſtatue of St MICHAEL, the Guardian Angel of the city, being fifteen foot in height. Here are alſo a great many fine paintings done by the beſt hands; and what renders the houſes of the citizens exceeding pleaſant, is their fountains and gardens, which few of them want, the meaneſt of the people being extravagantly fond of flowers.

The magiſtracy of this city conſiſts of two Conſuls, (Burghermaſters) and ſeven Schepins, or Aldermen, choſen annually by the Prince out of ſeven antient and noble families, and ſix common-council elected out of the principal tradeſmen, of whom there are two and fifty colleges or companies.

Nivelle.

2. Nivelle, ſituate fifteen miles ſouth of Bruſſels, near the head of the river Sinne, one of the pleaſanteſt towns in the Netherlands, but has no other fortifications than a ſingle wall. It is remarkable for a nunnery of noble ladies, who enjoy all manner of innocent freedoms, and are not confined to their cloyſter, as in other places. Their governeſs, called Madame de Nivelle, is choſen by themſelves, with the conſent of the Prince and the Pope. This town has large privileges, and is conſiderable for the great quantities of fine linnen made here, equal to that of Cambray. 3. Senef, a village five miles to the ſouthward of Nivelle, memorable for a battle fought near it in the year 1674, between the French and Dutch. 4. Vilvorden, ſituate on the river Sinne, between Mechlin and Bruſſels, two leagues diſtant from each; in the old caſtle whereof formerly were confined priſoners of quality who had offended againſt the ſtate, and here alſo were kept the records of the province of Brabant.

Senef.

Vilvorden.

Antwerp quarter.

The third quarter of Brabant is that of Antwerp, or the marquiſate of the Empire; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Antwerp. 2. Breda. 3. Lillo. 4. Lire. 5. Herentals. And 6. Hoogſtraten.

Antwerp city.

Antwerp is ſituate on the eaſt bank of the Scheld, in the latitude of fifty-one degrees, ſixteen minutes, twenty-five miles north of Bruſſels, and thirty north-weſt of Louvain. It is built in the form of a creſcent, and lies in a low fenny ground; the Scheld being twenty foot deep here, and the tide riſing twelve foot more, ſhips of burthen may unlade at the keys; there are alſo eight canals cut from the Scheld for the convenience of carrying veſſels into the town, ſome of which will contain an hundred ſail, which made it one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious harbours in Europe, until the Dutch cut off their communication with the ſea by their forts toward the mouth of the Scheld, and diverted the trade to their own ports; an injury which the Auſtrian Netherlands will endeavour to redreſs, if ever it be in their power. This city is about ſeven miles in circumference, and ſurrounded with a beautiful wall, and baſtions faced with ſtone; the top of the wall is not leſs than an hundred foot broad, and well planted with trees. There are thirteen noble gates, eight of which ſtand towards the water, and have their ſeveral keys near them, where veſſels are laden and unladen: The citadel is a pentagon of five royal baſtions, and ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the city, on the banks of the Scheld, commanding the city, the river, and the neighbouring country, the building whereof by PHILIP II, King of Spain, was the firſt check to the trade and greatneſs of this port. The citadel is about a mile in compaſs, and there is a good ſpace of ground between it and the city. Here are large repoſitories for ammunition and proviſion, and conveniencies for quartering above three thouſand ſoldiers. In the middle of the fort ſtood the Duke of Alva's ſtatue, trampling upon the conquered States of the Netherlands. The ſtreets of Antwerp are broad and regular, and the buildings magnificent; the whole ſo beautiful and uniform, that it is uſually compared to Florence, which ſome modern travellers ſay it excels. The church of St MARY, now the cathedral, is a handſome ſtructure, wherein are ſixty-ſix chapels and altars, adorned with pictures and ſtatues which deſerve admiration; and the ſteeple is eſteemed a moſt exquiſite piece of architecture, from whence may be ſeen the cities of Ghent, Mechlin, and Louvain; and on the other ſide, the iſlands of Zealand in a clear day. Among the publick buildings belonging to the religious orders, the Jeſuits church is admired for it's large dimenſions, curious workmanſhip, and variety of paintings drawn by RUBENS and other famous hands. The inſide of the church is lined with the fineſt marble, and ſupported by marble pillars. The ſtadthouſe is a magnificent ſtructure, but the Dutch obſerve, that from the time it was finiſhed their trade began to decay. The trade of the Engliſh was once ſo conſiderable here, that they had an exchange to themſelves. There is another common to all nations, which was the model of that at London, but hath the advantage of being ſupported by three and forty pillars of white marble, and ſtanding in the center of four large ſtreets. There is a building alſo erected by the tapeſtry merchants, admired for it's dimenſions and architecture; and the Printing-houſe is ſaid to be the beſt in Europe, having been furniſhed with an hundred different ſorts or funds of letters, whereof two were Syriac, ten Hebrew, nine Greek, and forty-ſeven Roman.

The trade of this city was at the height about the year 1568 when it was ſuppoſed to contain two hundred thouſand inhabitants; but the Dutch forming their ſtate ſoon after, and making themſelves maſters of the iſlands Zealand, which lie at the mouth of the Scheld, turned the current of trade to Amſterdam and other great cities of Holland. Nor did the oppreſſions of the King of Spain and the civil wars they were involved in contribute a little to the removal of the merchants from thence, to which we may add Queen ELIZABETH's being at war with Spain, and ſetting up the Dutch to oppoſe that Monarch; and conſequently withdrawing her ſubjects from Antwerp, who had the greateſt ſhare in the trade of that place.

Antwerp was made a Biſhop's See by Pope PAUL IV, at the requeſt of PHILIP II, King of Spain, who aſſigned to it ſeven towns, and an hundred and forty four villages, for the verge of it's See. When it was erected into a marquiſate, or how far the limits extended, is very uncertain; but it was afterwards an Imperial city, and the Princes of Naſſau Burgraves or Governors of it. As to the conſtitution of the preſent government, nine perſons taken out of the nobility, and as many nominated by the prefects or maſters of the ſtreets, to whom are added eighteen more of the principal citizens, in all thirty-ſix, are preſented to the Prince, who appoints one half of them to be a ſtanding ſenate, by whom are afterwards choſen two Burghermaſters, or Conſuls, one of whom repreſents the city at the convention of eſtates, and the other adminiſters juſtice at home, having, with the ſenate above-mentioned, the cognizance of all cauſes civil and criminal. The city hath alſo a Schout, or Sheriff, for the apprehending and executing malefactors; and a Sollicitor-General to proſecute offenders on the behalf of the city. The Senate appoint all inferior officers, and elect another council of twelve from among the deans or maſters of the ſeveral trades or companies.

2. Breda, ſituate in a flat country on the banks of the river Merck, in the latitude of fifty-one degrees forty minutes, thirty miles north-eaſt of Antwerp, and as many to the ſouthward of Rotterdam, a large populous well-built city, regularly fortified after the modern way, and one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes on the Dutch frontiers, and hath uſually a numerous garriſon of the States troops. It hath the title of a barony, which comprehends ſeventeen villages; the inheritance of the Princes of Orange. The Dutch have been maſters of it ever ſince the year 1637, when it was taken from the Spaniards by FREDERICK Prince of Orange. The great church is ſaid to be a magnificent ſtructure, in which is the tomb of Prince HENRY I. But I do not find any other publick buildings taken notice of by travellers. Breda.

3. Lillo, a little ſtrong fortreſs on the river Scheld, eight miles north-weſt of Antwerp, and built by that city to render the navigation of the river more ſecure; but happening to fall into the hands of the Dutch, they do by this and ſome other forts, obſtruct the trade to Antwerp as often as they ſee fit. Lillo.

4. Lire, or Lier, ſituate on the river Nethe, ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Antwerp, and twenty north of Bruſſels; a pleaſant well-built town, remarkable for a ſpacious market-place, and the elegant buildings which ſurround it; formerly eſteemed a place of great ſtrength, but was ſurrendered to the allies three days after the battle of Ramelies, without making any defence. It is now ſubject to the Emperor; and, on account of the agreeableneſs of the ſituation, generally inhabited by people of faſhion, and merchants who have left off their buſineſs. The collegiate church dedicated to St GUMMIANUS, is ſaid to be a handſome building; beſides which, there are ſeveral convents and religious houſes in the place. Lier.

Herentals.

5. Herentals, ſituate alſo on the river Nethe, eight miles north-eaſt of Lire, and ſubject to the Emperor, formerly reckoned a ſtrong place, but not capable of ſuſtaining a ſiege at preſent.

Hoogſtraten.

6. Hoogſtraten, a large open town, fifteen miles north-eaſt of Antwerp, which hath the title of an earldom, comprehending ſeveral villages within it's juriſdiction.

Eckeren.

7. Eckeren, a ſmall town, three miles to the northward of Antwerp, rendered famous by a deſperate battle fought near it, between the French and the Confederates, in the year 1703, where the Dutch General OPDAM, being cut off from his army, ran away, and gave out that the Allies were defeated, who notwithſtanding maintained their ground, to the everlaſting diſgrace of that gentleman.

I proceed next to the deſcription of Bergen-op-zoom, Steen-Bergen, and Santvliet, with ſome neighbouring fortifications, which geographers place in Dutch Brabant, but do not reduce to any particular quarter.

1. Bergen-op-zoom, ſometimes called ſimply Bergen, ſituate on an eminence in the middle of a moraſs, half a league from the eaſtern branch of the Scheld, with which it hath a communication by a navigable canal. It is about eighteen miles north of Antwerp, and as many to the weſtward of Breda. It ſtands advantageouſly on the confines of Brabant, Flanders, Holland, and Zealand, and is ſtrong by nature as well as art, being ſo ſecured by the moraſſes about it, that this, if any place, may be looked upon as impregnable. It does not only ſecure the communication between Holland and Zealand, but opens the Dutch a way into Brabant whenever they pleaſe, and from whence they have formerly made excurſions into the heart of the country. The town is well built, and the market-places ſpacious; the church of St LAMBERT, and the Marquis's palace are the only publick buildings taken notice of by travellers, for this town was erected into a Marquiſate by CHARLES V, and the neighbouring country made ſubject to it; but whoever has the poſſeſſion of the Marquiſate, the town is ſubject to the States General.

Steenbergen.

2. Steenbergen, a ſmall town near the ſea, about five miles to the northward of Bergen-op-zoom, with which it hath a communication by a canal, and is ſtrongly fortified, in order to defend the approaches to that city.

Santvliet.

3. Santvliet, eight miles ſouth of Bergen-op-zoom, erected by the Spaniards with ſome other forts, in order to attack Lillo. There is alſo a fort between Santvliet and Lillo, called Henry-Frederick, upon the Scheld, which the Dutch are in poſſeſſion of, and contributes to ſecure the navigation of that river to them.

Bois le Duc quarter.

The fourth diviſion of Brabant is that called the quarter of Bois le Duc, the chief places whereof are, 1. Bois le Duc. 2. Helmont. 3. Eindhoven. 4. Megen. 5. Ravenſtein. 6. Grave. 7. Maeſtricht. 8. Crevecœur. 9. Boxtel.

Bois le Duc.

Bois le Duc, Sylva Ducis, called by the Dutch, Hertogenboſch, and frequently the Boſch, which had it's name from a neighbouring wood, is ſituate on the banks of the Dromele, which here receives the Aa and Dieſe, and five miles to the northward falls into the Maeſe at Crevecœur. The town ſtands on a riſing ground, in the middle of a large marſh, and for great part of the year can only be approached by cauſeways, on which are built forts and redoubts for it's defence. The town is about four or five miles in circumference, and regularly fortified after the modern way, which with the advantage of it's ſituation, renders it one of the ſtrongeſt towns upon the Dutch frontiers. It lies about twenty miles to the eaſtward of Breda, and as many to the weſtward of Grave. Several fine navigable canals run through the town, over which lie fifty ſtone bridges; and ten of the principal ſtreets center in a ſpacious market-place, ſurrounded with good buildings, but generally of timber. The publick buildings taken notice of by travellers are, the Stadthouſe, built after the model of that at Amſterdam, and the church of St JOHN, formerly the cathedral, when King PHILIP II made this city a Biſhop's See, in the choir of which are the arms of the knights of the Golden Fleece, and over their ſtalls, an inſcription giving an account of their inſtitution by PHILIP the Good, Duke of Burgundy, Lorraine, and Brabant.

Helmont.

Eindhoven.

Megen.

Ravenſtein.

The linnen and woollen manufactures flouriſh here, and their cutlery ware and needles are in good eſteem. The magiſtrates are two Prætors, or Burghermaſters, uſually of noble families; who take cognizance of civil and criminal cauſes, there are alſo ſeven Schepins, or Aldermen, who adminiſter juſtice, and a common-council, or ſenate, as in other cities of Holland; but there is a tribunal at the Hague, to which there lies an appeal from this and all other cities of Brabant ſubject to the Dutch, conſiſting of ſeven Senators, a Greffier, a Treaſurer, and an Attorney-General. Within the juriſdiction of Boiſleduc, are Campin, Peeland, Maeſland, the diſtrict of Oſterwick, and the towns of Helmont, Eindhoven, Megen, Ravenſtein, and Grave. Helmont lies on the river Aa, fifteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Boiſleduc, a walled town, capital of the diſtrict of Peeland. Eindhoven is a little walled town, ſituate on the Dromele, twelve miles ſouth-weſt of Helmont, and is the capital of the diſtrict of Campinland. Megen lies on the Maeſe, about ten miles north-eaſt of Boiſleduc, and gives title to an Earl, the adjacent country being under it's juriſdiction. Ravenſtein is alſo ſituate on the Maeſe five miles ſouth-eaſt of Megen, defended by a caſtle, and the neighbouring country is ſubject to it.

Grave.

Grave is a ſmall but ſtrong fortreſs, ſituate on the Maeſe, in a flat marſhy country, five miles eaſt of Ravenſtein, and ſixteen north-eaſt of Boiſleduc, of great importance to the Dutch, who are ſovereigns of it, as it commands a conſiderable paſs on their frontiers. 'Tis a neat pleaſant town, and capital of the little earldom of Cuyck, about four miles in length and one in breadth, belonging to the family of Orange. The Magiſtrates are two Conſuls, or Burghermaſters, and ſeven Aldermen, appointed by the Prince, and a common-council, conſiſting of eight perſons, who are only aſſembled on extraordinary occaſions. The town enjoys large privileges, and an exemption from many taxes which the neighbouring places are liable to.

Maeſtricht.

Maeſtricht is ſituate on the weſt ſide of the river Maeſe, having a ſuburb ſtrongly fortified, called the Wyck, on the eaſt-ſide, and is about twelve miles to the northward of Liege, and thirty to the eaſtward of Louvain. It takes it's name from a ferry, formerly over the Maeſe at this place, Trecht ſignifying a boat in the Dutch language. Both parts are now united by a ſtone bridge of nine arches: The town is generally reckoned to be in the Province of Brabant, but the Wyck in the dioceſe of Liege, whoſe Biſhop hath the civil government thereof, though the whole is under the dominion of the Dutch. The town is about four miles in circumference, and ſtrongly fortified after the modern way, but it is not very populous, there being ſeveral void ſpaces within the walls. The ſtreets are large, the old buildings of wood and the new of brick: The Stadthouſe is built after the model of Amſterdam. There are three Dutch churches, and ſeveral more belonging to the Roman Catholicks, of which communion the greateſt part of the natives are, and have a convent of monks, and another of nuns in the place. The government reſembles that of the other towns of the United Provinces, to whom it is ſubject. It revolted from Spain about the year 1570, but was reduced to the obedience of the Spaniard again in 1579, under whoſe dominion it remained 'till the year 1632, when it was taken by the Dutch who held it till the year 1673, when it was taken by the French King in perſon, but reſtored to the Dutch by the peace of Nimeguen, Anno 1679, in whoſe poſſeſſion it has ever ſince remained.

Crevecœur.

Crevecœur is ſituate on the Maeſe, five miles north of Boiſleduc, a fortreſs of great importance on the Dutch frontiers.

Boxtel.

Boxtel lies about five miles to the ſouthward of Boiſleduc, and is conſiderable on account of it's commanding the ſluices, whereby the country may be overflowed or drained.

Mechlin province.

The little province or lordſhip of Mechlin being entirely ſurrounded by that of Brabant, comes naturally to be deſcribed next. The whole extent of it is ſcarce ten miles from eaſt to weſt, and the breadth of it from north to ſouth is about five. It was erected into a ſeparate juriſdicton by PHILIP the Good, Duke of Burgundy, and hath ſeveral conſiderable villages within it's limits, but the only town of any conſequence is the city of Mechlin.

Mechlin city.

Mechlin, or Malines, is ſituate on the river Dyle, between the cities of Antwerp, Bruſſels, and Louvain, from each of which it is about twelve miles diſtant. It is a large well-built city, the ſtreets ſpacious and extremely neat, and divided into ſeveral iſlands by the branches of the Dyle, or artificial canals which run through it, over which lie a great number of bridges. As to the ſtrength of the fortifications which ſeveral writers magnify, they muſt certainly be under a miſtake, for in all the late wars it never endured a ſiege, and particularly after the battle of Ramelies, it ſurrendered to the Allies, without attempting to make any defence. The town is divided into ſeven pariſhes, each of which hath a beautiful church. The cathedral, dedicated to St RUMBALD, is a magnificent old building; and among their religious houſes, the monaſtery of the Franciſcans and the nunnery of St CLARA are moſt admired. Pope PAUL IV erected it into an archbiſhoprick in the year 1559, giving this Prelate the title of Primate of the Low Countries. The States of this lordſhip, or province, conſiſt of a certain number of the magiſtracy, and the repreſentatives of the common people; and here is held a great council, inſtituted by CHARLES the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, anno 1473, conſiſting of a Preſident and ſixteen Senators; to which high court all appeals were brought from the reſt of the provinces formerly, and ſtill are from thoſe which remain under the dominion of the houſe of Auſtria.

The tanners and weavers trades flouriſhed much in this city formerly, and are very conſiderable at preſent: they are famous alſo for caſting of bells and great guns; but what has been moſt admired of late years is their lace, being the fineſt that is made in the Low Countries; and when the Engliſh troops were quartered here, their beer was in great eſteem amongſt the officers, being equal to the beſt October in England.

Arſchot.

In this province I ſhall include the little town of Arſchot, erected into a duchy by CHARLES V. This city ſtands on the river Demer, twelve miles to the eaſtward of Mechlin, and hath a ſmall territory belonging to it, being the inheritance of the ancient family of the CROYS, who came originally out of France.

The province of Flanders.

The province or earldom of Flanders is bounded by the ocean and that branch of the Scheld called the Hout, which ſeparates it from Zealand, towards the north: By Brabant and part of Hainault towards the eaſt. By another part of Hainault and Artois towards the ſouth; and by the ocean and part of Artois towards the weſt: extending in length from eaſt to weſt upwards of ſeventy miles, in breadth from north to ſouth about ſixty. This province is generally flat and level, and the moſt fruitful ſpot of earth that is to be met with in Europe; nor is the air any where unhealthful at a diſtance from the ſea and the mouth of the Scheld: And what renders this country extremely pleaſant, is, their fine canals, their regular plantations of trees, and the many beautiful cloyſters, towns, and villages, which ſtand ſo thick, that we no ſooner part from one, but we find our ſelves at another. But notwithſtanding the country abounds in good arable and paſture, and there are ſome grapes, the climate is too cold to produce good wine; for their winters are much colder, and their froſts of a longer duration than ours; the north-eaſt winds coming to them over a long extent of frozen continent, which are rendered much milder by the ſea before they can reach us. They have a noble large breed of cattle, eſpecially of horſes for draught, which we frequently ſee in the coaches of our nobility: nor do they want any animals, wild or domeſtick, which are to be met with in Britain; and to me the inhabitants appear a politer and more hoſpitable people than thoſe of Holland: and however ſome may magnify the freedom and pleaſure they enjoy in the United Provinces, foreigners, who viſit Flanders, as well as the natives, ſeem to enjoy much more freedom and ſatisfaction than is to be met with in the territories of the Dutch. I preſume the reader will naturally underſtand me to ſpeak of the Auſtrian Flanders; for the eaſtern part, under the power of the Dutch, and the weſtern ſide, in the poſſeſſion of the French, very much reſemble the reſpective nations to which they belong, and ſpeak their languague. What part belongs to one, and what to the other, will appear from the deſcription of the ſeveral great towns, and the territories belonging to them. And in my way weſtward, I firſt meet with thoſe under the dominion of the Dutch, viz. Sluys, Ardenburg, Middleburg, Sas van Ghent, Hulſt, Axel, Liefkins, Ternhuys, Philippin, Bier-Vliet, Iſendick, Oſburg, and Cadſandt fort and iſland; the chief whereof I ſhall endeavour to deſcribe.

Dutch Flanders, the chief towns.

Sluys.

1. Sluys, one of the five ports of Flanders, and the moſt commodious of them, is ſituate about ten miles to the north-eaſt of Bruges, which city can have no communication with the ſea, by the way of the Scheld, when the Dutch, who are in poſſeſſion of Sluys, are pleaſed to obſtruct it; (for which reaſon a navigable canal for ſhips of

burthen hath been cut from Bruges to Oſtend by the Spaniard, ſince the Dutch have been maſters of Sluys.) It is a fortreſs of great ſtrength and conſequence, as it is ſituate over againſt the iſland of Cadſandt, in poſſeſſion alſo of the Dutch; but the whole town is not above a mile in circumference, and of very little trade at preſent, tho' it was once as conſiderable a mart as any in Flanders, and hath been in the hands of the Dutch ever ſince the year 1604.

Ardenburg. 2. Ardenburg, a league to the ſouth-eaſt of Sluys, and formerly capital of the maritime parts of Flanders, but of little conſideration at preſent.

Middleburg. 3. Middleburg, another little town about five miles to the ſouthward of Sluys.

Sas van Ghent. 4. Sas van Ghent, or the Port to Ghent, about twelve miles to the northward of that city; a ſmall but ſtrong fortreſs, ſituate in a moraſs, by the poſſeſſion whereof the Dutch may cut off all communication between Ghent and the ſea whenever they think fit, and have been maſters of it ever ſince the year 1644.

Hulſt. 5. Hulſt, ſituate ten miles to the eaſtward of Sas van Ghent, in the country of Waes; a ſtrong town taken by the Dutch in the year 1645, and confirmed to them by the treaty of Weſtphalia.

Axel. 6. Axel, a ſmall fortreſs, a league to the weſtward of Hulſt.

Liefkins. 7. Lief kins, a fort on the Scheld, built over againſt Lillo by the Dutch, to command the paſſage of that river.

Ternhuys. 8. Ternhuys, another ſmall fort on the banks of the Scheld, two leagues to the northward of Axel.

Philippin. 9. Fort Philip, a league north-weſt of Sas van Ghent.

Bier-Vliet. 10. Bier-Vliet a ſmall iſland in the mouth of the Scheld, on which ſtands a town of the ſame name, a league north-weſt of Fort Philip, which commands the paſſage over to Zealand.

Iſendick. 11. Iſendick, a little fortified town on the other ſide of the channel, two miles to the weſtward of Bier-Vliet.

Oſburg. 12. Oſburg, a little fortified town on the channel which ſeparates the iſle of Cadſandt from the continent.

Cadſandt. 13. Cadſandt, an iſland ſituated at the mouth of the Scheld, over againſt the iſland of Walkeren, about nine miles in length and four in breadth, on which is a Fort of the ſame name; by which the Dutch ſecure their communication between the iſlands of Zealand and Flanders. And theſe are all the places the Dutch are poſſeſſed of in Flanders, except what relates to their barrier.

Auſtrian Flanders, the chief towns. The chief towns belonging to the Auſtrian Flanders, are Ghent, the capital of the whole province; Bruges, Damme, Oſtend, Plaſſendal, Newport, Deynſe, Dendermond, Rupplemond, Aloſt, Ninhove, Audenard, Harlebeck, Courtray, Menin, Comines, Warwick, and Warneton, Tournay, Ypres, Fort Knocque, Dixmuyde, and Furnes.

Ghent city. 1. Ghent, Gaunt, or Gand, the capital of Flanders, is ſituate on four navigable Rivers, viz. the Scheld, the Lys, the Liene, and the Mourwater; thirty miles north-weſt of Bruſſels, defended by a caſtle, and ſurrounded by a wall, and other fortifications; ten or twelve miles in circumference, and conſequently requires an army to defend it; beſides, there is ſo great a variety of ground in ſo large an extent, that 'tis impoſſible a town of theſe dimenſions can be very ſtrong. The town is large, but not one half of the ground within the walls built upon, the reſt conſiſting of fields and gardens. The ſtreets are wide and well paved, the market-places ſpacious, and the houſes well built of brick. The town is divided into ſix and twenty iſlands, by the rivers and canals which paſs through it, over which are laid near an hundred bridges. It is reckoned to be ſituate in an healthful air, tho' there are many hundreds, if not thouſands of Engliſh ſoldiers who lie buried on St Peter's Hill, and other places within the walls of this city, who all died natural deaths; for 'tis obſervable that our forces when tranſported into any foreign country, die great part of them the firſt year, either by the flux, or ſome other contagious diſtemper; I preſume from living in a different, or more irregular manner, than they uſed to do at home; ſo that we ought not to conclude Ghent, or any other city, the more unhealthful on account of it's being fatal to our troops, eſpecially when we obſerve our ſeaſoned men to have their healths very well here. In the late war, this town was generally the winter quarters of the Engliſh foot, when there were ſometimes four and twenty regiments in the town at a time, and yet the place did not ſeem to be crouded with them. They had a large building aſſigned them for divine worſhip, and the Chaplains of the ſeveral regiments officiated by turns; nor was there ever any miſunderſtandings between our people and the inhabitants, on account of religion, but a friendly intercourſe was maintained between them; and I believe the natives were glad of our company on account of the money that was ſpent in the place, for the ſoldiers generally lay in barracks, and were not burthenſome to the inhabitants, as they uſually are in England. The publick buildings worth our obſervation here, are the Stadthouſe, and the Cathedral, both handſome ſtructures; and I took particular notice of an image of white marble in the latter, with one head and three faces, looking three different ways, which ſtood at the eaſt end of the church, by which groſs figure, we apprehend they deſigned to repreſent the Trinity. There are beſides this, ſeven pariſh churches, and fifty-five monaſteries and nunneries, among which there is one Engliſh nunnery. In the largeſt ſquare of the town is a ſtatue of CHARLES V, who was born in the caſtle: and here alſo the famous JOHN Duke of Lancaſter firſt ſaw the light, from thence called JOHN of GAUNT, ſon of EDWARD III, King of England. On the bridge called Dogebrack, are two brazen ſtatues, repreſenting a ſon beheading his father; for it is related, that both of them being condemned to die, a pardon was offered to him that would be the other's executioner; and the father having prevailed on the ſon to take the office upon him, as he was ready to ſtrike, the blade of the ſword broke in his hand, which being looked upon as miraculous, they were both pardoned. The ſilk and woollen manufactures flouriſh in this place as well as the linnen, and they have a great trade in corn. It is a Biſhop's See under the Archbiſhop of Mechlin, and the Provincial Court is held here, from which however there is an appeal to that of Mechlin. The French poſſeſſed themſelves of it, with the reſt of the towns in Flanders, on the death of CHARLES II, King of Spain; but it ſurrendred to the allies on the defeat of the French at Ramelies anno 1706. And in the year 1708, the French ſurprized the city again, and threw an army into the place to defend it; but the Confederates having taken the caſtle of Liſle, inveſted Ghent in a very advanced ſeaſon near Chriſtmas, and the enemy were obliged to ſurrender it, after a few days open trenches. The winter was ſo ſevere at this time, that the horſes hoofs froze to the ground in the night-time, and had not the French been ſo complaiſant as to quit the place before things were come to an extremity, the confederate army muſt have ſuffered very much. The government of the city is lodged in the Burgomaſter and Schepins, that is, in the Mayor and Aldermen, as in moſt of the cities of the Low Countries; beſides which, there is a great Council, or Senate, which aſſembles upon extraordinary occaſions.

Bruges.

2. Bruges, ſituate four and twenty Engliſh miles to the north-weſt of Ghent, on the grand canal which runs between thoſe two cities, being about ten miles to the eaſtward of Oſtend, and as many ſouth-weſt of Sluys, ſaid to be ſo named from the great number of bridges over the canals and rivulets, which run through the town. The place is about four or five miles in circumference, ſurrounded by a wall and other fortifications, but not able to ſuſtain a regular ſiege carried on by our modern engineers. It is a populous city, well built, and hath a ſpacious market-place, in which ſix of the principal ſtreets center: there are in it ſeven pariſh churches, beſides the cathedral, ſixty monaſteries and nunneries, among which, one for Engliſh Nuns, and a college of Jeſuits. It was erected into a Biſhop's See by Philip II, King of Spain, about the year 1559, and is ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Mechlin, or Malines. Before the revolt of the ſeven Provinces, or rather before Antwerp arrived to it's grandeur, it was the greateſt town of trade in Europe; all countries who had any concern in commerce, having their factories and agents here, particularly the Engliſh, who made it their ſtaple for wool. As it hath a communication with the ſea, by means of the new canal to Oſtend, it is ſtill a place of good trade. Their manufactures are chiefly thoſe of woollen cloth, and ſtuffs, linnen and tapeſtry, and will probably flouriſh or decline as the navigation of the Oſtenders ſucceeds.

Damme.

3. Damme, a ſmall but a ſtrong fortreſs belonging to the Emperor, four miles to the northward of Bruges, ſituate on the old canal between Bruges and Sluys; four miles to the northward whereof lies Fort St Donat, yielded to the Dutch to ſtrengthen their barrier; and two miles further north, Fort Isabel; and ſix miles weſt of Fort Isabel, lies Fort Blankenburg on the ſea-coaſt, between which and Heyſt the ſecond barrier of the States begins, and is carried on from thence to the Scheld. They are alſo to poſſeſs all the poſts upon the Demer from the Scheld to the Maeſe, in caſe of a rupture with France. The towns aſſigned them from the other barrier, are Furnes, Fort Knocque, Ypres, Warneton, Menin, Tournay, and Namur.

Fort St Donat.

Fort Iſabel.

Blankenburg.

Oſtend.

4. Oſtend, the capital of the territory called Vryland, or Freeland, ten miles to the weſtward of Bruges, is ſituate in a moraſs, almoſt ſurrounded by wide trenches, filled with the ſea-water, having the beſt harbour in Flanders next to that of Sluys: It is fortified after the modern way, which with it's boggy ſituation, renders it one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Flanders: The place is not large, but the houſes are generally well built, the ſtreets regular and well paved; and as the Emperor ſeems determined to promote it's trade and navigation, will probably e'er long be in a flouriſhing condition; but I ſhall enlarge further on this ſubject when I come to conſider the trade of the Auſtrian Netherlands. It is not long ſince Oſtend was a ſmall village, it firſt became famous in the year 1601, when it was defended by the Engliſh and Dutch againſt all the power of Spain, till the latter end of the year 1604. In which time the Spaniards loſt ſeventy thouſand men before the place, nor did the beſieged loſe fewer than thirty thouſand; not that the garriſon ever conſiſted of half that number at one time, but the ſea being open to the allies, they ſupplied the town from time to time with freſh forces and proviſions, till, according to the phraſe of that time, the enemy perfectly dug them out, and made the town a heap of rubbiſh. It fell under the dominion of the French on the death of Charles II, King of Spain, and was taken from them by the Confederates after the battle of Ramelies in the year 1706, being now ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

Plaſſendal.

5. Plaſſendal, ſituate three miles to the eaſtward of Oſtend, where the canal of Newport falls into that leading from Oſtend to Bruges, and conſequently commands them both. It is a ſtrong fort, and defends an important ſluice, through which the ſhipping paſſes backwards and forwards; and being ſeized by the French, together with Bruges and Ghent, while the Confederates were employed in the ſiege of Liſle anno 1708, put the Confederates to very great difficulties; but fell into the hands of the allies again the ſame year, upon the ſurrender of Ghent and Bruges to them.

Newport.

6. Newport, another of the five ports of Flanders, lies near the ſea-ſhore, eight miles ſouth-weſt of Oſtend, and fifteen weſt of Bruges, at the mouth of a ſmall river, which renders it a ſecure harbour for veſſels of ſmall burthen. The town is fortified, but cannot be much commended for it's buildings or trade, the houſes being low and built of wood, and the inhabitants ſubſiſting chiefly by fiſhing.

Deynſe.

7. Deynſe, a little town ſituate on the river Lys, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Ghent, and twelve almoſt north of Oudenard.

Dendermond.

8. Dendermond, ſituate at the confluence of the Dender and the Scheld, twelve miles to the eaſtward of Ghent; a ſtrong fortreſs, ſurrounded by meadows, and is not to be approached but by cauſeways, when the citizens are pleaſed to lay the country about them under water. This is one of the barrier towns, wherein the garriſon are one half Imperialiſts and the other Dutch. It ſurrendered to the allies upon the victory at Ramelies, in the year 1706, after a ſhort ſiege.

Rupplemond.

9. Rupplemond, a ſmall town, ſituate in the county of Waes, at the confluence of the Rupple and the Scheld, five miles ſouth of Antwerp, and eighteen to the eaſtward of Ghent.

Aloſt.

10. Aloſt, ſituate on the river Dender, ſix miles ſouth of Dendermond, and fifteen ſouth-eaſt of Ghent, the capital of a territory, formerly called Imperial Flanders, on account of it's being a fee of the Empire. It is a pretty town, and a place of ſome trade, but neither large, or well fortified.

Ninhove, Grammont.

11. Ninhove and Grammont, two little towns, the firſt ſeven miles ſouth of Aloſt, and the other five miles further ſouth, both of them ſituate on the river Dender. At Grammont there is a noble abbey, ſtanding on an eminence, which gives

us a delightful proſpect of the neighbouring country.

Oudenard.

Oudenard, or Audenard, ſituate on the Scheld, fourteen miles ſouth of Ghent, a large well-fortified town, divided by the river into two parts, and almoſt ſurrounded by meadows, except that there is a hill which commands it on the ſouth-ſide. The buildings are good, and the ſtreets wide and handſome, and there are ſeveral fine churches and monaſteries in the place: it hath alſo a flouriſhing trade in fine linnen and tapeſtry, and is the capital of a chatellany, which contains three and thirty villages. The French laid ſiege to it anno 1708, which occaſioned an obſtinate battle, wherein the allies obtained a compleat victory, and ſaved the place.

Courtray.

13. Courtray, on the river Lys, twenty-ſix miles ſouth-weſt of Ghent, and twelve miles north-eaſt of Liſle, ſtrong by art and nature, and defended alſo by a good citadel. It is a populous place, and both the woollen and linnen manufactures flouriſh here.

Harlebeck.

14. Harlebeck, on the river Lys, a little open town, two miles to the northward of Courtray, capital of a ſmall territory.

Menin.

15. Menin, a little well fortified town, ſituate on the river Lys, five miles to the ſouthward of Courtray, taken by the allies in the year 1706, and is now one of the towns of the Dutch barrier againſt France.

Warneton, Comines, and Warwick.

16. Warneton, Comines, and Warwick, three little towns, ſituate on the ſouthward of Menin, in the way to Liſle, of which Warneton is one of the barrier towns.

Tournay.

17. Tournay, or Dornick, ſituate on the river Scheld, which runs through it, ſurrounded by pleaſant fruitful meadows, being thirty miles ſouth of Ghent, and as many north of Cambray, and eleven to the eaſtward of Liſle. It is a large populous well-built city, and a place of good trade; and having been for a conſiderable time in the hands of the French before the laſt war, it's fortifications were brought to as great perfection as any in the Low Countries: but what added moſt to the ſtrength of the place, as the allies found by dear-bought experience, when they beſieged it in the year 1709, was the mines, which blew up hundreds, if not thouſands of the beſiegers at a blaſt. When they had with the utmoſt hazard and difficulty made themſelves maſters of the ſtrongeſt works that ever were contrived, and the French could maintain them no longer, then did they ſet fire to the mines, and blow up whole regiments of brave fellows at a time, who fell, as a certain writer has it, in a ſhower of ſhattered limbs and mangled carcaſſes. Theſe mines, ſays a Britiſh gentleman who view'd them, conſiſt of vaſt ſubterraneous vaults, ſo well contrived, that they may rather paſs for terraſs-walks than mines. In the center of the citadel there is a well, the ſurface of whoſe waters is fifty foot from the mouth, juſt above which water are balconies, that lead to thoſe beautiful deſtructive caverns above-mentioned. This city is divided into ten pariſhes, to which belong as many elegant churches, beſides great numbers of fine convents and cloyſters. The cathedral, dedicated to St Mary, is a magnificent ſtructure, adorned with braſs and marble monuments, erected to the memory of it's Biſhops, with many admirable paintings. The church of the Croſiers is eſteemed the fineſt building next to the cathedral, whoſe marble pillars and altar-piece make it much admired. Here we ſee the crowning of our Saviour, done by the celebrated Rubens, a piece of ineſtimable value; with another picture of the nativity, done by the ſame hand. There is in the market-place an old building, ſaid to be of Roman architecture, and frequently called Julius Cæsar's palace: but the town is certainly very antient. King Henry the eighth of England beſieged and took it in the year 1513, and built the old citadel; but it was delivered up to the French again upon a treaty of marriage between the Dauphin and the Princeſs Mary. The Spaniards made themſelves maſters of it in the year 1581, and the French ſurprized it again in the year 1667; but it was taken from them by the allies, after an obſtinate ſiege, in the year 1709, and is now one of the towns of the Dutch barrier. The principal manufacture of the place at preſent, is linnen, and it was antiently as famous for woollen. It is the capital of a ſmall territory, called the Tourneſis, and a Biſhop's See, ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Cambray, while in the hands of the French; but the government, both ſpiritual and temporal, has received ſome alterations ſince it came under the dominion of the Imperialiſts.

Ypres.

18. Ypres, or Ipres, ſituate in a flat country on the river Ypre, about ten miles to the weſtward of Menin, and eighteen to the northward of Liſle; a large town regularly fortified, and by it's ſluices can lay the neighbouring country under water; the ſtreets broad, and the market-place ſaid to be the moſt ſpacious of any in Flanders, and ſurrounded with a piazza, but the houſes are generally of timber. The cathedral is dedicated to St Martin; and there are ſeveral monaſteries, in one of which, belonging to the Jeſuits, is our Saviour's reſurrection, admirably painted on the altar-piece of the chapel; and in the cloyſter are the pictures of all the Jeſuits who have ſuffered in England, repreſented as ſo many martyrs. The town has ſtill a good trade in the ſilk and woollen manufactures, and was erected into a Biſhop's See in the year 1559: this Prelate is ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Mechlin. Ypres is the capital of a large fruitful chatellany, comprehending Mont-Caſſel, Belle or Bailleul, and Rouſſelaer; as alſo Poperingen, Warneton, Comines and Warwick, and hath the title of a viſcounty. It was taken by the French in the year 1678, and remained in their hands till the latter end of the laſt war, when it was taken by the allies, and by the treaty of Utrecht confirmed to the houſe of Auſtria, together with the chatellany, comprehending all the places above mentioned, and this city is now part of the Dutch barrier.

Mont-Caſſel.
Bailleul.
Rouſſelaer
Poperingen.

Fort Knocque.

19. Fort Knocque, ſituate on the river Iſer, about fifteen miles to the northward of Ypres, makes another part of the Dutch barrier.

Dixmude.

20. Dixmude, ſituate on the Ypre, about ten miles north of Ypres city, taken by the allies in the late war, and confirmed to the houſe of Auſtria by the treaty of Utrecht. It is a ſmall town, and not very conſiderable, either for it's trade or fortifications.

Furnes.

21. Furnes, or Vuerne, ſituate on the river Colm, in a fruitful country, about ſix miles from the ſea, ten to the eaſtward of Dunkirk, and five to the weſtward of Newport. It is a little fortified town, capital of an Ambacht, or territory, and part of the Dutch barrier againſt France.

In

French Flanders.

In French Flanders the chief towns are Liſle, Dunkirk, Mardyke, Graveling, Berg St Winock, Doway, Orchies, Armentiers, La Baſſe, L'Ecluſe, St Amand, Launoy, and Bourbourg.

Liſle.

1. Liſle, or Lyſſel, called the iſland antiently, on account of it's being ſituated in a moraſs, ſurrounded with waters, (which are now drained off) ſtands on the river Deule, twenty-five miles north of Arras, and twelve weſt of Tournay, a large populous well-built city, defended by a citadel, and ſo ſtrongly fortified, that it coſt the allies more men to take it in the late war, than any town in Flanders, and was very near baffling their united forces. It is the capital of the French Flanders, and from the elegancy of it's buildings and it's flouriſhing trade, uſually ſtiled *Petit Paris*. The Stadthouſe and the Church of St PETER are noble ſtructures, and the citadel a maſter-piece in fortification. The ſilk and linnen manufactures are in great perfection here, and they are famous for their camblets. It was taken by the French in the year 1667, who built the citadel, and enlarged the city as well as it's fortifications, making it the centre of the Flemiſh trade. It was taken by the allies on the 22d of October 1708, after a ſiege of two months, and the citadel the eleventh of December following; but yielded to the French again by the treaty of Utrecht, in conſideration of their demoliſhing the fortifications and harbour of Dunkirk, from whence they uſed to infeſt the Engliſh ſeas with their privateers and men of war.

Dunkirk.

2. Dunkirk, ſituate on the ſea-ſhore, at the mouth of the river Colm, twenty miles north-eaſt of Calais, twenty-four ſouth-weſt of Oſtend, and fifty almoſt eaſt of Dover. The harbour and fortifications of this place had coſt LEWIS XIV incredible ſums of money, in which however he found his account; for here he always kept his pyratical ſquadrons, which brought him in prizes from time to time, during the late long war, almoſt ſufficient to maintain his fleet; which occaſioned the Engliſh and Dutch to inſiſt on the razing the fortifications at the treaty of Utrecht, and both the harbour and walls of the city were accordingly entirely demoliſhed. The town is only remarkable at preſent for being the capital of a fine fruitful territory, though formerly it was one of the five ports of Flanders, and a place of good trade. It is ſaid to have taken it's name from the ſand-hills on the ſhore, by the Flemings called *Duynen*, or Downs, on which a church being erected that was a ſea-mark for mariners, it obtained the name of *Duynen-Kirk*, or Dunkirk. This place muſt have been of great advantage to Britain, if we had kept the poſſeſſion of it inſtead of demoliſhing it, as it would have made us maſters of both ſides the channel; but the Dutch, who were no leſs apprehenſive of the Engliſh, their rival in trade, than of the French, had the addreſs to procure the demolition of it, that it might no more be a terror to them, either in the hands of the one or the other.

Mardyke.

3. Mardyke, a little town upon the coaſt about a league ſouth-weſt of Dunkirk, which the French were about to fortify on the demolition of the fortifications of that city; but upon the repreſentations and menaces of the Engliſh Court, the deſign was laid aſide, though the French had made a conſiderable progreſs in the work.

Graveling.

4. Graveling, ſituate at the mouth of the river Aa, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Dunkirk; a little fortified town, and one of the five ports of Flanders, but is not capable of receiving large veſſels.

Winoxberg.

5. Winoxberg, or Berg St Wynox, which takes it's name from a monaſtery erected on a hill to the memory of St WYNOX an Engliſhman, ſtands about two leagues to the ſouthward of Dunkirk, and is the capital of a large fruitful territory or chatellany.

Doway.

6. Doway, ſituate on the river Scarpe, twenty miles ſouth of Liſle, a large populous town, and ſtrongly fortified. It coſt the allies eight thouſand men at leaſt when they took it from the French, in the year 1710, and was retaken by the arms of France in the year 1712, after the ſeparation of the Britiſh troops from the reſt of the allies, who refuſed to accept a peace on the terms propoſed by Britain. The principal manufacture of the place is worſted camblets; and here is a conſiderable ſeminary of Engliſh Roman Catholicks, founded by PHILIP II, of Spain, about the year 1569.

Orchies.

7. Orchies, an antient little town, about twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Liſle, taken by the allies in the laſt war, but yielded to France by the treaty of Utrecht.

Armentiers.

8. Armentiers, ſituate on the river Lys; a fortified town, and a place of ſome trade, eight miles to the weſtward of Liſle.

La Baſſe.

9. La Baſſe, a little fortified town, ſituate on the Deule, twelve miles ſouth-weſt of Liſle.

St Amand.

10. St Amand, ſituate on the Scarpe, in a pleaſant fruitful country, ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Tournay; remarkable for a noble abbey dedicated to St AMAND; the Abbot whereof is a temporal Prince.

Bourbourg.

11. Bourbourg, a pleaſant little town on the top of a hill, twenty miles weſt of Ypres, and three to the ſouthward of Graveling; capital of a fruitful chatellany, one of the moſt antient in Flanders, yielded by the Spaniards to the French at the Pyrenean treaty.

Artois province. The ſituation and extent.
Chief rivers.
Air and ſoil.
Manners and language.

The Province of Artois, or Arras, is bounded by part of Flanders on the north; by another part of Flanders, and by Hainault, and the Cambreſis on the eaſt; and by Picardy, a French province, on the ſouth and weſt: being about ſixty miles in length, and five and twenty in breadth; the chief rivers whereof are the Lys, the Scarpe, and the Aa. The inhabitants enjoy an excellent air, and an exceeding fruitful ſoil; and having been for many years under the dominion of the French, they cannot eaſily be diſtinguiſhed by their manners, habits, or language, from the reſt of the ſubjects of that kingdom. The whole province having been conquered by France, was confirmed to that monarchy by the Spaniards at the Pyrenean treaty anno 1659.

Chief towns.

The chief towns are Arras, St Omer, Aire, Bethune, St Venant, Bapaume, Heſdin, Terouen, Lens, Aveſne le Comte, St Paul Mont, St Eloy.

Arras.

1. Arras, the capital of the province, antiently called *Atrebatum*, being the chief town of the Atrebates in the days of CÆSAR; is ſituate on the river Scarpe, twenty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Liſle, and twelve ſouth-weſt of Doway. It is a large place, divided into two parts, whereof one is called the city, and the other the town, both ſurrounded with a wall, and fortified after the modern way: it is a Biſhop's See, and the cathedral a magnificent ſtructure dedicated to the bleſſed Virgin MARY; the dioceſan being ſuffragan

to the Archbiſhop of Cambray. In a certain chapel here the Prieſts ſhew a wax taper burning, which they pretend does not conſume, and that it was ſent them from heaven; they have a pot of manna alſo, which they pretend came to them the ſame way; and this is expoſed in a dry ſeaſon, when prayers are put up for rain. The town is generally well-built, the ſtreets broad, and the market-places ſpacious; and it is famous for the tapeſtry manufacture, from thence frequently called Arras. It was taken by the French in the year 1640, who have been maſters of it ever ſince. The Abbey of St VEDASTUS in this city is a noble foundation, having a revenue of twenty thouſand crowns a year.

St Omer.

2. St Omer, ſituate on the river Aa, twenty miles ſouth of Dunkirk, and fifteen ſouth-eaſt of Calais; which takes it's name from St OMER, Biſhop of Terouen, who founded a monaſtery here anno 660. The reputed ſanctity of this Prelate occaſioned a great reſort of people hither, and the building of a conſiderable town here not many years after. It was made a Biſhop's See anno 1559, whoſe Biſhop is ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Cambray. This place is famous for an Engliſh ſeminary of Jeſuits, whereof TITUS OATES procured himſelf to be admitted a member, in order to qualify himſelf to be an evidence of the Popiſh plot. The town is rich, large, and populous, ſtrong both by art and nature, and taken from the Spaniards by the French in the year 1677, being confirmed to them by the enſuing treaty of peace at Nimeguen. What contributes much to the trade of the place, is a navigable canal cut from thence to Graveling, by which it hath a communication with the ſea.

Aire.

3. Aire, ſituate on the Lys in a moraſs, twenty-five miles north-weſt of Arras, and as many ſouth of Dunkirk, a little ſtrong town and caſtle, of which the French took poſſeſſion in the year 1676, and held it till the late war anno 1710, when it was taken from them by the allies, but yielded to the French again by the treaty of Utrecht anno 1712.

St Venant.

4. St Venant, another little fortreſs, ſituate on the Lys, about five miles to the eaſtward of Air, and beſieged at the ſame time, taken by the allies a month before it, but yielded alſo to the French by the treaty of Utrecht.

Bethune.

5. Bethune, ſituate on the river Biette, twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Aire, a ſtrong place, taken by the allies after a ſiege of ſix weeks, in the year 1710, but yielded to the French by the treaty of Utrecht; a pretty neat town, and hath a flouriſhing trade; but is moſt remarkable for the excellent cheeſe made in the neighbourhood.

Bapaume.

6. Bapaume, a little ſtrong town on the confines of Picardy, twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Arras, and the capital of a large territory.

Heſdin.

7. Heſdin, a ſtrong town, ſituate on the river Canche, twenty miles to the ſouthward of Aire, taken from the Spaniards by the French about the year 1639.

Terouen.

8. Terouen, five or ſix miles to the weſtward of Aire, antiently the capital city of the Morini, and ſince a Biſhop's See, but is now in a ruinous condition.

Lens.

9. Lens a little town, ten miles north of Arras, conſiderable only as it is the capital of a large territory.

St Paul.

Agincourt.

10. St Paul, a little town, fifteen miles weſt of Arras, the capital of a county; not far from whence is the village of Agincourt, famous for the victory obtained near it by the Engliſh over the French anno 1415.

Cambray province.

The province or archbiſhoprick of Cambray, uſually called the Cambreſis, is bounded by the province of Hainault on the north and eaſt; by the province of Picardy in France on the ſouth; and by Artois on the weſt, extending in length from eaſt to weſt about five and twenty miles, but the breadth is very unequal, being in ſome places ten miles, and in others not more than five. The natives enjoy a good air, and a fruitful country; and being now united to France, are ſcarce to be diſtinguiſhed from the French by their manners or language. The chief towns are, 1. Cambray. And, 2. Chateau-Cambreſis.

Cambray city.

1. Cambray, is a large well-built city, on the river Scheld, not far from it's ſource, almoſt ſurrounded by gardens and fruitful meadows, being ſixteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Arras, and about as many ſouth-weſt of Valenciennes. It is defended by two citadels, and regularly fortified: and as the neighbouring country may be laid under water, is eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt places in the Low Countries. The town contains nine pariſh churches, three abbies, and ſeveral other religious houſes and hoſpitals. The publick buildings taken notice of are the Stadt-houſe, ſtanding in a ſpacious market-place, where moſt of the ſtreets center: the great church of the bleſſed Virgin, well furniſhed with fine tombs and ſtatues, among which the ſtatues of St MICHAEL and St SEBASTIAN are moſt admired: the brazen partition between the nave of the church and the choir, alſo is eſteemed a piece of excellent workmanſhip. The principal manufacture of the place is that of fine linnen, from hence called Cambrick. This city was an Epiſcopal See, ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Rheims till the year 1559, when PHILIP II, King of Spain, procured it to be erected into an Archbiſhoprick by Pope PAUL IV. It was alſo for ſome time a free Imperial city, under the protection of the Count of Aloſt; but the Emperor CHARLES I, deprived them of their antient privileges, having erected two citadels which command the town: it afterwards fell into the hands of the Spaniards, who remained maſters of it till the year 1677, when it was taken by the French, and confirmed to them the following year by the treaty of Nimeguen.

Chateau-Cambreſis.

Crevecœur.

2. Chateau-Cambreſis, ſituate on the river Selle, about twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Cambray, once a conſiderable town, but at preſent in a ruinous condition. And, 3. Crevecœur, another walled town, ſix miles to the ſouthward of Cambray, but not conſiderable enough to merit a particular deſcription.

Hainault county.

The province or county of Hainault, which receives it's name from the river Haine, is bounded by Flanders and part of Brabant towards the north; by another part of Brabant and the county of Namur towards the eaſt; by the Cambreſis, Picardy, and Champaigne, towards the ſouth; and by the province of Artois, from which it is ſeparated by the river Scheld, towards the weſt: extending in length from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt about five and fifty miles, and in breadth about forty miles; and hath a pleaſant healthful air, and a fruitful ſoil. The chief rivers are the Scheld, the Sambre, the Dender, and the Haine; beſides which, it is well watered with lakes and ſprings, and in the bowels of the earth are ſome mines of lead and iron, and ſeveral quarries of marble. The States Provincial are compoſed of,

1. The twelve Peers. 2. The Prelates and eccleſiaſtical Colleges. 3. The Gentry. 4. The Great Officers. And, 5. The Magiſtrates of the chief cities.

Chief towns. The chief towns are, 1. Valenciennes .2. Bouchain. 3. Conde. 4. Bavay. 5. Maubeuge. 6. Le Queſnoy. 7. Aveſnes. 8. Landrecy. 9. Philipville. 10. Marienburg. 11. Mons. 12. Aeth. 13. Braine le compte. 14. St Ghillian. 15. Enghien. 16. Binche. 17. Halle. 18. Leſſines. 19. Roches. 20. Soignies. 21. Beaumont. The firſt ten of which are in the poſſeſſion of the French and the reſt in the hands of the Emperor.

Valenciennes. 1. Valenciennes, the capital of the French Hainault, ſituate on the Scheld and the little river Rouelle, which ſurround it, and paſs through the principal ſtreets by ſeveral cannals. It is ſaid to have derived it's name from the Emperor VALENTINIAN, who built it, being pleaſed with the delightful ſituation. It lies about fifteen miles north of Cambray, ſixteen ſouth-weſt of Mons, and as many ſouth-eaſt of Tournay; and is a large well-built town, ſtrongly fortified, and defended by a citadel; and as it ſtands in a flat country abounding with rivulets, the ground about it may be overflowed, and the approaches rendered exceeding difficult in caſe of a ſiege. The late French King cauſed a noble cauſeway to be thrown up from this place to Liſle, and ſo on to Ypres, extending near fifty miles in length. The great Church, dedicated to the Virgin MARY, is a magnificent old building, the pillars and architraves conſiſting of marble; but the private buildings are many of them of wood. Their chief manufactures at preſent are thoſe of ſilk and linnen, and they had formerly a good trade in cloth and French wines. The French took it in the year 1677, and it was afterwards confirmed to them by the treaty of Nimeguen.

Bouchain. 2. Bouchain, a ſmall but ſtrong town, ſituate on the river Scheld, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Valenciennes, taken from the Spaniards by the French in the year 1676, and confirmed to them by the following treaty of Nimeguen, which they remained in poſſeſſion of till the year 1711, when it was taken by the allies; but retaken by the French anno 1712, after the Britiſh troops were ſeparated from the allies.

Conde. 3. Conde, ſituate at the conflux of the rivers Scheld and Haine, ſix miles north-eaſt of Valenciennes, and ten to the weſtward of Mons; a little fortified town, often taken and retaken by the French and Spaniards, but yielded to France by the treaty of Nimeguen, and gives a title to a Prince of the Houſe of Bourbon.

Bavay. 4. Bavay, an old town of no ſtrength, (ſuppoſed by ſome to have been the antient *Belgium*) ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Valenciennes, whither the French retreated after the battle of Malplaquet, in the year 1709, leaving 1500 of their wounded men there, who were made priſoners by the allies.

Maubeuge. 5. Maubeuge, ſituate on the Sambre, ſeven miles north-eaſt of Bavay, yielded to the French by the treaty of Nimeguen.

Landrecy. 6. Landrecy, ſituate on the Sambre, fifteen miles north-weſt of Maubeuge, and ſixteen ſouth-eaſt of Cambray, yielded to the French by the Pyrenean treaty.

Aveſnes. 7. Aveſnes, a fortified town, ſituate on the frontiers of France, nine miles to the eaſtward of Landrecy.

Philipville. 8. Philipville, twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Namur, and twenty-four ſouth-eaſt of Mons, a well-fortified town, yielded to the French by the Pyrenean treaty.

Marienburg. 9. Marienburg, ſituate on the confines of the biſhoprick of Liege, thirty miles to the eaſtward of Landrecy, yielded alſo to the French by the treaty of the Pyrenees.

Queſnoy. 10. Queſnoy, a little fortified town, ſituate on the river Rouelle, ſix miles north-eaſt of Valenciennes, and twelve to the weſtward of Mons, taken by the allies in the year 1712, but retaken by the French the ſame year, after the Britiſh troops were ſeparated from the Confederates.

Mons. 11. Mons, in Dutch *Berghen*, ſo named from it's ſituation on a hill near the banks of the Trouille, which a little below falls into the Haine, twenty-ſix miles ſouth-weſt of Bruſſels, and twenty-nine weſt of Namur; a large ſtrong town, the capital of Spaniſh Hainault. The ſtreets are broad, the market-places ſpacious, and the buildings magnificent; and among the reſt a college of Canoneſſes, who may leave the houſe and marry when they pleaſe, founded by a Princeſs of Lorraine, by whoſe appointment none but the deſcendants of noble families can be admitted into the ſociety. This city is a Biſhop's See, and here the Provincial Council or Parliament aſſembles, and receives appeals from the reſt of the towns of Brabant under the Emperor's dominion. It was taken by the French in the year 1691, but reſtored to the Spaniard by the treaty of Ryſwick. The French poſſeſſed themſelves of it again on the death of CHARLES II, King of Spain; but the allies retook it in the year 1709, after the memorable battle of Malplaquet, and it was afterwards confirmed to the Emperor by the treaty of Utrecht.

Aeth. 12. Aeth, ſituate on the Dendre, twelve miles north-weſt of Mons, capital of the diſtrict of Burbant, a little town, conſiſting but of one pariſh, but extremely well fortified, being perfectly covered by the fortifications and the trees on the ramparts, inſomuch that nothing can be diſcerned from without but the top of the ſteeple; and it has more than once endured a long ſiege againſt an army of an hundred thouſand men. It was taken however by the French in the year 1667, and being reſtored to the Spaniards by the enſuing treaty of Nimeguen, was again taken by the French in the year 1697; but yielded to the Spaniards a ſecond time by the treaty of Ryſwick, and is now in poſſeſſion of the Emperor, to whom it was confirmed by the treaty of Utrecht.

Braine le Comte. 13. Braine le comte, a little town near the confines of Brabant, thirteen miles to the ſouthward of Bruſſels.

St Ghillian. 14. St Ghillian, about eight miles to the weſtward of Mons, a town of no conſequence.

Enghien. 15. Enghien, eight miles alſo from Mons, which gives title to a Duke of the houſe of Bourbon.

Binche. 16. Binche, ſituate on a branch of the Haine, eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Mons, formerly a populous place, but ruined in the wars of the Low Countries, and the fortifications demoliſhed.

Halle. 17. Halle, ſituate on the utmoſt confines of this province, eight miles ſouth of Bruſſels, and twenty to the northward of Mons, ſituate in a very pleaſant country, and watered by the Saine or Sinne; a walled town, but of no great ſtrength, moſt remarkable for a chapel dedicated to the bleſſed Virgin, whoſe image about two foot in length is enſhrined in gold, and hath a crown of the ſame metal on it's head, holding an image of our Saviour in one hand, and in the other a gilded Roſe. On the firſt of September annually, multitudes of her votaries reſort hither, and preſents are ſent from the neighbouring towns and cities.

Leſſines. 18. Leſſines, a little walled town, ſituate on the Dendre, about four miles to the northward of Aeth.

Rocles. 19. Rocles, or Reux, another little walled town, four miles to the ſouthward of Soignies.

Soignies. 20. Soignies, ſituate on the Sinne, nine miles north-eaſt of Mons.

Beaumont. 21. Beaumont, ten miles to the eaſtward of Maubeuge, and fifteen ſouth-eaſt of Mons, ſituate on a pleaſant hill, from whence it derives it's name.

Chimay. And laſtly, Chimay, about fourteen miles to the ſouthward of it, both which places have been yielded to the French.

Namur county. The province or county of Namur is bounded by the province of Brabant on the north, by the biſhoprick of Leige, and part of Luxemburg, towards the eaſt; and by Hainault on the ſouth and weſt; extending about thirty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty in breadth from north to ſouth. The county of Namur enjoys a good air and a fruitful ſoil, and hath ſome good mines of lead, iron, and coals, with veins of tolerable marble, and great ſtore of foſſile nitre. They have alſo plenty of wood for their iron-works.

Chief towns. The chief towns are, 1. Namur. 2. Bouvines. 3. Walcourt, or Valencourt. And, 4. Charleroy.

Namur. 1. The city of Namur is of a circular figure, and ſituate at the conflux of the Sambre and the Maeſe, in the latitude of fifty degrees thirty minutes, thirty miles to the eaſtward of Mons, and as many ſouth-eaſt of Bruſſels. It lies in a bottom, between two hills, the greateſt part of the town ſtanding on the north ſide of the Sambre, on the other ſide whereof is a ſteep mountain, on which the caſtle is ſituated, being a magnificent ſtructure, and eſteemed the ſtrongeſt fortreſs in Europe; for the rock on which it ſtands is not only very ſteep, but the approaches to it fortified with the greateſt art, and on the top of the rock are ſeveral good ſprings of water. The town was erected into a biſhoprick, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Cambray, anno 1559, and the church of St ALBAN converted into a cathedral. There are beſides nine or ten handſome churches, of which the Jeſuits church is ſaid to exceed that of Antwerp, in the magnitude, ſtructure, and beauty of the ſtone, being ſupported by wreathed columns of red marble of the Dorick order, finely veined, and near a yard and a half diameter, with baſes and cornices exquiſitely wrought. It was taken by the French in the year 1692, and retaken by the allies in the year 1695, and is at preſent part of the Dutch barrier. The States of the province aſſemble here, from whence however there lies an appeal to the ſupreme court at Mechlin.

Bouvines. 2. Bouvines, ſituate on the Maeſe, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Namur, and two below Dinant. 'Tis a paſs between Namur and Luxemburg, but has little elſe to recommend it a preſent.

Walcourt. 3. Walcourt, or Valencourt, a little town twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Namur, near which a battle was fought between the Confederates and the French in the year 1689.

Charleroy. 4. Charleroy, ſituate on a hill near the Sambre, fifteen miles weſt of Namur, and twenty-five ſouth of Bruſſels; a ſtrong fortreſs, erected by the Spaniards in the year 1666, to prevent the incurſions of the French. It has been taken and retaken ſeveral times, but is now in the poſſeſſion of the Imperialiſts. To the north-eaſt of Charleroy ſtands the abbey of Flerus, or Fleury, near which a memorable battle was fought between the French and the Allies in the year 1690, wherein the Allies were defeated, but made a good retreat with their foot.

Charlemont. 5. Charlemont, a ſtrong fortreſs, ſometimes placed in Hainault, ſituate on the top of a high hill, under which runs the river Maeſe, about twenty miles to the ſouthward of Namur, fortified by the Emperor CHARLES V, anno 1555, to whom it was granted by the then Biſhop of Liege.

Luxemburg duchy. The province or duchy of Luxemburg is bounded by the duchy of Limburg and biſhoprick of Liege towards the north; by the river Moſelle, which divides it from the archbiſhoprick of Triers, towards the eaſt; by the duchy of Lorraine on the ſouth; and by the river Maeſe, which ſeparates it from the county of Namur and Champaigne, towards the weſt; extending ſeventy miles in length, and about ſixty in breadth, and is uſually divided into two parts, viz. Famenne and Arduenne. Famenne, the northern part, is a fruitful ſoil, yielding plenty of corn, and ſome wine; but the other, which lies towards France, called Arduenne, is a more barren ſoil, and in many places covered with wood; in the mountains whereof are however ſome mines of iron, which make amends for the ſterility of the ſurface, and their woods abound in game. The principal rivers which water this province are the Moſelle, the Elſe, the Semay, the Ourte, and the Maeſe; and the air is generally healthful and temperate. It is divided into ſeven earldoms, many baronies and inferior lordſhips; and the common people are in a ſtate of vaſſalage here, as in Germany. The States conſiſt of the Prelates, the Nobility, Gentry, and Repreſentatives or Deputies of the chief towns. The French and Dutch languages are both ſpoken in this province; but the people in their manners reſemble the French moſt, being contiguous to France, and having been ſome time under the dominion of that crown, till Luxemburg was yielded to the Emperor by the treaty of Utrecht, anno 1713.

Chief towns. The chief towns of the duchy of Luxemburg are, 1. Luxemburg. 2. Thionville. 3. Montmedy. 4. Damvillers. 5. Yvoix. 6. La Ferte. 7. Aſtenay. 8. Morville. 9. Rode Macheren. 10. Konings Macheren. 11. Sirick. 12. Maſieres. 13. Durby. 14. La Roche. 15. St Vite. 16. Viande. 17. Eichternach. 18. Baſtoigne. 19. Neufchatel. And, 20. Virton; the moſt conſiderable whereof I ſhall endeavour to deſcribe.

Luxemburg. 1. Luxemburg, the capital of the province, ſaid to be built in honour of the ſun, and called *Luciſburgum*, ſituate in the latitude of forty-nine degrees, forty minutes; twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Triers, and an hundred ſouth-eaſt of Bruſſels, forty-five miles to the eaſtward of the river Maeſe, and twelve to the weſtward of the Moſelle, and ſtands on the river Elſe or Alſat, partly on a plain, and partly on the declivity of a rocky hill. The town is ſtrong both by art and nature, but not very large or well-built, though there are ſome handſome ſtone buildings in it. There is a monaſtery of Franciſcans here, who pretend their houſe was founded in the life-time of St FRANCIS. In the great church are the tombs of JOHN of Luxemburg, King of Bohemia, and of Count MANSFIELD, Governor of the Spaniſh Netherlands; but the publick buildings don't ſeem to merit the deſcription of any modern writer.

Thionville.

2. Thionville, or Diedenhoven, ſituate on the Moſelle, fourteen miles to the ſouthward of Luxemburg. It is a well-built town, and ſtrongly fortified, but hath however been frequently taken and retaken.

Montmedy.

3. Montmedy, ſituate on a high hill near the river Chier, twenty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Luxemburg, eſteemed a place of ſome ſtrength.

Damvillers.

4. Damvillers, once a ſtrong fortreſs, twelve miles to the ſouthward of Montmedy, but the fortifications were agreed to be razed by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle.

Arlon.

5. Arlon, ſituate on the river Semoy, twelve miles north-weſt of Luxemburg, heretofore a pretty town, but hath ſuffered much by the wars.

Chiny.

6. Chiny, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Arlon, capital of a county of the ſame name, formerly ſubject to it's own Princes, but united to the duchy of Luxemburg about the year 1400. It ſtill however retains an independent juriſdiction. The reſt of the towns do not require a particular deſcription, and their ſituation will be deſcribed in the maps bound up with this volume.

Limburg province.

The province or duchy of Limburg is bounded by the duchy of Juliers on the north and eaſt; by Luxemburg on the ſouth; and by the biſhoprick of Liege towards the weſt; extending in length about thirty miles from north to ſouth, and in breadth twenty-five from eaſt to weſt. Here is a great deal of good arable and paſture-ground, plenty of wood, and ſome of the beſt iron-mines in the Low-Countries, but no wine made in the province.

Chief towns.

The chief towns are, 1. Limburg. 2. Dalem. 3. Rolduc. And, 4. Valkenburg, or Fauquemont.

Limburg.

1. Limburg, ſituate on a ſteep rock near the river Veſe, fifteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Liege, and twelve to the ſouthward of Aix la Chapelle. It is a ſmall town, conſiſting chiefly of one broad ſtreet, not very elegantly built, but the ſituation renders it very ſtrong, there being but one paſſage to it, and that almoſt inacceſſible. This is the only town of note in the province which belongs to the Imperialiſts, the other three are in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch.

Dalem.

2. Dalem, ſituate on a rivulet, which diſcharges itſelf into the Maeſe, ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Maeſtricht. The town is ſmall, and the fortifications both of that and the caſtle were demoliſhed by the French, who reſtored it to the Dutch at the treaty of Nimeguen.

Rolduc.

3. Roldoc, on the eaſt ſide of the province, five miles to the northward of Aix la Chapelle, is a ſmall town capital of a county, and hath an old caſtle belonging to it.

Fauquemont.

4. Fauquemont, or Falkenburg, ſituate on the Guel, eight miles north-eaſt of Maeſtricht, a large handſome town, formerly well fortified, but the works were demoliſhed by the French on their being obliged to reſtore it to the Dutch by the treaty of Nimeguen.

CHAP. III.

Treats of the manufactures, trade, and navigation of the Auſtrian Netherlands.

Of their trade, &c.

FROM the deſcription of the reſpective provinces, the reader is no doubt pretty well acquainted with the trade and manufactures of thoſe countries; but it may not be amiſs however to make ſome general obſervations on the whole. Before the revolt of the ſeven provinces, their woollen manufactures were in great eſteem; hither the Engliſh ſent all their wool to be made into cloth: but, happily for us, their Princes being poſſeſſed with more ſuperſtition than good policy, drove many of their mechanicks over hither, who taught us to manufacture our own wool. Whereupon the ſoil of the Low Countries being extremly proper for flax, they ſowed vaſt quantities of it, and being an ingenious people, ſoon became as good proficients in the linnen and lace manufactures, as they had been in the woollen, and at this day excel all the nations in Europe in making fine linnen and lace: witneſs their cambrick and their Bruſſels and Mechlin lace, of which Britain alone takes off prodigious quantities, and makes moſt of her returns in treaſure; for except tin and lead, ſugar and tobacco, there are very few things produced, either in England or our plantations, which they ſtand in need of from us. The product of India indeed formerly might be exchanged for their cambrick and lace, before they fell into the India trade themſelves; but this traffick is at full ſtop at preſent, and with moſt of the merchandize of India they might always have been ſupplied from their neighbours the Dutch, as without all queſtion they were: and therefore the Flemings applying themſelves to that trade, or indeed to any other foreign trade, muſt be of infinite diſadvantage to the Dutch. Should they encourage a whale or herring-fiſhery, or attempt to carry on a trade to the Baltick, or the Levant, any of theſe undertakings would equally wound the Dutch commerce. but ſtill I can't apprehend what right the Dutch can have to exclude this people from the fiſheries, or from trading with any Prince or State upon earth independent of them. What have the Dutch to do to preſcribe what nations the King of Perſia, the Great Mogul, or the Emperor of China, ſhall deal with? Are not their ports open to all the world in friendſhip with them? or, what pretence can the Dutch have to monopolize the trade to the Baltick? That people indeed tell us, they will not ſuffer the ſubjects of Spain or the Empire to trade thither in their own bottoms, but what right they have to exclude them I can't learn; and what is moſt ſuprizing is, that the Hollanders ſhould expect Britain to defend them in all their extravagant pretences, while they ſtand by idle ſpectators of the conteſt, and continue to trade with all the natious at variance.

'Tis true, it is not for the advantage of the Dutch, that the Flemings ſhould become a trading people again. When Bruges and Antwerp flouriſhed, the ports of Holland were ſcarce mentioned; and indeed had not the Dutch by their forts blocked up the mouth of the Scheld, it is not to be conceived how the Flemings could ſo ſuddenly loſe their foreign trade; for the harbours of Flanders, though not the beſt in the world, are any of them as commodious however as that of Amſterdam; and the product, as well as manufactures of the country, were then much beyond thoſe of the United Provinces. They have plenty of corn, and good paſture, and their plantations of flax ſtill exceed thoſe of Holland; and their manufactures of linnen and lace are much beyond any thing we meet with in Holland; and ſhould they encourage their fiſheries, their navigation and foreign commerce, the Dutch muſt lower their top-ſails. But notwithſtanding the Dutch would be very nearly affected by ſuch attempts, England could receive but little prejudice by it; for if they don't take our herrings, the Dutch will; and it muſt be indifferent to us, which of theſe nations become the common carriers of Europe. If the Flemings do not bring the merchandize of the Baltick to the ſouthern kingdoms of Europe, but leave this branch of commerce to the Dutch, what advantage or diſadvantage is it to us, that we ſhould be ſpirited up to prevent the Flemings entring upon a foreign trade? If it be ſaid, that the Imperialiſts by this means may become too formidable, and deſtroy the balance of power in Europe; this I believe muſt appear to be a chimæra to all that conſider the preſent growing power of France: that kingdom will always find the Empire employment enough to divert their thoughts from attacking Britain; and ſhould Lewis XV appear as enterprizing a Prince as Lewis XIV, I don't ſee why he ſhould not bid as far for univerſal monarchy, notwithſtanding he is ſo much courted by ſome Powers at preſent; it may poſſibly coſt us as much hereafter to undo what we are doing, as it did to reſume Flanders out of their hands by the laſt thirty years war. And why at laſt are we ſo exceeding jealous of the poor Flemings breaking in upon our commerce, and have no manner of apprehenſions of the potent French? a nation, who at this very day, while they are at peace with us, are ſpiriting up and aſſiſting the natives of America to fall upon and diſtreſs our ſettlements on that ſide, and are in a fair way of ſupplanting us in our ſugar trade; an article at preſent perhaps as important as that of the fine ſpices was formerly.

In one thing indeed I am for leſſening the trade of Flanders, as I was in the former part of this volume for abating the pride of Holland; and that is in prohibiting the importation of their lace and linnen. If to promote our home manufactures, it was thought neceſſary to prohibit the wearing of India ſilks and callicoes, why is it not equally expedient to prohibit the linnen and lace of Holland and Flanders? Will any man pretend it is neceſſary to his being, or well-being, in the phraſe of a late writer, to wear hollands and cambricks, and Flanders laces, when the linnen of Ireland or Scotland is very little inferior to that of Holland; and probably would be ſoon equal to it, if thoſe nations met with ſuitable encouragement? But while nothing but what is foreign will go down, either with ladies or gentlemen, or even with inferior tradeſmen and apprentices, what are we to expect but to ſee our nation beggared, even in our ſilk manufacture, in which we equal, and perhaps excel any nation in the world? The Mercer at this day can ſell nothing unleſs he ſwears it is of foreign make; ſo depraved is the ſickly taſte of our people at preſent! But ſurely if reaſon and argument has at preſent loſt it's force, and can make no impreſſion on this whimſical generation, in caſes which ſo nearly concern us, authority will one day interpoſe and prevent our deſtruction. What an immenſe treaſure every year iſſues out of the kingdom to purchaſe hollands, cambricks, lace, and (clandeſtinely) foreign wrought ſilks? What multitudes of people lie unemployed and ſtarving in the three kingdoms for want of encouraging theſe manufactures; while there is not a nation in Europe ſcarce but prohibits our woollen manufacture, and compels their people to wear their own coarſe home-made cloth, between which and the Engliſh there is no manner of compariſon. If we are ſo fond of imitating foreigners therefore, let us imitate them in this, namely, in encouraging our own manufactures, though they ſhould be ſomething inferior to theirs.

There are two objections indeed made to this reform, which a native of Britain may be aſhamed to mention. One is, that by prohibiting the Dutch linnens, &c. we ſhould leſſen the duties of the crown: and the other, that by this means we ſhould diſoblige our beſt allie. But as to the duties ariſing by the importation of linnen, I may ſay without offence, that our preſent Court would be far from founding it's grandure on the ruin of the ſubject. We are happy indeed in a numerous royal progeny, but if they were ſtill more numerous, they may be ſupported without the deſtruction of the Britiſh trade. If the cuſtoms ſhould fall ſhort, other ways and means may be thought of to ſupply their room, without diminiſhing the luſtre of the royal houſe. And as to the diſobliging an allie; will any nation give themſelves thoſe airs, and be ſo impertinent, as to call the promoting our own trade and manufactures a breach of friendſhip? No, the more they ſee you apply yourſelves to put the kingdom into a wealthy and flouriſhing condition, the more will they and other nations court your friendſhip, and in proportion to your indolence in this particular will be their neglect and contempt of you. Beſides, as their loſs is our gain, and riches would flow in upon us by the encouragement of our manufactures, we ſhould ſtand in leſs need of foreign powers to defend our intereſts. The more independent we are, the greater is our ſecurity. Every one would court the alliance of a powerful wealthy neighbour, few care to aſſociate themſelves with beggars.

There is a third reaſon given, why our trade and manufactures do not flouriſh, as might be expected, under the many advantages we have of other nations, and that is our mercenary temper. A bribe well applied by a ſubtle foreigner ſhall blaſt the moſt promiſing undertaking. I am credibly informed, that in the reign of King Charles II, a commiſſion being obtained to drive the Dutch from ſome of our ſettlements they had ſurprized in the Eaſt-Indies; and the Engliſh Eaſt-India Company having fitted out a ſtrong ſquadron of ſhips accordingly, when their commanders came to open their commiſſions at the Cape of Good Hope, they found themſelves empowered to make war upon the Indians, but not one word of acting againſt the Dutch; ſo that the whole deſign was defeated, and the treaſure it had coſt the company in fitting out this ſquadron was thrown away. And this the Dutch brought about by clapping a round ſum into the Ducheſs of Portſmouth's hands, who thereupon procured the inſtructions given to the Eaſt-India Captains to be altered. And one provoking circumſtance in this enterprize was, That the thing was all the while pretended to be ſo very great a ſecret, that the officers who were to be entruſted with the execution of it, were not to be acquainted with the extent of their commiſſion, till they had ſailed half their voyage, and paſſed the Cape of Good Hope, when the Dutch were in the ſecret from the very beginning. So deſtructive are the influence of he or ſhe-favourites: the wealth they heap upon themſelves and their creatures is a trifle, if compared with the miſchiefs they do in betraying the moſt important intereſt of their country.

But this nation, one would think, had taken ſuch precautions, that it could not lie in the power of any deſigning foreigner, or treacherous courtier, to ſtifle any well-weighed propoſal for the advancement of the Britiſh commerce. For here are commiſſioners of trade, with noble ſalaries allowed them, who are, or ought to be, the guardians of our foreign trade, and upon a due application to the throne might baffle all the attempts of deſigning men to deſtroy our commerce. The government no doubt takes care to put none into this important commiſſion, of whoſe ſkill and fidelity they are not very well aſſured; and theſe gentlemen will certainly be aſhamed to receive ſuch large ſums of their country's money, without doing ſomething annually for the advancement of her intereſts. But to return from this digreſſion: Flanders an hundred and fifty years ago had all the trade of Europe; her ports were crouded with the ſhips of all nations, and ſhe had ſome ſhips of her own; but upon the oppreſſions of her own Princes, and the revolt of the United Provinces, both merchants and mechanicks left the country, and their commerce in an inſtant dwindled to nothing; ſince when they have ſcarce had a ſhip at ſea, or dealt in any thing but the productions of their own ſoil, till the peace of Utrecht, when falling into the hands of the Imperialiſts, a variety of projects were ſet on foot for reviving their antient commerce. The firſt that took effect was that of the India trade, which alarming their neighbours the Dutch, they ſoon drew the Engliſh into the quarrel, and by their influence have in a manner put a ſtop to their navigation thither. The next thing the Flemings propoſed, was to eſtabliſh a fiſhery; and this they are labouring at now, but whether the Dutch will not be as ſenſibly affected by this attempt as by the other project may be a queſtion; and whether we are not to be hauled in by neck and ſhoulders to oppoſe this deſign alſo, muſt be left to time to diſcover; though, as I have obſerved already, it muſt be perfectly indifferent to us whether the Dutch, the French, or the Flemings, take the fiſh upon our coaſt, ſince they are not thought worth our own care. If it be objected, that it is dangerous to ſuffer the Flemings to increaſe their ſhipping; have we not much more reaſon, as hath been intimated already, to be apprehenſive of the increaſe of the French ſhipping; and may not this people, as the Hollander did the laſt war, aſſiſt us in breaking that power, which in a very few years will probably become as formidable as ever? But theſe are remote proſpects, and I believe the Dutch will take ſuch care to keep the naval power of Flanders under, that we need have no apprehenſions of them. I ſee very little proſpect at preſent of their prejudicing our foreign trade, or contending with us for the ſovereignty of the ſea, as both the Hollander and France have done.

CHAP. IV.

Treats of the religion, government, forces, and revenues of the Auſtrian Netherlands.

Religion.

THE religion of the Auſtrian Netherlands being Roman Catholick, needs no particular deſcription here; only we may obſerve, that the adminiſtration of their eccleſiaſtical government, is much milder here than in many other Popiſh countries: we have ſcarce an inſtance of late years of the Inquiſition exerting it's authority in theſe provinces as in Spain or Portugal; every one who viſits theſe countries, knows that Proteſtants live with all imaginable freedom amongſt them.

Government.

The Emperor, by the conſent of all the Princes and States, concerned in the laſt war, was, after the peace of Utrecht, acknowledged Sovereign of theſe provinces; and in him, or his Viceroy, and the Convention of the States of the reſpective provinces, is the legiſlative power in each lodged. Here new laws are enacted, and by their aſſent alone is money levyed, and the whole aſſembly muſt be unanimous in the paſſing of an act. The Aſſembly or Parliament of each province, conſiſts, 1. Of the Biſhops, Abbots, and dignified Clergy. 2. The Nobility and Gentry. And, 3. The Deputies or Repreſentatives of their chief towns. Theſe meet at Bruſſels, except thoſe of Luxemburg and Gueldres, who by their antient privileges cannot be ſummoned out of their reſpective provinces, any more than the States of Brabant: neither do the States of the ſeveral provinces which meet at Bruſſels aſſemble in one houſe, but each of them apart, and make diſtinct laws for their reſpective countries.

The preſent Regent of the Auſtrian Netherlands is the Arch-ducheſs, MARY-ELIZABETH, &c. daughter of the late Emperor LEOPOLD, who is aſſiſted by three councils. The firſt ſtiled the Council of State, where war and peace and foreign alliances are conſidered; and from them ambaſſadors receive their inſtructions and diſpatches. 2. The Privy-Council, the members whereof are appointed by the Sovereign or the Regent, the Preſident whereof is keeper of the great ſeal. In this court are determined the boundaries of provinces, their juriſdiction, &c. And, 3. The Council of Finances, which ſuperintends the publick revenue.

Beſides the Regent, or Governor-General, every province hath it's particular Governor, ſubject to the Regent; and in every province are courts of juſtice eſtabliſhed for the trial of civil cauſes. The civil and canon law are in force here, where they do not interfere with the particular laws of the country; and from the civil courts of every province, there lies an appeal to the grand council at Mechlin, already mentioned. As to criminal matters, there is an officer called the Provoſt in every province, who with his aſſociate hath the determination of them, but accountable however to the Grand Provoſt, or Chief Juſtice, who reſides in Bruſſels, the capital of the Auſtrian Netherlands.

Forces.

The forces ſtipulated to be maintained in the Netherlands by the barrier-treaty, made between the Emperor and the Dutch, anno 1715, I have already obſerved are thirty thouſand men, and upon an appearance of war are to be forty thouſand; of which his Imperial Majeſty's quota is three fifths, and that of the Dutch two. I have alſo in the deſcription of the United Provinces ſpecified the barrier towns, in which the States are to have ſeparate garriſons, to which I refer the reader, to avoid repetition.

The Walloon troops are generally good, and by the antient conſtitution of this country, no others ought to be introduced; but as the Spaniards had done for many years, ſo the Imperialiſts now introduce what forces they pleaſe, and chuſe to rely on their German troops rather than on the natives.

Revenues.

The revenues of the Netherlands, when under the dominion of the Spaniards, were not ſufficient to defray the charges of the civil government, and maintain their garriſons. (I mean ſince the revolt of the ſeven provinces, and the decay of their commerce; for in their flouriſhing ſtate, when Antwerp was the centre of trade, there was not a kingdom in Europe which yielded a larger revenue to it's Princes.) But their finances having been better regulated by the Imperialiſts, and their trade ſomething revived by the vaſt demand of late for their fine linnen and lace, they are not ſo great a burthen to the Emperor as they were to Spain: however, it is ſtill a queſtion whether the publick revenues will maintain the charges of the government, even in time of peace. The ordinary revenues of the government are either thoſe ariſing from the demeſn lands, or from the cuſtoms. If there be an extraordinary tax to be raiſed, it is demanded of the States of the reſpective provinces, with whom the court uſually maintains ſo good a correſpondence, as not to meet with frequent denials: but the ſupplies muſt be much more precarious there than with us, becauſe the conſent of every ſingle member is requiſite to compleat the grant.

The Emperor, though he be not much richer by the acquiſition of the Spaniſh Netherlands, is however much ſtronger than he was. The forces maintained by the Imperialiſts and the Dutch in this country, and the many ſtrong fortreſſes they are poſſeſſed of, will enable them always to give France a conſiderable diverſion on this ſide: and the putting the Emperor and the Dutch into the poſſeſſion of them, will in all probability keep the French within due bounds: but ſhould we fooliſhly and impolitickly join with France to wreſt this country out of the hands of the Imperialiſts, we ſhall ſoon be in the ſame condition we were on the death of CHARLES II, King of Spain; and it may occaſion as expenſive and bloody a war to recover them as the laſt. But I hope we ſhall not ever be changing hands, and throwing away our blood and treaſure for we know not what. This may indeed be the wiſh and intereſt of the ſoldiery; but can never be to the general advantage of the Britiſh nation.

Nobility, &c.

The nobility and gentry of the Auſtrian Netherlands are much more numerous than in the United Provinces, eſpecially in Luxemburg. They have moſt of them their palaces in and about the capital city; and their country-ſeats are ſo many caſtles, walled and moated round, from thence denominated *Chateau's*. The principal order of knighthood here is that of the Golden Fleece, of which there are fifty Knights, uſually men of the firſt quality. As to the modern hiſtory of this country, the reader will find it blended with that of Germany and the United Provinces. I proceed therefore in the next place to Baron POLNITZ's deſcription of the United Provinces.

Baron POLNITZ's deſcription of the United Provinces.

The liberty ſo much boaſted of in Holland, according to baron POLNITZ, is no more than what the good people of other countries enjoy; nevertheleſs I muſt except religion, which every one here may adapt to his own fancy. The liberty therefore conſiſts only in the equality of conditions: but for a boor to preſume to be ſaucy to a burgher, to deſpiſe the nobility, to cenſure his maſters with impunity, and to treat all Kings as tyrants, ſeems to me to be a liberty which ſavours very much of libertiniſm. The Germans and the French, who are not uſed to ſuch licentiouſneſs in their own country, eaſily fall into it here; and 'tis really a wonder to hear them in a coffee-houſe, talking of ſovereigns, eſpecially when inſpired with a holy zeal, plead for religion, which, ſay they, is every where oppreſſed, except in the dominions of the Calviniſts. They think every government tyrannical, which does not allow entire liberty of conſcience. 'Tis true, that in this country every one believes as he pleaſes: and here are religions of every kind, which nevertheleſs tend to one and the ſame centre, viz. the acquiring of riches, and the tormenting both of body and ſoul, to get an eſtate, not to enjoy it, but to have the pleaſure of dying rich. Money, the darling, and the idol of the whole world, is ſo adored in this country, that it ſtands in the ſtead of birth, wit, and merit. A man who has but a ſmall ſhare of the favours of fortune, is neglected almoſt every where, but here he is deſpiſed.

Next to thoſe of the prevailing religion, the Catholicks, among whom I include the Janſeniſts, are the moſt numerous; I have been told they are above 20,000. They have fourteen churches, ſerved by different orders of friars, who, as they die, the States have declared, ſhall be ſucceeded hereafter by none but the ſecular prieſts, who are natives of the country.

Amſterdam is not a place for a man to live in that is not concerned in trade; and a foreigner, eſpecially, knows not how to beſtow himſelf. He can find no where to go, but to ſome ſorry coffee-houſe, or melancholy walk. In the one, he is ſure to be incenſed with tobacco, and ſtunned with wretched commentaries upon news papers, or the price of pepper and ginger; in the other he is as ſolitary as a hermit. Their comedies are but a poor relief to ſuch as do not underſtand Dutch; which, beſides, is a language that I think is not very fit for the ſtage any more than ours. I thought the actors pitiful, and the habits trifling; but the decorations are fine, and the theatre ſpacious and magnificent. I cannot imagine why the magiſtrates will not let French comedies be acted in their city, where, I think they would do more good than harm; for they would help to poliſh the youth, and would undoubtedly keep them from that temptation to debauchery, to which idleneſs, and the difficulty of knowing where to ſpend the evenings, naturally incline them. I heard M. D'ARGENSON, the late keeper of the ſeals, ſay, he had obſerved, while he was lieutenant of the police at Paris, that there were more diſorders and debaucheries committed in that city, during the fortnight at Eaſter, when the theatres were ſhut up, than were committed in four months, when all ſhews were kept open. I doubt not but it would be the ſame at Amſterdam, where there is a numerous youth, for whom the parents are blindly complaiſant, and ready to kill the fatted calf; ſo that being left to their own devices, and having in general but few maxims of education, they run with the ſtream of their paſſions into all extravagancies. Theſe young fellows, who prefer the exerciſe of driving a chaiſe before all others, ſet up in the mean time for fine gentlemen; but how well they perform their part, I leave you to think.

The aſſemblies, or ſocieties, as they are here called, have nothing that is engaging. You ſee very fine faces there, but not a tongue moves, at leaſt to a foreigner; the very ſight of whom ſeems to frighten them. Here they drink tea, or play a game at ombre, or quadrille, and afterwards go in queſt of a ſupper.

Thoſe ſocieties, or clubs, where there are no ladies, are ſtill worſe. In theſe they ſmoke and drink in abundance; talk of trade or politicks; and at ſuch times, woe be to thoſe powers that have forbid the importation of Dutch toys into their dominions. The only remedy againſt chagrin, is reading, of which a man may have his heart full; for Amſterdam is not only the centre of the bookſelling trade, but here are bookſellers that are very ready to lend books to ſuch, who, like myſelf, cannot be at the charge of a library. I divide my time between reading, the coffee-houſe, and taking the air; the latter of which I uſe very moderately; one being obliged to go ſo far for it, that I think of it at leaſt four times before I ſet out. The canals, ſuch as the Heers-Gratcht, and the Keizers-Gratcht, are pleaſant walks in the town, becauſe they are planted with trees; but they are indifferently paved. Upon theſe two canals live perſons of the greateſt diſtinction, or rather thoſe of the greateſt wealth, in the city.

One of the fineſt walks in it is the bridge, which joins the rampart from one ſide of the Amſtel to the other. 'Tis ſix hundred and ſixty feet in length, and ſeventy in breadth; and here one enjoys an admirable proſpect, which is the only one, perhaps, that can be compared with the view from Pont-Royal at Paris. The admiralty, with it's precinct, forms a little town. 'Tis one of the arſenals of the Dutch navy. Here one actually ſees ſeventy men of war, and materials for building a much greater number. With the leave of the Venetians, their arſenal, ſo much boaſted of, is by no means comparable with this, with regard to naval ſtores.

The admiralty office is ſo near the India-company's warehouſe, that I am tempted to give you ſome account of a houſe which contains ſuch a treaſure. 'Tis a very great ſtructure of ſeveral ſtories, diſtributed into divers chambers or rooms, where there is a prodigious quantity of all manner of ſpices, of which the moſt common ſorts lie in heaps, as corn does in all our granaries. There are alſo a great many other things of value; and, in a word, every thing, be it ever ſo precious, that comes from the Indies. After I had walked about an hour in this warehouſe, I was, as it were, embalmed with the odour of the different ſpices, which made my head ach exceedingly, or elſe I ſhould have thought myſelf metamorphoſed into a mummy; but jeſting apart, I fancy, that were a carcaſs to be depoſited in this houſe, it would be free from corruption. The India-company is properly a republick within the republick itſelf: it arms, diſarms, raiſes and diſbands officers and ſoldiers, without being accountable to the ſtates. It maintains a governor in the Indies, who lives there with more pomp and grandeur than his maſters do here.

The ſuburbs of this grea city, in which it is ſaid there are above five hundred thouſand ſouls, as many as are in Naples, are extremly populous. There are above eight hundred windmils continually at work in grinding corn, or ſawing of timber. On the other ſide of the harbour there are ſeveral villages, of which Sardam is the moſt conſiderable, not only for it's ſize, in which it ſurpaſſes many towns, but for the wealth of it's inhabitants, who are called peaſants, and pretend to be nothing elſe, though I cannot imagine why; for they trade, and make a figure here upon the exchange, like the moſt ſubſtantial merchants, and do not apply themſelves to agriculture. I have been told, that there is above a thouſand windmils at Sardam, always employed in ſawing of timber, which would have been a rare field for Don QUIXOTE to have diſplayed his valour. That neatneſs of which the Dutch are ſo fond, is cultivated to the greateſt nicety in this village; and the Amſterdamers themſelves cannot but own and admire it.

The peaſants of Sardam dreſs more like the citizens of Amſterdam than thoſe of the other villages in thoſe parts do, whoſe apparel is of a very extraordinary faſhion. They wear monſtrous large trowſers, wide enough to make any body a whole ſuit. Under this trowſer there is another pair of breeches, and perhaps a third, or elſe a pair of drawers; and to the two pair of breeches which are in ſight, they have ſolid plate buttons bigger than a crown piece. They alſo wear three or four waiſtcoats, one over the other, which are ſet ſo thick with ſilver buttons, that they perfectly touch one another. Over all this clothing, they have a dark-coloured ſurtout, or doublet, which keeps them extremely tight downwards, and therefore all their waiſtcoats ride up ſo, that they ſeem to have breaſts like woman. Their ſhoes are ſea-men like, or, with reverence be it ſpoken, ſuch as are now worn by the French *petit maitres*. They have alſo ſilver buckles, but ſo large, that they are fitter for the harneſs of horſes than for ſhoes. I aſſure you, that if the Romans had been dreſſed like theſe peaſants, the Carthaginians would have taken a richer booty in ſiver buttons, than they did at the battle of Cannæ, when they took that heap of Roman rings. The women alſo wear a ſmall equipage of gold and ſilver. They have gold ear-pendants; a bodkin of the ſame which faſtens their caps; chains about their necks in form of pearl necklaces; great rings; and in all this there is no expence grudged.

The Sardamers are ſo very much wedded to their antient habit, that a father once refuſed to own his ſon, becauſe, having been for ſome years in France, he came to wait on him upon the exchange of Amſterdam, in a ſuit of clothes bedawbed with gold lace.

I cannot ſay that I have had any other ſatisfaction in my tour to North-Holland, than the gratification of ſight; for company does not ſeem to be the taſte of the country. I never ſtirred out, but every body took me for a very odd kind of a man: yet I am no *petit maitre*, nor is there any thing uncommon in my make. The fair ſex in this out-of-the-way country, is very handſome; and here are country laſſes, who have a delicate complexion, not inferior to the fineſt ladies. Theſe ſylvan beauties are generally fair, and have ſuch a languiſhing look, that I gueſs they would not prove unkind to any young faun that courted them.

The hiſtory of the United Provinces was brought down to the year 1728, in the former edition of Modern History, when we find the Dutch extremely incenſed againſt the Emperor, for ſupporting the Oſtend company, in their trade to the Eaſt-Indies, and ſhewing but little inclination to give up that branch of traffick. The Dutch, thereupon, gave orders to their commanders in India, to ſeize and ſink all Oſtend ſhips they met with in thoſe ſeas; and, unhappily, prevailed on the Engliſh company to give the ſame barbarous orders to their captains, which were ſhamefully put in execution; and one ſhip, if not more, belonging to Oſtend, was ſunk in the river Ganges, by ſhips belonging to the Engliſh and Dutch Eaſt-India companies; an outrage that the Emperor will never forget: and in this, our unhappy countrymen were made tools to the Dutch; for we could reap but little advantage by excluding the Emperor's ſubjects of Flanders from the Eaſt-Indies: we had none of the fine ſpices to loſe; the Dutch had long ſince raviſhed theſe from us, and the other branches of the Eaſt-India trade are ſcarce worth the contending for: and the cunning Hollander, at laſt, over-reached himſelf in getting the Oſtend company ſuppreſſed; for other nations immediately took the hint, and imagining there muſt be ſomething extremely valuable in that trade, to which there was made ſuch a violent oppoſition by the maritime powers, immediately formed Eaſt-India companies, or enlarged their navigation that way; and will now, probably, one day diſpute the poſſeſſion of the ſpice iſlands with the Dutch, which the Engliſh ſo tamely abandoned, and, perhaps, would never have attempted to recover. The Dutch, indeed, would have drawn the Engliſh in to aſſiſt them, in excluding other nations from the Indian ſeas; but, I preſume, we are grown wiſer than to burn our fingers in their quarrel any more; we have made too many nations our enemies by coming into their ſchemes, and what returns they have made us for ſuch favours, are too notorious: we are frequently drawn into quarrels, and then left to get out of them as we can; our crafty allies, in the mean time, running away with our trade; whether they are at peace or war with any power, they continue to trade with them, and double their gains, by getting their allies excluded from it, while they lay the burthen of the war upon their good-natured confederates.

In the year 1730, great numbers of people were put to death in the United Provinces, under pretence of ſodomitical practices, againſt which crime the States publiſhed a very ſevere placaert; wherein they obſerve, that their laws had hitherto aſſigned no particular puniſhment for this offence, and direct the judges to condemn thoſe who were convicted of it to what kind of death they thought fit: but the priſoners being tried privately, and none admitted to converſe with them after ſentence, ſome have ſuggeſted, that they were arbitrarily put to death on ſuſpicion of their diſaffection to the ſtate, of which they could produce no clear proof.

A treaty being concluded at Vienna in the year 1731, between the Emperor and the King of Great Britain, wherein the principal articles on the part of the Emperor, were, that ſix thouſand Spaniards ſhould be admitted into Tuſcany, to ſecure the eventual ſucceſſion of Don Carlos, and that the Oſtend company ſhould be aboliſhed; Britain agreed, on her part, to guarantee the Pragmatick Sanction, and the States were pleaſed to accede to this treaty in February 1731-2. Whereupon the Emperor prohibited the Oſtenders, and all his ſubjects of the Netherlands, to carry on any trade to the Eaſt-Indies, to the great ſatisfaction of the Dutch. This grievance was no ſooner redreſſed, but the Dutch were afflicted with a plague of worms, a calamity that they had never before experienced; theſe inſects eat into the wooden piles which ſupported their dikes, and had not the froſty weather come on, and deſtroyed them, the banks that keep out the ſea would probably have been demoliſhed, and great part of their country laid under water; and it ſeems, the Dutch looked upon their deliverance to be ſo extraordinary an event, that they kept a faſt and thankſgiving in one day, on the occaſion, which are always blended together here.

The ſame year, the diſpute between the King of Pruſſia and the Prince of Orange, in relation to the eſtate of the late King William III, was adjuſted; but, I perceive, the Prince of Orange was obliged to accept ſomething leſs than his ſhare; the States, who were executors of the will, having more complaiſance for the King of Pruſſia than the Prince. The province of Zealand alſo kept him out of the poſſeſſion of Fluſhing and Terveer, which were part of his inheritance: however, the court of England had ſuch an opinion of this Prince, thus ſtripped of great part of his poſſeſſions, that a marriage-contract was ſigned between him and the Princeſs Royal, in the year 1733; and on the fourteenth of March 1733-4, the marriage was ſolemnized at St James's with great ſplendor.

When the King notified the marriage of his daughter with the Prince to the States General, they returned him abundance of compliments on the occaſion; but gave him to underſtand, that they ſhould endeavour to preſerve their conſtitution; and he muſt not expect they would alter it again in favour of a ſtadtholder, though they could not but diſcern, that this was his Majeſty's principal view in this match; and, indeed, they ſeem in all their conduct to depreſs the Prince of Orange as much as they can, leſt he ſhould one day grow ſo popular, that the province of Holland, as well as the reſt, ſhould be compelled by the people to appoint him their ſtadtholder, which was the very caſe of William III, late King of England.

And when his preſent Majeſty, the King of Great Britain, repreſented to the States the hardſhip and injuſtice of keeping the Prince, his ſon-in-law, out of poſſeſſion of the lordſhips which belong to him in the iſland of Zealand, they would not intermeddle in it, but contented themſelves with letting his Majeſty know, that Zealand was an independent province, and might do as they ſaw fit; which his Majeſty very well knew before: though he was ſatisfied, at the ſame time, if the States General would interpoſe, the province of Zealand would have been influenced by them: they were afraid, if the Prince was reſtored to the lordſhips of Terveer and Fluſhing, he would have ſuch an intereſt in Zealand, that he might induce that province to elect him their ſtadtholder; and, as this is the moſt powerful province next to Holland itſelf, this would be a great ſtep towards his being appointed Stadtholder-general; and for that reaſon, unleſs the Prince meets with ſome ſuch favourable juncture, as happened when William III, was made ſtadtholder of Holland, he will ſcarce ever arrive at that dignity, but muſt expect to be treated by them, in the mean time, as a Prince they are jealous may one day be their rival in power.

The next thing that deſerves our notice in the hiſtory of the United Provinces, is their conduct on the King of Poland's death, when they ſaw France in a confederacy with Spain and Sardinia, againſt the Emperor: then did theſe honeſt gentlemen ſign an act of neutrality for the Auſtrian Netherlands without conſulting either the Emperor or Great Britain, which gave France and her allies ſuch a ſuperiority on the Rhine, and in Italy, as perfectly ruined the Emperor's affairs; eſpecially as their entring into this neutrality, and refuſing to ſend the Emperor thoſe troops they were obliged by treaty to furniſh him with, probably induced Great Britain to obſerve much the ſame conduct. It is not to be wondered, if the Emperor, thus left alone, to oppoſe ſo powerful a confederacy, was in a manner driven out of Italy, and brought to the brink of ruin; which when Great Britain ſaw too late, ſhe augmented her forces by ſea and land, and invited the Dutch to do the ſame, to retrieve the falſe ſtep they had made, and give a check to the conqueſts of the confederates; but we find, the Dutch refuſed to put themſelves to the leaſt expence in arming themſelves; they left Great Britain the honour of diſobliging both parties, that they might make the better terms, I preſume, with the Kings of Spain and Naples, in point of trade: but here again, poſſibly, this crafty ſtate have over-reached themſelves; for both the French and the Emperor have been ſo much diſobliged by their High Mightineſſes, in ſeveral inſtances, that they will probably unite to expreſs their reſentment againſt a ſtate, that has had ſo little regard to both, and played ſuch a double game: for by an article from Antwerp, we learn, that the Emperor has declared, he intends to make his ſubjects, of the Auſtrian Netherlands, ample ſatisfaction for their loſs in the abolition of the Oſtend company, by a new tariff: and the French ſeem determined, at the ſame time, to put the Hollanders under very great difficulties in point of trade; having, in a manner, prohibited the importation of their merchandize in France: but what will affect them moſt ſenſibly, is a project, ſaid to be formed between the Emperor and France, for weakening their barrier, and laying them open to the attacks of their enemies.

1739. Great Britain entering into a war with Spain, and it being expected that the French would join the Spaniard, the honourable Horatio Walpole, was ſent over to Holland in the year 1739, to diſcover what aſſiſtance the Dutch were inclined to give the Engliſh, in caſe of a rupture with France; but it does not appear that any thing more than compliments paſſed between the Ambaſſador and that cautious State. On the contrary, they concluded a new treaty of commerce with France, in which they were pretty much favoured by the French court, in order to prevent their entering into too ſtrict an alliance with Great Britain. In the mean time their conduct in relation to the Prince of Orange, gave ſome uneaſineſs to the Britiſh Court, for they ſtill refuſed to reſtore that Prince to his rights in Zealand; jealous, that he might one day aſpire to ſucceed his anceſtors, in the office of Stadtholder; whereupon his Highneſs declared, that he would be content with receiving the revenues of his lordſhips in the province of Zealand, and wave his right to appoint magiſtrates, and elect deputies to repreſent that Province in the States General; but this reaſonable propoſition being rejected, he ordered his miniſter Mr Burmann, to break off the conferences, and to declare, that he would no more make them any propoſitions on his part, or hearken to any on theirs, but ſhould endeavour to preſerve his right to his marquiſates of Terveer, Fluſhing, &c. in it's full extent, in order to recover the ſame when time and opportunity ſhould ſerve. And the King of Pruſſia being guarantee of the Prince of Orange's ſucceſſion to the ſaid Marquiſates, and having ſome pretenſions to them himſelf, in caſe the Prince ſhould die without iſſue; demanded of the States, that they ſhould be reſtored to the Prince, but it does not appear that they have hitherto had any regard to the repreſentations of the one, or the other.

The King of Pruſſia eſpouſes the Pr. of Orange's cauſe.

The Dutch encroach on the Danes fiſheries.

The King of Denmark having prohibited all people, whether natives or foreigners, (except the Daniſh Greenland company) to fiſh upon the coaſt of Weſt Greenland, or Iceland, or within fifteen leagues of thoſe coaſts. The Dutch, notwithſtanding, continued to fiſh there as formerly; whereupon the Danes ſeized ſeveral Dutch ſhips, but were obliged to releaſe them again, on the States threatening to make repriſals; for whatever right any nation may pretend to the fiſheries on their coaſts, or to a monopoly in the trade of any diſtant country, if their neighbours happen to have a ſuperior force at ſea, they make no ſcruple of invading ſuch rights; inſiſting, that the ſea is free for all men, and that all nations are at liberty to trade with what people they pleaſe, if the inhabitants of the countries they trade to deſire it.

But ſurely, the Dutch with a very ill grace, inſiſt that the ſea is open to all men, and that it is lawful to viſit any country where the natives conſent to traffick with foreigners; when the Hollanders themſelves have monopolized the traffick of all thoſe countries in the Eaſt, where the fine ſpices grow, and will not ſuffer any people to traffick with the natives in that part of the world.

1740. The Spaniards take Dutch ſhips.

But however the Dutch thought fit to inſult the Danes, and fiſh upon their coaſts in Greenland and Iceland, notwithſtanding the prohibitation abovementioned, they ſeemed determined to obſerve an exact neutrality, in the war between Great Britai[illegible] Spain: The taking of their ſhips in E[illegible]r America, by the Spaniards, could not m[illegible]hem to expreſs their reſentment, any otherwiſe than by memorials and repreſentations to the court of Spain, in order to obtain redreſs, though they had not always juſtice done them. They apprehended, poſſibly, that if they gave Spain any provocation, they ſhould draw the reſentment of the French upon them, and endanger their being engaged in a war with thoſe two powers, which of all things in the world they dreaded moſt, as it would obſtruct that profitable traffick they carry on, while their neighbours are engaged in war, and might bring upon them an expence, of which they could ſee no end, if they engaged as principals in the quarrel. However, to render their State conſiderable, and give weight to their negotiations, they thought fit to augment their land forces, and fit out a ſquadron of men of war.

The Dutch augment their forces.

There was ſuch an extraordinary fog in Holland on the 22d of November this year, that it grew dark before ſun-ſet, and above fifty people loſt their way, and fell into the canals: but to proceed in their Modern Hiſtory.

1741. The King of Pruſſia threatens the Dutch.

The Dutch being under ſome apprehenſion of an invaſion by the King of Pruſſia, who is ſuppoſed to have been incited by France, to alarm the States on that ſide, and threaten their territories in caſe they entered into a confederacy with Great Britain. They thought fit to make a ſecond augmentation of their forces: the firſt pretence the King of Pruſſia made for invading the territories of Holland, was their erecting a ſluice in Guelderland, which he apprehended would occaſion ſome damage to his ſubjects in that province; he afterwards cauſed a memorial to be preſented to the States, laying claim to the cities of Nimeguen and Zutphen, but he was pleaſed to wave his pretenſions for the preſent, being engaged in a war with the Queen of Hungary.

The French Ambaſſador at the Hague, the Marquis of Fenelon, preſented a memorial to the States General about the ſame time, complaining, that in their News Papers was contained an abſtract of a pretended treaty between the French King, and the Duke of Bavaria, by which ſeveral places in Germany, and the Netherlands, were to be yielded to France, in caſe the Duke of Bavaria was advanced to the Imperial Throne, and the arms of the French met with ſucceſs; he aſſured their High Mightineſſes, that the pretended treaty was a mere forgery, and deſired they would ſuppreſs the paper which contained the calumny.

The States anſwered, that it was publiſhed entirely without their knowledge, and they really looked upon the pretended treaty as a forgery.

About the ſame time, the Dutch publiſhed the following account of a conſpiracy, and inſurrection of the Chineſe, againſt their colony at Batavia, in the iſland of Java; ſaid to be received from one of their officers reſiding at Batavia, which was of the following tenor (viz).

The maſſacre of the Chineſe at Batavia. The Dutch account of it.

I cannot but impart to you, the diſmal miſfortune we have lately met with, (viz) a conſpiracy among the Chineſe dwelling in and about this city (who were upwards of 90,000) to maſſacre every one of us Europeans, and make themſelves maſters of the iſland of Java.

Having with this intent, in bodies of 5 or 6000 men, for ſome time infeſted the Highlands, and committed great maſſacres, rapines, and deveſtations, by fire, ſword, &c. [illegible] cauſe of which we were not able to learn, [illegible]ans, and thoſe they had forced to aſſiſt them, were ſometimes taken thirty or forty together, and four or five hundred of them examined at once; whereupon two hundred, who could give no account how they ſubſiſted, were ſent to the iſland of Ceylon, and the reſt that could get their bread diſcharged: but this ſalutary precaution did not avail, the riots increaſed every day in the Highlands, till at laſt the government judged it expedient to ſend a detachment thither, for which purpoſe Meſſ. Van Imhoff and Van Aarden, were ſent out with eight hundred men, who having been ſome days in the Highlands gave them battle, routed and diſperſed them.

In the mean time the Chineſe dwelling in and about Batavia, had made all manner of preparations, providing themſelves with a ſufficient number of wooden cannons, and other warlike ſtores, and digging of mines under ground which they charged with powder; the treachery being now upon the point of execution, it pleaſed God to diſcover the whole affair to us, and that too by five Chineſe, who of their own accord came and acquainted the government with the ſcene of blood which their countrymen were preparing; whereupon all our guards and poſts were doubled, and all the clerks, and even firſt and ſecond ſupercargoes without exception, were obliged to mount guard completely armed in the caſtle, though the government did not apprehend the danger to be ſo great as it afterwards proved.

Matters remaining in this ſituation for two days, we had intelligence, on Saturday the 8th of October, that one of our advanced poſts near the iſland Onruſt, called Quale, had been ſurprized by the Chineſe, all the Europeans murdered, and every thing deſtroyed by fire; whereupon the government met, and ordered that no Chineſe ſhould open his door, appear in the ſtreets, nor burn a light in the night-time, and that the contraveners ſhould immediately be ſhot to death; ſtrong guards were alſo preſently poſted in all the ſtreets and bye-places.

Whilſt the government was yet aſſembled, in the evening about ſeven o' clock, the Chineſe ſet fire to the ſuburbs, near the gate of Utrecht, expecting we ſhould come with all hands to extinguiſh it, in which caſe, thoſe within would have ſallied from their habitations, and have made an end of us all together; but they were miſtaken, the gates being kept cloſe and well guarded.

Towards eight, the members of the government took, two by two, the guard of the gates upon themſelves, in order to execute in perſon, what commands and orders might be given.

At nine o' clock, the Chineſe to the number of forty or fifty thouſand, advanced with a terrible noiſe of drums, trumpets, baſſoons, and hideous ſhouts, in order to give their comrades in the city, a ſignal for the attack; but thoſe within ſeeing our good regulation and order, and that they were deprived of every opportunity to join their brethren kept themſelves very quiet, being ſeized with fear, and indeed had they ventured upon the matter, in combination with the reſt, we had all been deſtroyed, being little more than three thouſand fighting men.

Mean while the Chineſe that were about the city, continued their havock with fire and ſword, they ſurprized a guard of fifteen blacks without the gate of Utrecht, and likewiſe another without the Dies gate, all whom they murdered and deſtroyed: they alſo fell upon a guard of ſixty men near the new gate, but theſe defended themſelves ſo gallantly, that many Chineſe were killed, and the gate remained in our hands, it being within reach of our cannon, which plied them with good ſucceſs all that night; moreover we made a ſally with 160 men, both horſe and foot to relieve this poſt, and other Chriſtians inhabiting the outparts; we could not make a ſtronger ſally, having our ſworn enemies both within and without. Thus we ſpent the night with great courage, though not without danger, finding ourſelves in the midſt of our foes.

In the morning the Chineſe quitted the ſuburbs; whereupon the government met, and an order was iſſued to kill all the Chineſe except the women and children, there being no other remedy to ſecure us within, and to defend ourſelves againſt the multitude of enemies without. Accordingly the doors and houſes of the Chineſe were forced open with axes and engines, and all the men hauled out and maſſacred, their wives and children were all conveyed to the Chineſe hoſpital, mean time the ſtreets, rivulets, and moats, were ſoon filled with dead bodies, and in ſome places one might have been over the ankles in blood, ſo great was the ſlaughter. In the interim, ſome large guns were planted on the oppoſite ſide of the Roemolake, to play upon the Chineſe captain's houſe, where there were upwards of eight hundred Chineſe: When we had ſtormed it, about thirty women came from thence, on our promiſing to do them no hurt, the Chineſe captain being amongſt them, and hoping to eſcape in womens apparel, but being too well known, he was apprehended and ſent to the caſtle.

In the afternoon Meſſ. VAN IMHOFF and VAN AARDEN, returned with their men from the Highlands into the city. At the ſame time (being Sunday at two in the afternoon) the whole city was in flames, for the Chineſe, being in the utmoſt terror, ſet fire to their houſes and periſhed in the flames, and thoſe that came out of their doors were ſlain by our people.

This conflagration cauſed inexpreſſible confuſion, eſpecially amongſt the women, who fled in crouds to the caſtle, that part of the city where the Chineſe dwelt, being by this time almoſt reduced to aſhes; and there being upwards of ſix hundred Chineſe men confined in priſons, they were all put to death by the order of the government. During this confuſion, the money and goods of the Chineſe were plundered, and many greatly enriched by theſe roberies and murders, ſome of the ſeamen got nine or ten thouſand rixdollars (crowns) each man.

The Chineſe that eſcaped the ſlaughter fled to the mountains, where they deſtroyed every thing with fire and ſword, but were many of them killed by our people; in all this havock (ſays the writer) we have not loſt much above an hundred men. At preſent, there is a general pardon publiſhed for ſuch Chineſe as will ſubmit within a month, which ſeveral hundreds have already done; however, this pardon does not extend to their two chiefs, but, on the contrary, a reward is promiſed of 1000 dollars, to thoſe that bring them dead, and 5000 for taking them alive; for the inferior ſort, 200 dead, and 500 alive: this pardon expires the 22d of this month of November, ſo that all thoſe that do not ſurrender by that time, are to be outlawed.

By ſubſequent accounts, the Dutch pretended they had learnt, that the chief of this conſpiracy was a baſtard ſon of the late Emperor of China, who had been forced to fly that country ſeveral ſeveral years before, for attempting to ſtir up a rebellion, but that he pretended to be the lineal deſcendant and heir of the antient Imperial family of China, before it was conquered by the Tartars, by which pretence he engaged the Chineſe of Java to unite under him, and was ſtill in the mountains, at the head of a great number of men.

It was added, that the Chineſe quarter in Batavia, continued burning ſeveral days, and many of the miſerable inhabitants were found alive among the ruins, but put to death without mercy by the Dutch, as were all thoſe in the priſons, and hoſpitals; and that the riches that nation was found poſſeſſed of, is not to be expreſſed, many cheſts filled with gold, ſilver, and other treaſures, having been dug up, and all ſorts of merchandize found in caves and pits, dug on purpoſe to conceal them.

Another account of this maſſacre.

We have ſince received a more circumſtantial account of the ſlaughter of the Chineſe at Batavia, which ſets that action in a very different light, (viz.)

The Chineſe in Java are a colony which tranſported themſelves thither, rather than ſubmit to the Tartars, who conquered China about an hundred years ago, and required the natives to cut off their hair, and alter their habits to the Tartar mode.

The Chineſe have multiplied prodigiouſly ſince their arrival in Java, they were computed to amount to one hundred thouſand at leaſt, at the time of the late maſſacre; on whom the Dutch (who were maſters of that part of Java where the Chineſe reſided) levied a poll-tax annually, in conſideration of their wearing their hair, which the Tartars would not ſuffer them to do in China, and which was one principal reaſon of their removing from thence, and chuſing to remain in exile.

The Dutch alſo, by other taxes and impoſitions on the Chineſe, added very conſiderably to the revenues of their government at Batavia, for this colony ſtill carried on a great trade with their mother country, as well as with the continent of India and the Oriental iſlands, and were become immenſely rich, which the Dutch government of Batavia beheld with avaritious eyes, and at length found, or rather made, a pretence for murdering theſe unhappy people, and ſeizing their treaſure; whether the Chineſe were provoked by the oppreſſion of the Dutch, to murmur and endeavour to get their grievances redreſſed, or whether the plot was a mere invention of the State, does not appear: that the general or governor of Batavia ſent for Baron IMHOFF who commanded the ſoldiers of that garriſon, and acquainted him, the Chineſe were conſpiring againſt the government, and that their numbers were ſo formidable, that it was not practicable to proceed againſt them in the ordinary courts of juſtice, but a general maſſacre was become abſolutely neceſſary, to prevent the total deſtruction of Batavia, the capital of the Dutch Empire in Aſia, and conſequently, of that invaluable commerce they carried on in this part of the world; and thereupon, commanded the Baron to ſee his orders executed, and totally extirpate that dangerous colony of the Chineſe.

The Baron, however, before he would enter on this bloody ſcene, deſired to ſee the information and evidence of the conſpiracy on which the governor proceeded, but was told, there was no room to doubt of it, and he had nothing to do but to obey his orders; whereupon the Baron repreſented, that tho' ſome of the Chineſe might be in a plot, it could not be imagined the whole nation was concerned, and it would be barbarous to put the innocent to death with the guilty; and the governor ſtill refuſing to communicate the proofs of the conſpiracy to him, the Baron abſolutely refuſed to obey his orders, and retired; whereupon the governor aſſembled the council, and made ſuch a repreſentation of the Baron's diſobedience, that they concurred with him in an order, to apprehend Baron **IMHOFF**, and ſend him priſoner to Europe: after which the drums were ordered to beat to arms, and proclamation made through the Chineſe quarter, that none of that nation ſhould ſtir out of their houſes, which the Chineſe obeyed.

The next day, the drums were ordered to beat again, and the Chineſe commanded to deliver up their arms, which they ſubmitted to; and the night following, the Dutch garriſon was ordered to maſſacre all the Chineſe in the place; which was no ſooner began, than it occaſioned the moſt dreadful ſhrieks and out-cries: and whether the ſoldiery tortured the Chineſe, and put them to cruel deaths, to make them diſcover their treaſure; or from what other motive it proceeded, the Chineſe ſo dreaded the cruel butchery of the Dutch, that many of them ſtrangled themſelves, or cut their own and their childrens throats, fired their own houſes and periſhed in the flames; and either by their own, or the hands of their enemies, twenty or thirty thouſand of the Chineſe men, women, and children, loſt their lives in one night.

The Chineſe in other parts of the iſland, hearing of the diſtreſs of their brethren at Batavia, aſſembled and advanced to the gates of the town, to the number of five thouſand; but either they came too late, or found it impracticable to get into the place; however, this was deemed a manifeſt evidence of a plot of the Chineſe againſt the government, though if the ſtrength of the fortifications, the numerous garriſon of Europeans and Aſiaticks, the ſhips of war always in the harbour, and the defenceleſs condition of the Chineſe, are conſidered, it muſt appear impoſſible for them to have made themſelves maſters of Batavia. They had neither cannon, mortars, or ammunition to enable them to reduce a fortreſs of that ſtrength: but however that was, the Dutch governor was ſo well ſatisfied that he ſhould be able to juſtify his conduct to his maſters, that he determined to return to Europe, at the expiration of his government; and accordingly collected moſt of the treaſure he had acquired, by the plunder of the Chineſe, or otherwiſe, and ſent it on board ſome Dutch ſhips to Holland, where it was all caſt away on his native ſhore, in ſight of his countrymen.

Soon after the governor had ſent away his treaſure from Batavia to Holland, he embarked for Europe himſelf, and arrived at the Dutch ſettlement, at the Cape of Good-hope, in Africa; where the governor of that fortreſs reſigned the command to him, as is uſual in all the Dutch garriſons in Aſia, and Africk, when the General of Batavia arrives, who is veſted with ſovereign power, wherever he reſides in that part of the world, the commiſſions of all other governors and generals being ſuſpended. In the mean time, advice of this horrid maſſacre arriving in Europe, and ſeeming to be deteſted and ſeverely reflected on by every other nation; the Dutch, in order to remove the odium of it from themſelves as a nation, imputed it to the barbarous diſpoſition of that particular man, who was then General of Batavia; and ſent an order to the governor of the Cape of Good-hope, to apprehend him if he came home that way, and ſend him back priſoner to Batavia, to be tried for the fact.

This order coming to the Cape, at the time the General of Batavia was there, and while he had the command of the place, was delivered into his own hand, and had he opened it himſelf, might have been ſuppreſſed, but his evil genius ſeems to have had the aſcendant at this time, he did not care to be diſturbed as he lay indolently lolling on his couch, but put the packet, and with it the ſentence of his own death, into the hands of the governor of the Cape, deſiring him to withdraw and peruſe the contents: who finding an order in it to make the General priſoner, ſent immediately for a guard, and took him into cuſtody: it is eaſy to imagine the conſternation the wretch was in, on this turn of fortune; before this, and before he received advice of the loſs of his treaſure on the coaſt of Holland, he was confident he had it in his power to bribe his judges in Europe to acquit him; eſpecially as he was able to have made ſo ſpecious a defence, and ſhew he had the concurrence of a majority of the council of Batavia, in perpetrating the horrid fact; and could prove, there was an inſurrection of the Chineſe, in the open country, at the very time of the maſſacre: but now all his confidence in his immenſe riches, and in the tricks and evaſions he had prepared to amuſe the world, forſook him; he was ſent back bound to Batavia, where that very Baron **IMHOFF**, he had ſent priſoner to Europe, for refuſing to execute his bloody commands, was conſtituted General, and ordered to ſee juſtice done upon his predeceſſor.

The States divided on the propoſing a third augmentation of their troops.

But to return to Europe; we find the States of the United Provinces much divided, when a third augmentation of their troops was moved, thoſe who were againſt the motion, repreſented that by this augmentation, their national troops would amount to fourſcore thouſand men, a number ſo greatly ſuperior to what it was the intereſt of the Republick to maintain, that they believed no good patriot could be inſenſible of the danger ariſing from it; for how could they be ſure after conſenting to ſuch a motion, it would be in their power to make a reduction, without riſquing a change in the form of their government.

Indeed were the augmentation the effect of immediate danger, or neceſſity, there would be no room left for diſpute; the common ſafety would then unite all ſuffrages in it's favour. But it was plain the Republick had no enemies, but ſuch imaginary ones as were raiſed to terrify the populace into this meaſure. To do this, the moſt chimerical apprehenſions were raiſed; ſometimes the Queen of Hungary was ſaid to be reconciled to the King of Pruſſia, to induce them to arm in ſupport of that alliance; when this failed, that King was repreſented as a dangerous enemy, who being ſecretly inſtigated by France, was meditating projects prejudicial to her repoſe, though at the ſame time it was apparent to the world, that his Pruſſian Majeſty had not in all his territories, from Minden to the Maeſe, above five battalions, the garriſons of Weſel and Gelders included; and of theſe, during the preſent alarm, he had withdrawn two regiments: with reſpect to France, they were ſo far from having any cauſe of ſuſpicion, that they had rejected her propoſitions for ſecuring their barrier, and diſregarded the aſſurances ſhe ſeemed willing to give them as to her deſigns.

Notwithſtanding this, the popular fermentation was ſtill artfully kept up, by letters induſtriouſly ſpread, relating to the vaſt preparations of France through all her provinces: whereas that crown was ſo far from acting like a power inclined to diſturb it's neighbours, that though ſhe had ſent two armies into the Empire, *with views known to to all the world*; yet ſhe had made no addition to her cavalry: and this ſhe would certainly do, had ſhe the ſiniſter intentions imputed to her, for her ſquadrons were at preſent too thin to ſupport a war: her dragoons were alſo but half mounted, and of thoſe ſhe had ſent into Germany, the half had been left in the frontier towns for want of horſes: ſuch deficiencies proved at leaſt her deſigns not deep; ſo that ſhould they at laſt make the augmentation ſo much deſired, it might be imputed to their indiſcretion, and want of confidence.

And could it be believed, they ſhould eaſily reduce their troops, after ſo conſiderable an augmentation, without the hazard of a popular diſturbance; the party that was ſo zealous for the one, would probably be as violent againſt the other: deſigning men, who by popular influence had carried one point, would uſe the ſame means to extend their power; the favourers of the augmentation would keep up their credit and reputation with the people and the army, by preſerving the eſtabliſhment they had made; in altering which, the Republick might feel greater agitations than ſhe now did in making it: In that caſe, the attempting a change would probably throw the State into great convulſions; it was time the province of Zealand did make a reduction of her troops, but this was no precedent for them; the ſituation of that province, ſurrounded by the ſea, made her leſs need a land force; but the ſituation of Holland was different; the members of this province, who eſpouſed the augmentation, would be equally againſt a reduction; for thoſe who gain the aſcendancy over others, keep it by all poſſible artifices, of which the preſent caſe was a proof, to which might be added another.

How often had they been the dupes of England, who had made her advantages of the credulity of this State? It was evident ſome provinces had a particular view and intereſt, in the ſucceſs of this meaſure, and would have the ſame hereafter, in in keeping up the army, at it's higheſt complement.

They ought never to forget, what happened after the peace of Munſter, when the Republick came to diſband an army, neceſſary during a long war, the views of thoſe intereſted in it's ſupport drove things to fatal extremities; the worthy patriots of the province of Holland, who generally promoted a reduction, were ſeized by violence, and impriſoned in the caſtle of Louveſteyn; arbitrary power forced even patriots in the ſupreme councils of the Republick; Amſterdam was on the brink of a ſurprize, and the State was reſcued from impending ſlavery, only by the ſudden death of a young Prince, who employed the army entruſted to him by the Republick, to ſubvert it's freedom, and impriſon it's defenders.

It is to little purpoſe, to alledge that the caſe then was quite different, and that what happened then was the effect of heat or ambition in a young Prince: whereas the Republick having now no Stadtholder, runs no hazard: it was true there was no danger from a *reigning Stadtholder*, but was there none from a *meditated one?* civil commotions were never more to be dreaded, than when the humour of the populace, and the inclination of the army, united to give it's ſovereign power, where it was moſt dangerous it ſhould be placed.

In anſwer to this repreſentation, thoſe that were for the augmentation of their forces obſerved, that the preſent condition of their State was more dangerous, than it had been at any time ſince the peace of Utrecht; that it nearly concerned the Republick to be upon it's guard, while all it's neighbours were in arms, and that their High Mightineſſes were anſwerable to God and their poſterity, if they delayed the augmentation of their forces any longer, while ſuch numerous bodies of foreign troops, were aſſembling on their frontiers: the preſent augmentation would indeed increaſe their forces, much beyond the numbers neceſſary when Europe was in tranquillity, and no perſon would appear in behalf of ſuch a meaſure, but on account of it's abſolute neceſſity.

France had ſent two armies into the Empire, with views (as had been obſerved) *known to all the world*, (viz.) *the election of an Emperor, and the ruin of the houſe of* Auſtria; the firſt of theſe deſigns ſhe had accompliſhed, and was now intent on the execution of the other: the increaſe ſhe had made in her forces, left no room to ſuſpect, ſhe had ſtill undiſcovered ſchemes in view, which required extraordinary ſupport, for it was frivolous to aſcribe ſuch preparations to their declining the neutrality ſhe offered: an impartial obſerver muſt conclude, her conduct on this occaſion furniſhed juſt matter for diſtruſt; why ſhould France inſiſt on their ſitting ſtill, unleſs ſhe was afraid they would be in a poſture of defence, to defeat her deſigns, either againſt themſelves, or againſt thoſe countries, whoſe ſafety and independency was neceſſary to their own; namely, that barrier which had coſt them ſo much blood and treaſure: an impartial obſerver muſt ſee, that all the ſecret artifices, and open menaces, employed by that intriguing court, were only put in practice to amuſe them, till her blow was ſtruck, which would enſlave Europe, and leave them the poor conſolation of being the laſt conqueſt. Every ſtep taken by France to retard the augmentation, was a new motive to bring it to a ſpeedy concluſion.

The majority of the members of the Republick, were thoroughly convinced of the neceſſity, and importance, of the augmentation propoſed, and to decry it, becauſe it was a popular thing; as if whatever was popular, was extravagant or fooliſh, was very abſurd: for the voice of the people in all well regulated ſtates had been eſteemed ſacred; amongſt deſpotick Princes, thoſe who have been the moſt popular, have been the beſt, or leaſt exceptionable: It is only tyrants who throw off all regard for their ſubjects, witneſs the *oderint dum metuant* of a NERO; the more prevailing an opinion is among the people, the more it merits the attention of every well wiſher to the publick, and eſpecially in ſuch a form of government as theirs: nothing ſhould be ſo popular in Holland, as the deteſtation of ſlavery and perſecution, and conſequently a dread of all meaſures that had a tendency to introduce them; to watch over the publick ſafety, and by ſuch a vigilance to deſerve the confidence repoſed in them, was the duty of the ſupreme magiſtrates: their people to a man, were ready to contribute a part of what they had, to preſerve their property in the reſt; and warned by the example of their neighbours, they thought it neceſſary to be upon their guard, when they found it too common with Princes to regulate their conduct in the obſervation or violation of treaties, only by their intereſt and convenience. It was eaſy to anſwer the repreſentation, with regard to the two points chiefly inſiſted on therein; as to the firſt, it is plain the Republick in the beginning of this century (1700) greatly increaſed her forces, without any hazard to her liberty; as to the ſecond, at the peace of Utrecht, a reduction was made of thoſe troops, and in 1736 a further reduction was made, without the leaſt oppoſition or inconvenience, which was ſufficient to ſilence the chimerical objections of the other party: the impriſonment of the members at Louveſteyn in 1650, is taken notice of in the repreſentation indeed, but the writer is perfectly ſilent, as to the deſperate condition of the Republick, on a later occaſion (1672) for want of forces to defend herſelf.

The inſtance of a young ambitious Prince indeed is formidable, but the hazard of a ſudden invaſion is much more ſo.

What muſt they expect would be the conſequence of a mean diſpirited inactivity, in compliance with thoſe, who adviſed them to continue diſarmed, in the preſent embroiled ſtate of Europe.

What could be the intention of thoſe, who having no enemy but what was weaker than themſelves, ſtill continued to augment their troops, while, like good friends, they adviſed the United Provinces to neglect the preſervation of their liberties, and to continue in a defenceleſs ſtate, upon bare aſſurances conceived in dubious terms; the explication of which, as experience ſhewed, was left to themſelves.

The party for a third augmentation appearing to be a great majority, the French offered ('tis ſaid) to cauſe the barrier towns to be annexed to the United Provinces for ever, and guarantee'd by the Emperor, Spain, and Pruſſia, provided the States would conſent to a neutrality; but the Dutch appeared too honeſt, or too ſagacious, at this, time to liſten to the propoſal; on the contrary, they commanded thirty battalions, and fifty ſquadrons, to march out of their quarters and encamp on the 8th of July 1742; and the year following, they ſuffered twenty thouſand of their troops to march into Germany, but they did not join their allies till after the battle of Dettingen.

The Dutch exceeding ſlow in their motions. Their uſage of the Pr. of Orange.

The reaſon ſome of the provinces oppoſed theſe meaſures, was, becauſe the Prince of Orange was refuſed the poſt of General, which they apprehended him intituled to, the refuſal whereof ſeems to have been deeply reſented by the Prince himſelf, as appears by the following letter.

High and Mighty Lords,

‘I Am informed that your High Mightineſſes in your laſt promotion made not long ago, have named me a Lieutenant-General, after having deliberated often on this ſubject, tho' to no purpoſe, within theſe few years, your reſolutions being deferred, or ſuſpended at leaſt, for reaſons well enough known to all the world, and which conſequently could not be hid from me, even if I had no direct information from the deputies of more than one province, which compoſe your High Mightineſſes aſſembly. After mature deliberation, I am determined not to accept the poſt your High Mightineſſes now offer me, becauſe in 1727 it was judged inferior to the dignity of Captain-General of three Provinces, with which I have the honour to be already inveſted.

‘All the world knows in what light my anceſtors, and the princes of my family ſtood, who enjoyed the poſt of Captain-General of the Provinces. The hiſtory of theſe Provinces, and the regiſter of your High Mightineſſes, atteſt this, and your High Mightineſſes cannot therefore be ignorant, that by excluding me from the rank of General, you have made it impoſſible for me to ſerve in the combined armies of the States, out of the territories of thoſe provinces of which I have the honour to be Captain-General, without manifeſtly expoſing that dignity to contempt, which I hope, with the divine aſſiſtance, to raiſe in time to all it's rights, in ſpight of the endeavours of ſuch as, from perſonal views, are inclined to ſacrifice the majeſty and prerogatives of their provinces, by degrading a character to the pre-eminence and luſtre of which they are bound in duty to contribute.

‘I ſhall not enter into a detail of the other motives which have led me to that reſolution, with which I have now the honour to acquaint your High Mightineſſes.

‘The long deliberations of your High Mightineſſes on this promotion, are ſufficient to convince any man who judges without partiality, and who is appriſed of the true cauſe of ſuch delays; that at leaſt, the reaſons alledged by ſuch as were for my election, appear to be ſuch as merited the moſt ſerious attention.

‘I have been compelled by force, to loſe a part of my eſtate, and to ſuffer the taking away from me a very conſiderable part of the inheritance of my anceſtors, notwithſtanding an age and half's uninterrupted poſſeſſion. The uſage I met with in the buſineſs of Terveer and Fluſhing, the interdicting the ordinary methods of juſtice, contrary to the antient privileges of the provinces, and againſt the fundamental principles of the Union, ought to have prepared me for all that has happened ſince; but though I could not defend my eſtates, it ſtill depends upon me, and my inſtructions make it my duty, to preſerve the honour and luſtre of my charges, wherein the pre-eminence and liberties of thoſe provinces principally conſiſt, in whoſe name I have the honour to execute theſe offices.

‘The great number of generals, of a rank ſuperior to that which your High Mightineſſes have aſſigned me, as well as the clauſe for compleating the number, even from ſtrangers, in caſe one or more of thoſe by you appointed ſhould refuſe to ſerve, make your firm reſolution to poſtpone my advancement ſufficiently known, and leave me very little reaſon to hope, that your High Mightineſſes continuing in theſe ſentiments will either make uſe of my ſervices, or put it in my power to be more uſeful to you hereafter than I can be at preſent, and this it is that gives me the moſt pain.

‘I moſt ſincerely wiſh, that the foreign officers your High Mightineſſes ſhall take into your ſervice, as they will undoubtedly ſurpaſs me in capacity, may equal me alſo in my love and zeal for the State, for which I am always ready, ac-

'cording to the example left me by my anceſtors, 'to ſacrifice the laſt drop of my blood, whenever 'it's circumſtances ſhall require it.

'I am, &c.

Loo,
7 Oct. 1742.
'The Prince of Orange and Naſſau.'

The Dutch forces continue to loiter in the rear of the army.

To return to the Dutch forces, which marched into Germany in the campaign of 1743; after the battle of Dettingen, they followed the Britiſh and Auſtrian forces at ſome diſtance, during the remainder of the campaign; the French ſeem to have been well aſſured they had little to fear from them, or they durſt not have detached ſo many of their troops from the Palatinate, to oppoſe the paſſage of Prince CHARLES's army over the Rhine into Alſace: and indeed it ſeems pretty evident, that even the Britiſh forces had no intention of attacking the French, after they retired out of the Palatinate, into their own territories beyond the Quiech, and conſequently the French were left at liberty with their whole force, almoſt to oppoſe the paſſage of Prince CHARLES over the Rhine: but ſurely the Britiſh or rather Hanoverian Generals were a little too ſqueamiſh, when they ſcrupled falling upon the French in their own territories, after they had been ſo furiouſly attacked by the French at Dettingen; it is generally held, to have been an unpardonable neglect, that they did not follow their blow, when the French retreated, and that they did not afterwards keep Marſhal NOAILLES in play, till Prince CHARLES had penetrated into Lorraine, or Alſace at leaſt; but ſome of our Admirals have not had leſs complaiſance for the French than our Generals, ſuch opportunities have been loſt, of deſtroying the naval forces of the French and Spaniards, as are not to be expected every day; nor is the matter likely to be much mended, if the Dutch ſhould join the Britiſh fleet with a ſquadron of men of war, their Admirals inſtructions will probably be clogged with ſuch limitations and reſerves, as will render the beſt concerted enterprizes abortive.

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE SWITZERLAND.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the ſituation and extent of Switzerland, of the air and climate; and of it's mountains, rivers, lakes, ſprings, and woods.

CHAP. I.

CHAP. I.

The ſituation and extent of Switzerland.

SWITZERLAND, ſtiled by the Romans *Helvetia*, as it is ſtill by the Italians, if we include the country of the Griſons and their other allies, is bounded by that part of Alſace called the Suntgaw, the Black Foreſt, and part of the circle of Suabia, towards the north; by the county of Tyrol on the eaſt; by the duchies of Savoy and Milan, and the provinces of Bergamo and Breſcia in Italy, towards the ſouth; and by the county of Burgundy or Franche Compte in France towards the weſt: extending in length from eaſt to weſt about two hundred and ſixty miles, and in breadth from north to ſouth upwards of an hundred miles, there being ſome parts of Italy and Gaul annexed to it, which were not incluced in the antient Helvetia.

The air and climate.

This country lying between the latitude of forty-five degrees, forty-five minutes, and forty-ſeven degrees thirty minutes, might reaſonably be expected to be moderately warm; but their mountains being the higheſt in Europe, and great part of the year covered with ſnow, occaſions a ſharper air than is found in much colder latitudes: however, the honourable Mr STANYAN, who reſided ſeveral years in this country with a publick character, aſſures us, he met with ſome ſummers ſo warm, that the heat was very inconvenient; but then the weather is ſubject to frequent changes, and paſſes from hot to cold in a day's time. The Alps, he adds, were the occaſion of frequent rains; and as rain in the flat country is uſually ſnow upon the mountains, the air becomes exceeding cold whenever they have a laſting ſhower. But tho' the air be moiſt, it is notwithſtanding healthful, and the people live to a good old age; malignant diſtempers, which in other parts of the world depopulate whole cities, being ſeldom known in this country: what they are moſt afflicted with, are wens or ſwelled throats, which disfigure them extremely, and are ſuppoſed to proceed from their drinking ſnow-water.

The face of the country. Their mountains.

As Switzerland is ſeparated from every other country by prodigious mountains, ſo is every Canton almoſt divided from another by a ridge of hills; from Italy it is divided by a long chain of hills, called the Alps, which, tho' exceeding high, and during the winter covered with ſnow, are not naked and barren, but in the ſummer afford good paſture to the very tops; and in ſome places are ſeen fields of corn, on a precipice where one would imagine it impoſſible for a plough to go. The reſt of the country, ſays the ſame honourable writer, is rather hilly than mountainous, and in ſome places we meet with a plain champain country: two thirds of the Canton of Bern particularly, is a plain fruitful country, abounding in good corn. The Cantons of Zurich, Soleure, and Friburg, with Bazil and Schaffhauſen, alſo are pretty much upon a level, and produce good grain, though it be for the moſt part a rocky ſoil, which requires a deal of good huſbandry to produce a crop.

Their rivers, lakes, and ſprings.

The ſource of many great rivers are found in or near this country, from whence it is generally concluded to be the higheſt land in Europe; particularly the Rhine, the Rhone, the Danube, the Adda, the Ticino, the Lintz, the Aar, the Ruſs, the Inn, and innumerable other leſſer ſtreams; not a valley but is watered by a rivulet. There are alſo a great number of noble lakes; my author ſays, he reckoned up above thirty, whereof ſome might deſerve the name of ſeas, particularly thoſe of Conſtance and Geneva, being near ſixty miles in length, and twelve in breadth; and thoſe of Neufchattel, Zurich, and Lucerne, almoſt of equal magnitude; and beſides the lakes in the vallies, there is one on the top of every mountain almoſt; in ſhort, there is not an inland country in Europe ſo well ſupplied with water, and particularly with ſprings, the beſt and pureſt in the kind that can be taſted, by which means the huſbandman may flow his grounds as often as he pleaſes.

Woods.

There are alſo all over the country, as well on the hills as in the vallies, abundance of fine woods; here you may ſee whole foreſts of pine and fir-trees, which if they lay nearer the ſea, would be ineſtimable. There are alſo ſome groves of oaks and elms, but deal is moſt generally uſed both for building and firing, there being no great plenty of the other.

CHAP. II.

Treats of the nature and produce of the ſoil, and of their plants and animals.

The nature and produce of the ſoil.

THE mountains of Switzerland are not barren, as has been obſerved already, but afford good paſture, on which they feed great herds of cattle: there is alſo on the mountains ſome arable land, but more in the vallies, which ſeem to be a hard ſtrong ſoil, much worſe than the hills, and require all the huſbandman's care and ſkill to raiſe a crop. My author obſerves, that if the Switzers were not the beſt huſbandmen in Europe, many of their vallies would ſcarce bear any thing; and as it is, the cold tempeſtuous ſeaſons about harveſt frequently deſtroy all the fruits of their labour. In the Cantons of Lucerne, Ury, Switz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, they have not corn enough for the ſubſiſtence of the natives, and in ſome of them none at all: And tho' the ſurplus which the other Cantons produce might ſupply them if it came to maturity; yet the mountains which ſurround them, ſays my author, are ſuch magazines of hail, rain, and tempeſts, that the fruits of the earth are frequently blaſted by ſtorms, or killed by cold rains, and ſometimes they loſe their harveſt entirely: for which reaſon the Switzers in plentiful years lay up their corn in magazines, to prevent a famine among the common people in times of dearth.

Switzerland alſo produces wine of ſeveral ſorts, of which two are preferred above the reſt: the firſt is white, produced in the Pais de Vaud, upon the banks of the lake of Geneva; and the ſecond, which is red, grows in the county of Neufchattel: the white is good table-wine, and the red has ſomething of the reliſh of Burgundy, but is inferior to it. The wine alſo which is made in the Cantons of Zurich, Schaffhauſen, and ſome other places, is admired by the natives, but not very agreeable to foreigners, being almoſt as four as vinegar: the ſame misfortune frequently happens to their vines as to their corn-fields, the vintage being often ſpoiled by unſeaſonable weather. The timber which grows in this country, as has been intimated already, is chiefly fir and pine, with ſome oak and elm; travellers do not mention any other.

Animals. The Switzers abound in good cattle of all kinds; they have not only ſufficient for their own uſe, but drive a great trade with them in the neighbouring countries, eſpecially with their horſes. Veniſon they have in abundance, and are well furniſhed alſo with all manner of fowl, both wild and tame: their wild-fowl, well as their veniſon, is obſerved to have a more delicious taſte than in countries of a lower ſituation. Beſides deer, they have wild hogs, and goats of various kinds, particularly bouquetins and chamois, which they reckon among their veniſon; and it is of the ſkin of the chamois that the ſhammy-leather is made.

Their lakes alſo abound in excellent fiſh, particularly trouts of an extraordinary ſize; it is not uncommon to take them of ſixty pounds weight, and the larger they are, the ſweeter and firmer is their fleſh; they have ſuch plenty of theſe and other fiſh, that they ſell great quantities of them.

Minerals. It is ſaid there are ſome veins of ſilver, lead, iron, and copper in their mountains; but I don't find any of them are wrought, or that they receive any benefit from them. They have alſo plenty of black marble with white veins and ſpots in it; and great quantities of cryſtal on the tops of the mountains and ſides of the rocks, being of two kinds, the one clear and tranſparent, and the other pale and cloudy: and in the Valais they meet with a kind of bituminous coal.

CHAP. III.

Treats of the reſpective Provinces, or Cantons; and of their chief towns and buildings publick and private.

Provinces.

SWITZERLAND may be divided into three parts, viz. 1. Switzerland Proper, or the thirteen cantons. 2. The ſubjects of Switzerland, or the conquered countries. And, 3. the allies of Switzerland. The thirteen Cantons, according to their precedency are, 1. Zurich. 2. Bern. 3. Lucerne. 4. Ury. 5. Switz. 6. Underwald. 7. Zug. 8. Glaris. 9. Bazil, or Baſle. 10. Friburg. 11. Soluthurn. 12. Schaffhauſen. And, 13. Appenzel. Of which the Proteſtant Cantons are Zurich, Bern, Bazil, and Schaffhauſen, with above two thirds of the Canton of Glaris, and more than half of Appenzel; the reſt are all Roman Catholicks.

Zurich Canton.

1. The Canton of Zurich, is bounded by Schaffhauſen on the north; by the Canton of Appenzel towards the eaſt; by the Cantons of Zug and Switz on the ſouth; and by Bern and Lucerne towards the weſt: extending about fifty miles in length from north to ſouth, and forty miles in breadth from eaſt to weſt: and is of a round, or rather oval form; and tho' it be not half ſo large as that of Bern, is looked upon as richer in proportion to it's territory: for here the people apply themſelves more to trade, and have eſtabliſhed ſeveral beneficial manufactures. Zurich is divided into twenty-four bailliages, thirteen whereof are ſo inconſiderable, that the Bailiffs or chief officers uſually reſide in the capital city of Zurich, where they diſpatch the buſineſs of their reſpective diſtricts in their own houſes. Two others of theſe bailliages, named Stein and Winterthur, have ſuch large privileges, that they are almoſt independent of the Canton; the people being governed by their peculiar laws and magiſtrates, and the government only ſends an officer every year to receive the revenues payable to the State. The remaining nine bailliages are of a large extent, and ſo conſiderable as to require the conſtant reſidence of their Bailiffs, whoſe offices afford them handſome perquiſites.

Chief towns. The chief towns in the Canton of Zurich, are, 1. Zurich, the capital city. 2. Kiburg. 3. Gruningen. 4. Lauffen. 5. Rufy. 6. Wadiſchweil. 7. Andelfinger. 8. Griffeuree. 9. Ktingenew. 10. Egliſow. 11. Regenſburg. And, 12. Stafen.

Zurich city.

1. Zurich, ſituate at the north end of the lake of that name, in forty-ſeven degrees, thirty minutes north latitude, about ſixteen miles ſouth of the frontiers of Germany. It is divided into two unequal parts by the river Limagus, having a communication by three bridges. The town is ſmall, but populous, and ſurrounded with a wall, and other modern fortifications. Their publick buildings, eſpecially their churches, make a tolerable figure, and their private houſes are ſome of them lofty ſtructures, tho' the materials are generally clay and timber, and their ſtreets but narrow. It is a very antient city, ſuppoſed to have been the capital of the *Tigurini*, one of the four

Helvetian people, and was enlarged and beautified by **CHARLEMAGNE**, who built the great church, where his ſtatue is ſtill preſerved. The library and the arſenal are taken notice of by travellers, as worth the viewing. The adjacent country produces corn and grapes, but their wine is not good. **ZUINGLIUS**, who was Canon of the great church, introduced the Reformation here. The adjoining lake is four and twenty miles long, and three broad, the water of it green, but not brackiſh, the colour ſuppoſed to be occaſioned by the melted ſnow which falls from the mountains, and contains a nitrous ſalt. The principal manufacture of the place is crape, and the people generally apply themſelves to trade, having the convenience of exporting and importing merchandize on the lake, which hath a communication with the Rhine. The reſt of the towns of this Canton do not require a particular deſcription.

Bern Canton.

2. The Canton of Bern is bounded by that of Bazil and Soluthurn towards the north; by Lucerne, Underwald, and Soleure, on the eaſt; by the lake of Geneva towards the ſouth; and by Neufchattel and Burgundy or Franche Compte towards the weſt: extending an hundred and twenty miles in length, and ſixty in breadth, and ſome give it much larger dimenſions; however, it is generally agreed to make near a third part of Switzerland, and to be the moſt fruitful of any of the Cantons, as well as the moſt powerful. It is uſually divided into two parts: the one called the German country, and the other the Roman, or French, diſtinguiſhed by the different languages they uſe. The French part is named the *Pais de Vaud*, the pleaſanteſt, but not the moſt fruitful, taken from the Duke of Savoy in the year 1536. The whole Canton is divided into ſeventy-two bailliages, governed by as many Bailiffs, who are members of the council of two hundred at Bern, and changed every ſix years. There are in this Canton many conſiderable cities and towns, whereas in moſt of the ſmall Cantons there is no town at all, and in the reſt ſcarce more than one of any conſequence.

Chief towns.

The chief towns of the Canton of Bern are, 1. Bern, the capital. 2. Lauſanne. 3. Thun. 4. Arberg. 5. Vangen. 6. Lanſburg. 7. Erlach. 8. La Serre. 9. Bruk. 10. Nion. 11. Sana. 12. Aubone. 13. Brientz. 14. Walen. and, 15. Yverdon.

Bern city.

Bern ſtands in a peninſula, being encompaſſed on three ſides by the river Ada; in forty-ſeven degrees of north latitude, forty miles ſouth of Bazil, and about as much weſt of Lucerne. It ſtands on a riſing ground, moſt of the houſes are of free-ſtone, and it is a mile in length, conſiſting chiefly of three broad ſtreets, through which run as many clear rivulets, and moſt of the houſes have a piazza before them. The great church, the town-houſe, and the arſenal, are ſaid to be noble ſtructures; and the whole is defended by a wall and fortifications after the modern way.

Lauſanne.

2. Lauſanne, the capital of the *Pais Roman*, or the country of Vaud, is ſituate on three hills, near the north ſide of the lake of Geneva, forty miles ſouth-weſt of Bern, and thirty north-eaſt of Geneva, which is frequently therefore called the lake of Lauſanne. The town was formerly an Imperial city, but has been ſubject to the Canton of Bern ſince the year 1536. It was alſo a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Beſançon; but upon falling into the hands of the Proteſtants, the See was removed to Friburg. Of the other towns of this Canton I meet with no particular deſcription.

Lucerne Canton.

3. The Canton of Lucerne is bounded by Soleure on the north; by Zurich, Zug, and Underwald, towards the eaſt; and by the Canton of Bern on the ſouth and weſt; being about fifty miles in length from north to ſouth, and thirty in breadth from eaſt to weſt. This is one of the chief of the Roman Catholick Cantons; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Lucerne. 2. Sempech. 3. Surſee. 4. Rot. 5. Sualhuſen. 6. Wiken. 7. Williſow. 8. Hotburg.

Lucerne city.

The city of Lucerne is ſituate on a lake of the ſame name, at the mouth of the river Ruſs, about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Zurich, and forty to the eaſtward of Bern. It lies in a plain, and is encompaſſed with mountains on two ſides; a neat elegant town, with a ſpacious market-place, and ſurrounded by a wall and other fortifications. The town-houſe and Jeſuits college are magnificent ſtructures; and here the Pope's Nuncio and the Spaniſh Ambaſſador uſually chuſe to make their reſidence. The neighbouring lake is about twenty miles in length, and ſeven or eight broad, and it hath a communication with the Rhine by the river Ruſs. The other towns of this Canton don't ſeem to merit a deſcription.

Ury Canton.

4. The Canton of Ury is bounded by Switz on the north; by Glaris and the country of the Griſons on the eaſt; by Underwald towards the ſouth; and by the Canton of Bern on the weſt. This Canton conſiſts but of one valley, extending from Altorf to the foot of mount St Goddard, through which the river Ruſs takes it's courſe, and frequently overflows great part of it. The country produces no wine, and but little corn: the neighbouring mountains however furniſh them with paſture for great numbers of Cattle, by the ſale whereof they are able to purchaſe both corn and wine. There is but one bailliage belongs to this country, and that a poor one; but being a great thorough-fare for merchandize between Switzerland and Italy, they raiſe money by the duties on goods which paſs through their country. There is not one walled town in this Canton; the moſt conſiderable village is Altorf, near the river Ruſs and the lake Lucerne, where the courts of juſtice for the Canton are held.

Switz Canton.

5. The Canton of Switz is bounded by Zurich and Zug on the north; by the Canton of Glaris on the eaſt and ſouth; and by Lucerne and Underwald towards the weſt; extending about five and thirty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and five and twenty in breadth from north to ſouth. It is very mountainous, having only three narrow vallies, which yield little corn, and no wine; and there are only three poor bailliages belonging to it: It does however give name to the whole country, being the firſt Canton, it is ſaid, that took arms to defend their liberties. They have no walled towns, their principal village Switz lies on the banks of the river Meuſe, near the lake of Lucerne.

Underwald.

6. The Canton of Underwald is bounded by Switz and Lucerne on the north; by Ury on the eaſt; and by another part of Lucerne on the ſouth and weſt; extending about five and twenty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and as far in breadth from north to ſouth. This Canton is very mountainous, and the ſoil no better than that of Switz: There is not one bailliage in it, and but eight good villages.

Zug.

7. The Canton of Zug is about eighteen miles

long and ſeven broad, and ſurrounded by thoſe of Lucerne, Zurich, and Switz. This is much more fruitful than the Cantons laſt deſcribed, yielding corn and wine ſufficient for the inhabitants, and contains ſix bailliages, though none of the richeſt. The village of Zug, the moſt deſirable place in the little Cantons, ſtands on a hill, on the eaſt ſide of the lake of Zug, which is about ſeven miles long.

Glaris.

8. The Canton of Glaris is bounded by the valley of Lintz on the north; by the country of the Griſons on the eaſt and ſouth; and the Cantons of Ury and Switz towards the weſt; extending about twenty miles in length from north to ſouth, and is near as much in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It conſiſts of one large valley, which yields them a ſufficient quantity of corn, as their mountains do of paſture for their cattle: but as to other neceſſaries, the inhabitants are forced to purchaſe them of their neighbours. There is one good bailliage in it, and by a treaty of comburgerſhip, it is coarbitrator, in conjunction with the Canton of Switz, of all differences which ariſe between the Abbot of St Gall, and his ſubjects of Tockenburg.

Bazil.

9. The Canton of Bazil is bounded by the circle of Suabia in Germany on the north and eaſt; by the Canton of Soluthurn on the ſouth, and by part of Alſatia on the weſt, being twenty miles in length and eighteen in breadth, and contains five bailliages. This Canton having ſo ſmall extent of territory, the natives have applied themſelves wholly to trade, by which they are grown rich. They were formerly ſubject to their Biſhop, who upon the Reformation was driven from Bazil, and deprived of his authority in great part of the Canton, but ſtill retains his ſovereignty in ſome places, and is a Prince of the Empire. He uſually reſides with his Chapter at Porentru, from whence the Proteſtants call him the Biſhop of Porentru; the Catholicks, however, ſtill ſtile him Biſhop of Bazil. The country he remains poſſeſſed of lies to the ſouthward of Alſace, between Franche Compte and the Canton of Soleure; the inhabitants whereof are veſted with ſuch privileges, that he hath little more than the name of Sovereign, and the liberty of collecting his revenues; for they are not only governed by their own laws and magiſtrates, but claim a right of contracting alliances with other powers for their protection; in purſuance whereof his Proteſtant ſubjects are in a confederacy with the Canton of Bern, and under it's immediate protection; of which my author ſays he ſaw an inſtance in the year 1706, when the Biſhop endeavoured to introduce ſome innovations, in order to enlarge his authority: for the people of Munſter complaining thereof to the Canton of Bern, procured a body of four thouſand of their troops to march to their aſſiſtance, who reinſtated them in their former rights, in oppoſition to the Biſhop, and then returned home. And this is very common, he obſerves, as well as neceſſary in Switzerland; for if the Proteſtant ſubjects of the Roman Catholick Princes or Biſhops were left to their diſcretion, they muſt not expect long to enjoy either their religion or liberties.

The chief towns of this Canton are, 1. Bazil, or Baſle. 2. Valtenberg, or Waltenberg. And, 3. Homburg.

Bazil city.

Bazil, or Baſle, the moſt beautiful city of Switzerland, is ſituate on the river Rhine, near ſixty miles to the ſouthward of Straſburg, and three miles ſouth of the fortreſs of Hunningen, in the latitude of forty-ſeven degrees, forty minutes. It is divided by the Rhine into two parts, joined by a noble ſtone bridge of fourteen arches. The town is large, the ſtreets wide and clean, and their ſquares ſpacious, adorned with no leſs than three hundred fountains; their publick and private buildings magnificent, and generally built of ſtone. The church of St Mary, which was the cathedral when the Roman Catholicks were in poſſeſſion of it, is a ſtately pile; and the town-hall and arſenal admired by travellers. Here is alſo a flouriſhing univerſity, wherein are ſeventeen Profeſſors, viz. in Divinity, Law, and Phyſick, three of each; and in Philoſophy and other ſciences, eight more. Erasmus ſpent the latter part of his life here, dying in the year 1536, in the ſeventy-firſt year of his age, having founded a college for twenty ſtudents in divinity. He was interred in the great church of St Mary's, where he hath a marble monument on the north ſide of the communion-table, and his library is kept in this church. They claim the invention of making paper, and aſſure us that printing was introduced among them in the year 1478. Trade flouriſhes here as much as in moſt cities in Switzerland, and there are ſeveral wealthy merchants in the place, it lying near the frontiers of Germany and France, and having the conveniency of the Rhine to facilitate their importations and exportations.

Friburg Canton.

10. The Canton of Friburg is almoſt ſurrounded by that of Bern, and is about twenty-five miles in length and twenty in breadth, containing fifteen bailliages. This Canton produces corn enough, but no wine. The chief towns are Friburg, Eſtavaye, and Gryers or Gruyeres.

Friburg city.

The city of Friburg is ſituate on a hill, almoſt ſurrounded by the river Sana, in a pleaſant country, ſixteen miles ſouth-weſt of Bern. The place is ſurrounded by a wall and other fortifications; and beſides the cathedral, travellers take particular notice of a fine piazza, and a noble publick fountain. The Biſhop of Lauſanne hath his reſidence here.

Soluthurn Canton.

11. The Canton of Soluthurn, or Soleure, is bounded by that of Bazil, and part of Alſace towards the north; by the Canton of Bern on the eaſt and ſouth; and by the biſhoprick of Bazil on the weſt; being about twelve miles in length, and ten in breadth. This Canton affords plenty of bread-corn, but no wine, and contains ten bailliages. The chief towns are Soluthurn or Soleure, Olten, and Golgen.

Soluthurn city.

Soulthurn, or Soleure, is pleaſantly ſituated in a fruitful valley, upon the river Aar, about twenty miles to the northward of Bern. It is defended by a wall and other fortifications, and is tolerably well built. Here the French Ambaſſador uſually reſides.

Schaffhauſen.

12. The Canton of Schaffhauſen is bounded by Suabia in Germany on the north, eaſt, and weſt; and by the Canton of Zurich on the ſouth; being about twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth, and is well ſupplied with the neceſſaries of life, eſpecially fiſh, of which they have greater plenty than moſt of their neighbours; the chief towns whereof are Schaffhauſen, Herblingen, Newkilch, and Halaw.

Schaffhauſen city.

The city of Schaffhauſen is eſteemed the fineſt town in Switzerland next to Bazil, it is ſituate on the Rhine, about twenty-five miles north of Zurich, and as many to the weſtward of Conſtance.

ſtance. The ſtreets are broad, and the houſes built of ſtone, generally painted on the outſide, as in many other towns of Switzerland. All veſſels being obliged to unload here, on occaſion of the neighbouring cataracts of the Rhine, it is become a place of good trade.

Appenzel.

13. The laſt Canton, ſays my author, both in rank and goodneſs, is that of Appenzel, conſiſting of one large barren valley: it is bounded by the country of St Gall towards the north, by the Rhintal on the eaſt; by the country of Griſons on the ſouth; and by Togenberg on the weſt; being about twenty miles over either way. The inhabitants live chiefly upon milk and cheeſe, and are eſteemed the moſt clowniſh people of Switzerland; they enjoy ſo ſmall a ſhare of the comforts of life at home, that the better ſort endeavour to get into ſome foreign ſervice. It is ſaid to have obtained it's name from an Abbot's cell, built where Appenzel now ſtands, being called in Latin, *Abbatis Cella.* The chief place is Appenzel, which is rather an open village than a town, about thirty miles to the ſouthward of Conſtance.

The Subjects of Switzerland.

The ſubjects of Switzerland.

THE ſubjects of Switzerland are ſuch countries, towns, and bailliages, as belong to them all, or to ſeveral of them in common, having been conquered by their united arms. The common bailliages are nine, viz. the county of Baden, the Free Villages, the counties of Turgovy, Sargantz, and Rhintal, and the four Italian bailliages of Lugano, Locarno, Mendriſio, and Valmadia, to which we muſt add the three cities without territory, viz. Bremgarten, Mellingen, and Rapperſweil.

Baden county.

The county of Baden hath the Rhine on the north and weſt, and the Canton of Zurich on the ſouth, being as large as ſome of the little Cantons, and of a much more fruitful ſoil; and formerly belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, but the ſeven old Cantons made a conqueſt of it in the year 1415.

Baden city.

Baden, the capital city, ſo named from it's baths, lies on the river Limath, about fourteen miles north-weſt of Zurich, and ſix to the ſouthward of the Rhine. It is one of the antienteſt towns in Switzerland, and the place of their general Diets, and uſually called Upper Baden, to diſtinguiſh it from Lower Baden in Germany.

The free villages.

The Free Ambter, or Free Villages, is a ſmall diſtrict, which formerly went under the name of the county of Roer, and was conquered by the ſeven old Cantons at the ſame time that Baden was conquered. There is no great town in this diſtrict, the principal place is Mayenburg near the river Ruſs. They were denominated free on account of the liberty given them to chuſe their own magiſtrates. The natives are all of them Roman Catholicks.

The Turgow.

The county of Turgovy, or Turgow, is bounded by the Rhine and the lake of Conſtance on the north and eaſt; by the country of the Griſons towards the ſouth; and by the Canton of Zurich on the weſt; being about forty miles long, and thirty broad, and contains fifty pariſhes. It was taken from the houſe of Auſtria by the ſeven old Cantons at the ſame time as Baden was conquered by them. The inhabitants are moſt of them Proteſtants. The chief towns are, 1. Frawenfield. 2. Weil. 3. Biſhop's Cell. 4. Arbor Felix. And, 5. Diſſenhove.

Frawenfield.
Weil.

1. Frawenfield, the capital, is ſituate on the river Marck, about ten miles ſouth-weſt of Conſtance. 2. Weil, a ſmall city, with a beautiful caſtle, the reſidence of the Abbot of St Gall, ſituate about ten miles north-weſt of St Gall. Altho' the ſeven old Cantons, or, as ſome ſay, ten Cantons, have the ſupreme juriſdiction in the Turgow, yet the clergy and nobility have inferior juriſdictions in many places. The Biſhop and Chapter of Conſtance alſo have a juriſdiction in ſeveral parts of the country, as the Abbot of St Gall hath in other parts of it; and there are eight monaſteries, to which ſome others are ſubject, but all however under the protection of the Switzers.

Sargantz.

The county of Sargantz is ſituate on the frontiers of the Griſons, of no great extent or revenue. The chief towns are, 1. Sargantz. 2. Wallenſtat. 3. Rugatz. and, 4. Pfevers. The county was purchaſed by the ſeven old Cantons of the laſt Count, anno 1483.

The town of Sargantz, which takes it's name from the river Sar, on which it ſtands, is a ſmall town and caſtle, where the governor reſides, about ſixteen miles to the ſouthward of Appenzel. The inhabitants of this, and all other places in this diſtrict are Roman Catholicks, except one community.

Rhintal.

The county of Rhintal extends itſelf along the Rhine before it falls into the lake of Conſtance, and is a very narrow diſtrict. This was alſo taken from the houſe of Auſtria by the ſeven old Cantons, when Baden was conquered; but Appenzel having ſome pretenſions to it, was admitted into a ſhare of the ſovereignty. Two thirds of the inhabitants are Proteſtants. The chief town is Reineck, ſituate on the Rhine, at it's entrance into the lake of Conſtance.

Reineck.

Rapperſweil.

2. Rapperſweil, ſituate on the lake of Zurich, ſixteen miles ſouth-eaſt of the city of Zurich, taken from the houſe of Auſtria by the Cantons of Ury, Switz, Underwald, and Glaris, in the year 1458, remarkable for it's wooden bridge a mile and a half in length.

Mellinghen.
Bremgarten.

The two cities of Mellinghen and Bremgarten, are ſituate within the county of Baden, and are governed by their own laws and magiſtrates, but ſubject to the old Cantons.

Lugano, &c.

The four bailliages of Lugano, Locarno, Mendriſio, and Valmadia, are ſituated on the Italian ſide of the Alps, and were formerly part of the duchy of Milan, but diſmembred from it by Duke MAXIMILIAN SFORZA, and given to the Switzers in the year 1513, for the ſervice they had done him in his wars. They belong to twelve of the Cantons, Appenzel having no ſhare in them, being not then received into the alliance as a Canton. Theſe four bailliages extend ſeveral leagues in the warm climate of Italy, but the country is mountainous. The chief towns are, 1. Lugano. 2. Locarno. 3. Scona. And, 4. Briſago.

Lugano city.

The city of Lugano is ſituate on the north ſide of a lake of the ſame name, about eight miles from the frontiers of Milan, the governor whereof hath the command of the other bailliages.

Locarno

Locarno is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the lake Mayor, ten miles north-weſt of Lugano, formerly a conſiderable place, but now in a ruinous condition.

The natives of all theſe four bailliages are Roman Catholicks; and ſo bigotted, that when a Proteſtant Canton ſends a governor in it's turn

Bellinzona, &c.

of that perſuaſion, he is not allowed the exerciſe of his religion in his own houſe. There are ſtill three other bailliages in Italy, viz. Bellinzona, Valbruna, and Riviera, ſubject in common to the three Cantons of Ury, Switz, and Underwald, taken by them in their wars with the Dukes of Milan, and the ſovereignty yielded to them anno 1516.

Alſax. Werdenberg.

The little Barvug of Alſax belongs to the Canton of Zurich, and the county of Werdenberg to that of Glaris, both of them ſituate on the banks of the Rhine before it enters the lake of Conſtance. And another bailliage, called Gaſteren, belongs to Switz and Glaris, and lies between the lakes of Zurich and Wallenſtat, on the banks of the river Limath.

Gaſteren.

Four conſiderable bailliages alſo in the Pais de Vaud, belong jointly to Bern and Friburg, being taken by their united arms at the time that all this country was won from the Duke of Savoy, viz. Morat, Granſon, Echelens, and Swartzemburg, to which governments each Canton ſends it's Bailiffs alternately.

Morat, Granſon, Echelens, Swartzemburg.

And, according to my author, the war in 1712, between the Cantons of Bern and Zurich on the one part, and Lucern, Ury, Switz, Underwald, and Zug, on the other, hath made great alterations in the property of the common bailliages; for by the enſuing treaty of peace the whole county of Baden, half the free billiages, including particularly the cities of Bremgarten and Rapperſweil, were yielded to the two Proteſtant Cantons of Zurich and Bern, reſerving to Glaris it's ſhare in the ſovereignty, becauſe that Canton had not concerned itſelf in the war. The Canton of Bern alſo was admitted to a ſhare in the ſovereignty of Turgovy, Sargantz, Rhintal, and the other half of the three bailliages, of which it had no part before that war. Theſe common bailliages are governed by their reſpective Bailiffs, elected out of the ſeveral Cantons, who are co-ſovereigns; every Canton appointing the Bailiff by turns, who is changed in ſome bailliages every five, and in others every ſix years; and theſe Bailiffs are not accountable to the particular Canton which elected them, but to the Cantons in general that are co-ſovereigns.

CHAP. IV.

Treats of the perſons, habits, genius, and temper of the Switzers.

Perſons and habits.

THE Switzers are generally good bodies of men, tall, and well made, and living in a cold mountainous country, where hunting over the rocks and precipices is their principal diverſion, are a very hardy race; but as they are frequently expoſed to tempeſtuous ſtormy weather, their complexions are not the beſt; moſt of them wear their hair, and in ſome places long beards are ſtill in faſhion, but few of them care to part with their darling wiſkers.

Their women are handſome, and well ſhaped; and, according to my author, want no charms in their perſons or converſation: but all fine clothes with ſilver or gold, jewels or lace, are prohibited both ſexes. In the town of Bazil, though ſituate on the frontiers of France, and ſome other parts of the country, they ſtill retain their ruffs, and old Swiſs dreſs: but generally thoſe who border upon France follow the French in their dreſs, as well as language; and thoſe who lie on the confines of Germany, the modes of that country, as far as their ſumptuary laws will admit. Thoſe who travel, eaſily conform themſelves to the manners of the people where they reſide; inſomuch, that it may be diſcerned by the air and dreſs of a Swiſs officer in what country he ſerves. Thoſe who reſide in France wear gay clothes, are forward in their behaviour, and full of words in converſation: while thoſe who ſerve in Holland affect a plain dreſs, and are reſerved in diſcourſe.

Their genius and temper.

The ſame judicious author, already cited, divides the Swiſs into three claſſes; namely, 1. The peaſants. 2. The gentry and vaſſals. And, 3. The citizens. The firſt he looks upon to be an honeſt, robuſt, and laborious people, whom neceſſity has taught to be excellent huſbandmen, and to make the moſt of a bad ſoil, who by their induſtry often grow rich; and though they are affectionate to their Sovereigns, yet having been always uſed to live in a ſtate of liberty, and little acquainted with taxes, would not eaſily bear new impoſitions; but this is to be underſtood chiefly of the peaſants in the German country, for the natives of the Pais de Vaud, or the French country, are accuſed both of lazineſs and theft. By the gentry and vaſſals, are intended ſuch of the better ſort as are not citizens of the capital of any Canton, and conſequently are excluded from all beneficial employments in their own country. Theſe our author looks upon as the moſt unhappy among the natives of Switzerland; for although they have lands and lordſhips, which they enjoy in great ſecurity, and pay ſcarce any taxes to their Sovereigns, yet being diſabled to hold any places of profit or truſt, and living in a country where there is no trade or profeſſion they can get any thing by, it is as much as they can do to ſupport their families ſuitable to their rank. And indeed the rich yeomanry in moſt countries ſeem to have the better of the poor gentry. 3. The citizens, which in thoſe Cantons where the government is ariſtocratical, our author ſubdivides into three claſſes: 1, The merchants and tradeſmen. 2. The pen-men. And, 3. The military men. The tradeſmen are generally proud and lazy, which proceeds from their privileges of being choſen into the magiſtracy by virtue of their burgherſhip, and of excluding all but themſelves from exerciſing any trade in their cities; from whence it proceeds that their goods are bad, and yet very dear.

2. Their pen-men are thoſe that have never been in any military ſervice abroad, nor have exerciſed any trade at home; theſe have no hopes of raiſing their fortunes in the Cantons, where there is little trade, except by their bailliages, and therefore all their thoughts are turned towards getting into the great council, after which they are ſure of a bailliage ſooner or later; and in the mean time they either live upon their rents, or the profits they gain in the inferior magiſtracies of the city, in which they are uſually employed.

3. The millitary men are thoſe who have ſerved in the troops of ſome foreign Prince or State; who are in moſt eſteem, not only becauſe they are uſually the moſt polite, but chiefly becauſe the trade of arms is deemed the moſt honourable employment. Theſe uſually remain in foreign ſervices till they are very old, unleſs they are of the great council, and then after they have gained a tolerable fortune they return home, and endeavour to procure a bailliage. And 'tis obſerved,

that the greateſt fortunes which have been made in Switzerland, have been raiſed by military ſervice.

And now we are treating of the military men, it may be proper to inquire into the valour of the Switzers, for which they are ſo much famed. This is a quality, ſays my author, univerſally allowed them; even in former ages, wherever the Helvetians are mentioned, their courage is applauded. Nor are they leſs remarkable for their fidelity than for their courage, into whatſoever ſervice they enter. But as I have formerly intimated, poſſibly we are as much obliged to our education, as to our natural temper for this good quality. There are many more inſtances of an acquired than a native courage. Nay, there is ſcarce an inſtance where troops have ſerved an apprenticeſhip to the trade of war, and are become veteran ſoldiers, but they may be depended on, let them come from what country they will. Where troops are equally diſciplined, it is nothing elſe but the ſize of the men and horſes that gives them the ſuperiority. Now the Switzers, it appears, are of as large a bulk as any people of Europe; they have the advantage alſo of a very rough education, being enured to hardſhips, and taught the uſe of arms from their cradles. They follow their game over mountains and precipices, till dangers are become familiar to them. And, laſtly, their troops being continually in foreign ſervice, they can never want good officers and ſoldiers; they muſt of neceſſity therefore be fitter for military ſervice, than the troops of any other nation who have not had the like advantages, though their native courage ſhould not exceed that of their neighbours.

But as my author obſerves, the Switzers are generally charged with that barbarous cuſtom of letting out their troops for hire to ſerve any cauſe; nay, to furniſh nations that are enemies with ſeparate bodies; whereby it comes to paſs, that the neareſt relations, father and ſon, brother and brother, are frequently engaged againſt each other, and beat out one another's brains as it were in ſport, when they have no manner of concern in the quarrel. But this, the ſame gentleman aſſures us, is a very groundleſs charge: for, 1. They never grant their troops to any Prince or State, but by virtue of ſome preceding alliance. 2. They grant troops only for the defence of the nation they are given to, and not to act offenſively; ſo that the Swiſs troops in the French ſervice are never ſuffered to invade the Empire, or Holland; nor, on the contrary, the Swiſs who are in the ſervice of thoſe two powers, to invade France. And, 3. The ſovereign never receives any ſubſidy or perquiſite from the Prince or State to whom their troops are granted, contenting themſelves with procuring a beneficial ſervice to their ſubjects, without reſerving any profit to themſelves. But then he admits that what he offers on this ſubject ought to be reſtrained chiefly to the Proteſtant Cantons; for he acknowledges that the conduct of the Catholick Cantons, and eſpecially thoſe called the petty ones, have too often given occaſion for drawing reproaches on the whole nation, from thoſe who do not diſtinguiſh between one and the other: ſo that it ſeems the charge is true in part, though not univerſally.

And indeed, whoever has been in the ſervice in the Low Countries, either in the firſt war in the reign of King WILLIAM, or the latter in the reign of Queen ANNE, muſt have found Switzers engaged on both ſides. Whether they were hired to act defenſively only, or otherwiſe, I cannot tell; but certain it is, they were frequently upon the offenſive, and drawn up againſt each other. And we find the Dutch do not only employ them in offenſive wars in their own ſervice, but ſometimes let them out again to other Princes, as they have done more than once to the King of Great Britain, and they have ſerved here accordingly. So that notwithſtanding what our author hath advanced in their favour, it ſeems evident to me, that the Swiſs are not altogether innocent in this particular; and it may ſtill be difficult entirely to wipe off that aſperſion of ſacrificing their people for any cauſe, and letting their troops to any power that will pay them.

The Switzers alſo have been long aſperſed as a dull heavy generation, eſpecially by the French; but thoſe who have reſided among them, and know them beſt, give us quite another character of them; they aſſure us, that there is no where to be found men of clearer judgments, or greater dexterity in the management of affairs, or of a more lively converſation, with true wit and genuine humour, than are to be met with here among thoſe who have had a good education improved by travel. Indeed among the peaſants upon the mountains, who converſe chiefly with their cattle, it is no wonder if we meet with ſome as ſtupid as the ſhepherds and huſbandmen of other countries; but no conſidering man will take an eſtimate of a people from this claſs. There are not many of the Switzers, 'tis true apply themſelves to learning; the poverty of the country, and the ſtraitneſs of their fortunes, oblige them to turn their thoughts another way. There are few of them, my author obſerves, that are free enough from domeſtick cares to employ their time in ſpeculation. There are however many learned men amongſt them in the two great profeſſions of divinity and law, eſpecially in the univerſities of Bern, Bazil, Zurich, and Lauſanne.

As to the honeſty and ſimplicity of the Switzers, for which they have been ſo generally applauded heretofore, late writers aſſure us, they very little deſerve any ſuch character at this day; even their courts of juſtice and magiſtracy are not free from corruption, but the beſt purſe uſually carries the cauſe. On the other hand, though they are generally charged with the vice of drunkenneſs, I do not find they are more addicted to it than their neighbours. The Swiſs peaſants indeed are many of them given to tippling, as the lower rank of people are in moſt places; but among people of condition the practice is very rare. They have their publick feaſts, wherein ſome exceſſes are committed, but their ordinary way of life is very ſober; inſomuch that our author affirms of the Switzers in general, that they are the leaſt given to drinking of any people ſprung from the German ſtock; and at laſt ſums up their character in theſe words:

‘ The Switzers are a people equally brave in arms, and faithful to their engagements; who have more eſteem for the military virtues than the civil ones; yet are deſirous to live in perpetual peace themſelves, and to make war for others. They are perfectly able, when united, to defend themſelves againſt any invader; but not in a condition to make conqueſts on their neighbours. Their country is crouded with people, which generally makes the riches of other nations, but for want of trade increaſes 'the poverty of this. It produces none of the ſuperfluities of life, and not enough of the neceſſaries; yet by the advantage of their ſituation, both are ſupplied them by their neighbours at reaſonable rates. It happens to be placed almoſt in the center of Europe, without being thoroughly known: and they are courted for their valour by ſome of their neighbours, who ſcarce allow them any other good quality. But one may ſay of theſe republicks as of private men, viz. that they are placed in a certain mediocrity of fortune, which puts them below envy, and above contempt. One finds among them none of the gaudy pleaſures of courts, but a great deal of the ſatisfaction which proceeds from a quiet eaſy life. In ſhort, they have more wit, and perhaps leſs ſincerity, than the world allows them; and ſeem to conceal ſome of the ſubtleties of the Italian under the frankneſs of the German. Their virtues are natural to them, and their vices chiefly owing to the temptations which men ſtruggling with difficulties are apt to fall under.'

CHAP. V.

Contains an abſtract of the antient and modern hiſtory of Switzerland.

The hiſtory of Switzerland.

JULIUS CÆSAR firſt mentions the Helvetians as a nation, and relates, that this people having made an incurſion into Burgundy during his government of Gaul, with a deſign to tranſplant themſelves into that deſirable country, to take away from their people all thoughts of returning to their antient ſeats, ſet fire to their dwellings, burning no leſs than twelve great cities, and four hundred villages. They then began their march with their families, amounting to near four hundred thouſand ſouls, whereof about a fourth of them were able to bear arms. Their firſt deſign was to have penetrated into Savoy; but not daring to paſs the Rhone in the face of his army, they altered their march, and entered Franche Compte, where CÆSAR having cut off many of them in ſeveral engagements, compelled the reſt to return home; and having reduced them under the Roman power, annexed this country to that part of his government called *Gallia Celtica*.

The Helvetians remained ſubject to the Romans till the deſtruction of that empire by the northern nations, when new kingdoms and ſtates being erected out of it's ruins, Switzerland was comprehended in that of Burgundy, about the beginning of the fifth century. This kingdom not laſting above an hundred years, Switzerland upon the fall of it was united to the crown of France, to whoſe Kings it remained ſubject till the beginning of the ninth century. About the year 870, two new kingdoms of Burgundy were erected, called *Burgundia Cisjurana*, and *Burgundia Tranſjurana*; but the former was united to the latter about the year 926, and of this kingdom of *Burgundia Tranſjurana*, Switzerland continued a part till 1032, when RODOLPH the third and laſt King of Burgundy, dying without iſſue, transferred his kingdom to the Emperor CONRAD II, called the Salick, whoſe ſucceſſors enjoyed it near two hundred years; when this kingdom being neglected by the Emperors, ſeveral petty ſovereignties were formed out of it. In the thirteenth century the Counts of Hapſburg, from whom the houſe of Auſtria is deſcended, to whom ſeveral fiefs in this country had been granted by the Emperor BARBAROSSA, begun to take the government of this people upon them, and particularly of their cities, on their voluntary ſubmiſſion to him; for it ſeems their nobility uſed them in ſo barbarous and tyrannical a manner, that they found themſelves under a neceſſity of imploring the protection of ſome potent neighbouring Prince. They agreed therefore that RODOLPH ſhould ſend Balliffs or Governors amongſt them, with power of adminiſtring the *Haute Juſtice*, or judging in criminal cauſes; but with an expreſs reſervation (if my author be not miſtaken) of their rights and liberties, which were very extenſive. But RODOLPH was ſo engaged in other places, that he could not afford theſe cities the protection they expected from him; whereupon not being able any longer to endure the tyranny and inſults of the nobility, they had recourſe to arms, demoliſhed the caſtles of the lords, and after a twelve years war, compelled many of them to leave the country.

RODOLPH being now advanced to the Imperial dignity, the nobility applied themſelves to the Emperor, charging the commons of Switzerland with rebellion; but the Emperor having heard the contending parties, declared himſelf in favour of the people; and governed them with great mildneſs and goodneſs while he lived, confirming their antient privileges, and granting them ſeveral new ones. But upon the death of this Emperor, his ſon, the Emperor ALBERT, entered into very oppoſite meaſures, determined to make himſelf abſolute in this country, which he endeavoured to accompliſh firſt by careſſes and perſuaſions only; but when he found thoſe arts would not avail him, he appointed other governors with poſitive orders to reduce them to his obedience, either by corrupting their leading men, or, if that failed, by force of arms; and accordingly, when the firſt method was found ineffectual, they openly invaded their privileges. Whereupon the people ſent a deputation to the Emperor, to complain of the violation of their rights and liberties; but inſtead of a redreſs, they met with only threats of the utmoſt vengence if they refuſed an abſolute ſubmiſſion to his pleaſure. And at their return home, they found their governors ſtill exerciſing the moſt notorious acts of tyranny, by oppreſſing, impriſoning, and impoveriſhing the ſubject. They deprived the people of their eſtates, ſays my author, by arbitrary ſentences, impoſed extravagant fines for trivial offences, and tortured others on a pretence of conſpiracies againſt the government; till the exaſperated people at length entered into a real conſpiracy, which proved fatal to their Sovereign. The three principal men who firſt formed the deſign, were ARNOLD MELCHDAL of Underwald, WERNER STOUFFACHER of Switz, and WALTER FURST of Ury, who were rather ſubſtantial yeomen than gentlemen. Theſe having been alike ill-treated by their reſpective governors, had entered into a very ſtrict friendſhip, and were contriving to free themſelves and their country from the oppreſſions they laboured under. Each of them afterwards engaged three of their friends to aſſiſt them with their advice; and theſe twelve became the principal managers of the plot, who meeting at Grutli in the canton of Ury, laid a ſcheme for promoting a general inſurrection, binding themſelves by the moſt ſolemn oaths not to diſcover the deſign: And the firſt of January 1308, being fixed for their riſing, an accident happened in the mean time, which gave them freſh provocation, and had like to have occaſioned an inſurrection ſooner than was intended. For it ſeems, among other pieces of arbitrary and whimſical tyranny, GRIESLER, Governor of the Canton of Ury, had ordered his cap to be ſet upon a poſt in the market-place of Altorf, the capital of Ury, requiring every perſon who paſſed by to pull off his hat to it on pain of death; which moſt people complied with, till WILLIAM TELL, a bold reſolute fellow, and one of the conſpirators, took an opportunity of frequently paſſing by without ſhewing any manner of reſpect to the cap; whereupon he was apprehended by the guards that were placed to ſee the order put in execution, and brought before the Governor; who, by way of puniſhment, commanded him to ſet an apple upon his ſon's head, and ſhoot at it with an arrow, declaring that if he miſſed it he ſhould be hanged. The father rather than run the hazard of being acceſſary to his ſon's death, deſired they would take away his own life without furthur ceremony; but the Governor would not indulge him ſo far, declaring that if he refuſed to ſhoot at the apple immediately, he would hang up his ſon before his face, and himſelf afterwards. Whereupon old TELL promiſed to make the attempt in the market-place in the preſence of the Governor, imagining probably that his fellow-conſpirators would have taken this opportunity of aſſembling, and reſcued him before he had made the experiment; but nothing of this happening, the old man took two arrows out of his quiver, and drawing his bow with all the anguiſh that can be imagined in ſo tender a caſe, providentially ſtruck the apple off his ſon's head without giving him the leaſt wound; upon which the people gave a general ſhout, to the great mortification of the Governor; who proceeding to inquire of TELL, what he meant by taking two arrows out of his quiver, aſſuring him he would forgive him, whatever his deſign was; TELL boldly anſwered, that the ſecond arrow was deſigned for the Governor, in caſe he had been ſo unhappy as to have killed his ſon. Whereupon the Governor anſwered, though he would ſpare his life according to his promiſe, yet he looked upon him to be ſo dangerous a man, that he ought however to be ſhut up in ſome dark priſon: and accordingly ordered him to be put in irons, and carried on board a veſſel to be tranſported to the caſtle of Caſſenach on the lake Lucerne: and to prevent his eſcaping, went on board the veſſel himſelf to ſee his ſentence put in execution. When they came about the middle of the lake, as the ſtory goes, there aroſe ſo violent a ſtorm, that they were in the utmoſt danger of ſinking; when the Governor's ſervants knowing TELL the priſoner to be an excellent pilot, propoſed the taking off his chains, and letting him manage the helm, as the only expedient for ſaving all their lives; which being conſented to, TELL with a great deal of difficulty ſteered the boat into ſmooth water under the ſhore, when he jumped out upon a piece of a rock, and made his eſcape; and the Governor, deſpairing of overtaking him, ſailed on to the next town, called Brunen, from whence he propoſed to go to the caſtle of Caſſenach by land. TELL having notice of the day he was to go, concealed himſelf in a wood on the ſide of a hollow way, by which he knew the Governor muſt paſs, and meeting with a favourable opportunity, ſhot him through the heart with an arrow, and made off, while the company remained in the utmoſt confuſion. In memory of which exploits, a chapel was built on the ſpot of ground where the Governor loſt his life; and another upon the rock from whence TELL made his eſcape, which are ſtill to be ſeen. But though this relation may be true in the main, I find the circumſtances frequently varied according to the genius or humour of the perſon who relates it.

The revolt of the Switzers from the houſe of Auſtria.

On new-year's-day, 1308, the time prefixed by the conſpirators for a general inſurrection, ſome of the moſt reſolute of them reſorted to the caſtles, where the Governor and Commanders of the Imperial troops reſided, under pretence of carrying the uſual preſents; and having concealed arms under their cloathes, fell upon the guards as they entered the gates, and had the good fortune to reduce every fortreſs they attempted. The Governor LANDENBURG and his forces were in ſuch conſternation, that they fled without making any manner of reſiſtance, but were ſurrounded afterwards, and made priſoners by the country people, who only required an oath from them, that they would never return into the country again, and then give them their liberty to retire whereever they ſaw fit.

Thus, ſays the honourable writer above-cited, was the foundation of the Helvetick liberty laid by three plain countrymen, without the advantages of birth or riches, which are uſually thought neceſſary towards the execution of ſuch popular enterprizes; and in honour of their memories a feſtival is annually held, where the company are entertained with ſongs, containing the hiſtory of their deliverance from Auſtrian tyranny.

The Emperor ALBERT hearing of this defection, was about aſſembling an army to have reduced them to obedience; but being killed ſoon after as he paſſed the river Ruſs, theſe Cantons had a favourable opportunity of eſtabliſhing themſelves, while the Empire remained in confuſion. About ſeven years after, Archduke LEOPOLD, the ſon of ALBERT, marched into the Canton of Switz with twenty thouſand men, threatening utter deſtruction to the confederated provinces. The Switzers made little reſiſtance, till the Auſtrian army was advanced into a narrow valley, between two mountains, near Mortgarten, where rolling great ſtones from the tops of the hills, they put the Auſtrian calvary in confuſion; and at the ſame time attacking them in front with fifteen hundred men, they obtained a compleat victory, which they purſued with ſuch diligence, that they drove the enemy entirely out of the country.

Upon the victory of Mortgarten, the three Cantons entered into a perpetual league, which was at firſt made for ten years only, and took an oath for the due obſervation of it, from whence they were called *Eydgnoſſen*, a German word, ſignifying parties to the ſame oath; and the battle being fought in the Canton of Switz, which firſt gave them any credit in the world, the name of this little province was afterwards communicated to the reſt, as they entered into the league, and even to their allies.

The houſe of Auſtria made ſeveral attempts afterwards to reduce the Cantons of Switz, Underwald, and Ury, to their obedience; but were ſo far from effecting it, that they loſt ſeveral more of their provinces, which from time to time entered

tered into the league with them; of which the firſt was the Canton of Lucerne, who came into the confederacy of the three Cantons in the year 1332, although this province was the proper dominion of the Auſtrian family. The Canton of Zurich was the next which entered into the confederacy, in the year 1351, and, upon account of it's extent, was allowed the firſt place in their general aſſemblies, though it was the fifth which came into the alliance. This was a free Imperial city, and no part of the dominion of the houſe of Auſtria; however, their confederating with the revolted provinces occaſioned a new war between the allies and the houſe of Auſtria; in which the Switzers made themſelves maſters of the Canton of Glaris, which the ſame year, 1351, was received into their alliance. In the following year, 1352, they took the province of Zug from the enemy, and added it to the number of the Cantons: and in the latter end of the ſame year, the Imperial city of Bern came into the alliance, and conſtituted the eighth Canton. And as theſe eight Cantons continued in alliance upwards of an hundred and twenty years without increaſing their number, they obtained the name of the eight old Cantons, upon the addition of the reſt.

In the year 1481, Friburg, part of the demeſns of the houſe of Auſtria, and purchaſed by them of the Counts of Kybourg, was received into the number of the Cantons; as was Soleure, an Imperial city, the ſame year. In 1501, Bazil and Schaffhauſen, two other Imperial cities, came into the alliance; and the country of Appenzel was added to them in the year 1513, having purchaſed their liberty of the Abbot of St Gall, their then Sovereign, and this compleated the number of the thirteen Cantons. But the houſe of Auſtria, far from relinquiſhing their pretenſions to theſe countries, ſtill exerciſed them with perpetual wars, by whom they were not more diſtreſſed than by their own nobility, who conſtantly joined with the houſe of Auſtria, in all it's attempts upon the confederated Cantons; but the nobility being at length driven out of the country, or reduced to acknowledge the ſovereignty of the Cantons, the Switzers were declared a free people, independent of the Empire and the houſe of Auſtria, by the treaty of Munſter, anno 1648, at the ſame time, as my author rightly obſerves, as the United Provinces were declared independent by Spain.

Since the peace of Munſter they have not engaged much in foreign wars, but ſeveral warm diſputes have happened among themſelves on account of religion; and particularly in the year 1712, when a war broke out between the two Proteſtant Cantons of Zurich and Bern, and the five Catholick Cantons of Lucerne, Ury, Switz, Zug, and Underwald, wherein the former defeated the five Roman Catholick Cantons in two general battles, and took from them the country of Baden, and many other large territories. But the breach was at length made up by the mediation of the French Ambaſſador at Arraw, on the following terms; viz. That the country of Baden, with the town, and thoſe of Keyſerthal, Klingnau, Bremgarten, and Mellingen, ſhould remain in full propriety to Bern and Zurich, provided that the Roman Catholicks in thoſe towns, and their dependencies, ſhould have the free exerciſe of their religion. That the Catholick Cantons ſhould admit the Canton of Bern into the government of the common bailiwicks of Turgow, Rhintal, and Sargantz; and ſhould yield for ever to the two Cantons aforeſaid, the town of Rapperſweil, the bridge on the lake of Zurich, and the village of Harden, with it's appurtenances and dependencies; of which the neutral Cantons became guarantees. But the five Popiſh Cantons aboveſaid have never had a good underſtanding with the Cantons of Zurich and Bern, ſince their yielding up theſe territories. On the contrary, they ſeem ready to call in the French, or any other power, to aſſiſt them, to be revenged of their enemies, without regarding what the conſequences may be to their country.

CHAP. VI.

Treats of the government of the Switzers.

Government.

THE general Dyet, which repreſents the Helvetick Body, conſiſts of two Deputies from each Canton; beſides which, the Abbot of St Gall, and the cities of St Gall, and of Bienne, ſend Deputies as allies; and a General Dyet is uſually held at Baden, on the feaſt of St JOHN BAPTIST annually, which ſeldom laſts longer than a month. The firſt Deputy of the Canton of Zurich preſides at theſe Dyets, propoſing the matters to be debated, and collecting the votes, and performing all other acts proper for the Preſident of an aſſembly. The Canton of Zurich alſo hath the privilege of convoking the Dyets by circular letters, wherein the reaſons for aſſembling them are contained: And the Deputies of this Canton from the Abſcheid, or reſult of their deliberations at the concluſion of the Dyet, which are ſent to every Canton; and theſe gentlemen are always the ſpeakers when the Deputies of the Cantons are ſent to compliment or treat with a foreign miniſter.

General Dyets.

The matters conſidered of at a General Dyet are either the accounts of the Governors of their common bailliages, or appeals from the ſentences of ſuch Governors in civil and criminal caſes, the redreſſing the grievances of their common ſubjects, or compoſing the differences which may have ariſen between the Cantons, and every thing elſe which may contribute to their mutual intereſt. And to this Dyet the miniſters of foreign Princes uſually apply themſelves, either by way of audience or memorial. The French Ambaſſador particularly never fails to attend the Dyet, though he hath nothing more than compliment to offer. But beſides this Midſummer Dyet, which meets of courſe, any one Canton may ſummon a Dyet upon an extraordinary occaſion; as may the miniſter of a foreign Prince, if he apprehends his maſter's affairs require it, and he will defray the charges of the Deputies; and there is ſeldom a year paſſes without one extraordinary Dyet or more.

Dyets of the reſpective religions.

Beſides theſe General Dyets, their differences in religion have ſince the Reformation occaſioned particular Dyets. The mutual confidence between the Cantons ſeems in ſome meaſure loſt through the zeal of each party for their particular opinions. This enters more or leſs into all their publick actions; and though their General Dyets are ſtill continued to regulate the affairs of their common bailliages, all other matters of importance are treated of at particular Dyets of the reſpective religions? that of the Proteſtants being held at Arraw, and that of the Roman Catholicks at Lucerne; which being the moſt potent Catholick Canton, acts as their head; as that of Zurich does as the head of the Proteſtants. Theſe Dyets are ſummoned whenever either of the parties pleaſe; and our author rightly obſerves, that the thirteen Cantons do not make one commonwealth, but are ſo many independent States, united together by ſtrict alliances for their mutual defence.

The firſt alliance of the Switzers reduced to writing.

The firſt league amongſt them reduced to writing was made between the three Cantons of Switz, Ury, and Underwald, after the victory of Mortgarten abovementioned, in the year 1351, by which each party ſtipulated to aſſiſt each other with all their force, againſt every power that ſhould attack them; that none of them ſhould enter into any treaty or alliance without the conſent of the other; and that if any difference ſhould ariſe between two of them, the third ſhould decide it.

Second alliance.

About the year 1481, the eight old Cantons entered into another alliance, to aſſiſt each other in defenſive, but not in offenſive wars; and it was agreed, that the auxiliary troops ſhould be maintained by the reſpective Cantons which ſent them; but if a ſiege was undertaken for the ſervice of a particular Canton, ſuch Canton ſhould defray the particular charge of it: That no auxiliary Canton ſhould be obliged to ſend their troops beyond the limits of Switzerland: That upon a difference between two Cantons, they ſhould each of them chuſe two arbitrators, who might elect an umpire to decide the matter, if they could not agree, and his ſentence ſhould be executed by all the Cantons. The five firſt Cantons alſo obliged themſelves not to enter into any alliance without the conſent of all five; but the three others reſerved to themſelves the liberty of entring into ſeparate treaties, provided they were not prejudicial to the former alliance.

Third alliance.

Afterwards the eight old Cantons obliged themſelves to aſſiſt each other in the ſupport of their reſpective forms of government, and agreed upon a body of military laws to be obſerved by the whole nation; ſince which there has been no new alliance formed between them, though there are five other Cantons added to the old ones. Nor is there any act or inſtrument, according to the above-cited honourable author, whereby they are all encorporated into one body; no common civil judicature, which hath a right of obliging all the Cantons by it's deciſions; no common coin or treaſure; but every Canton have theſe things diſtinct: each hath now a right of making particular treaties with foreign powers, and of ſending and receiving publick miniſters, and of doing all other acts of ſovereignty ſeparately from the other. And when the thirteen Cantons ſend Ambaſſadors to a foreign State, they never chuſe one or two to repreſent them all, but each Canton ſends it's particular miniſters, to ſhew it's right of ſovereignty. I proceed now to inquire into the ſeveral forms of government in the reſpective Cantons.

Forms of government in the particular Cantons.

And firſt my author obſerves, that the government in ſome of the Cantons is ariſtocratical, and in others democratical. The ſeven ariſtocratical Cantons are thoſe of Zurich, Bern, Lucerne, Bazil, Friburg, Soleure, and Schaffhauſen; the other ſix are democratical. And this difference in their reſpective forms of government he conjectures to be the effect of the ſtate each of them happened to be in, when they were erected into Cantons; for as each of the firſt kind conſiſted of one city, with very little territory belonging to it, the government naturally came to be lodged in the citizens only, and afterwards continued ſo, notwithſtanding a large acquiſition of country to their reſpective dominions: whereas the ſix democratical Cantons having no cities, but being divided into little communities, which had equal pretence to the ſovereign power, they could ſcarce avoid falling into a popular frame. There is this farther diſtinction to be made among the Cantons, which he denominates ariſtocratical, (though they are all equally ſo in relation to their ſubjects) namely, that the capital cities of ſome of the Cantons have the form of a democracy, as Zurich, Bazil, and Schaffhauſen, where the ordinary tradeſmen, who are divided into tribes, have their ſhare in the government, and may be elected by their tribes into the Sovereign Council; whereas in the cities of Bern, Lucerne, Friburg, and Soleure, the Leſſer Council, conſiſting of twenty-ſeven, joined with a ſmaller number of the Greater Council, have the ſole right of filling up vacancies in the Sovereign Council; and theſe always chuſing their friends and relations to fill theſe vacancies, the ordinary citizens have no ſhare in the government.

Form of government in the Canton of Bern.

In the Canton of Bern, which is much the moſt conſiderable, the legiſlative authority is lodged in the Great Council, conſiſting of two hundred and ninety-nine perſons, when compleat; but as about ninety odd are uſually abſent on their reſpective governments, or other avocations, it is generally ſtiled the Council of two hundred. Out of the members of this Council is elected another called the Senate, or Leſſer Council, conſiſting of twenty-ſeven Members, with their two Avoyers, who preſide in both Councils annually by turns; and the two youngeſt of this aſſembly have alſo the title of Secret Counſellors; who, according to my author, reſemble the Tribunes of the people in the Roman commonwealth, and ſummon the Great Council, whenever they apprehend any thing deſigned, which may be prejudicial to the liberties of the people, or upon any other emergency.

This Senate has the executive power, and meets every day of the week, except Sundays. The Great Council aſſemble but twice a week, unleſs upon extraordinary occaſions. Peace and war, alliances, the publick treaſure, and all civil employments of importance, are in the diſpoſal of the Great Council; and all eccleſiaſtical employments, and ſome inferior civil offices, are in the gift of the Senate. When the Great Council aſſemble, the Senate conſtitute a part of it, or rather is loſt in the Great Council, having no exiſtence while that is aſſembled.

The vacancies in the Great Council are filled up by the Senate, and ſixteen Members of the Great Council, called Seizeniers from their number, who are choſen out of the old Bailiffs, that is, ſuch as have enjoyed a government or Bailliage the whole term of ſix years. But for the better underſtanding of this office of Seizenier, it is neceſſary to premiſe, that in the city of Bern there are twelve companies, or abbies, as they are called, viz. four greater, and eight leſs; and in one of theſe companies, every citizen, whether gentleman or tradeſman, is obliged to enroll himſelf, that he may be qualified to be a member of the Council of two hundred, or to enjoy any other place of truſt in the government; and the head or chief of any of theſe companies is called the Seizenier; the great companies having each of them two, and the leſſer one, which makes the number ſixteen. When a new Seizenier is to be elected, all the old Bailiffs, who are out of office, meet in their reſpective abbies, and the matter is determined by lot; for as many balls are put into a bag as there are candidates for the office, one of them of gold, and the reſt of ſilver, and he that happens upon the golden ball is the Seizenier. And theſe Seizeniers are uſually choſen a little before the vacancies in the Great Council are filled up, and continue in their office till another promotion is made, which is ſeldom above once in nine or ten years. Theſe Seizeniers take care of the affairs of their reſpective companies, and ſee that nothing be tranſacted to their prejudice. They repreſent the grievances of the citizens to the Council, propoſe the making or repealing of laws, and in conjunction with the four Banderets, or Standard-bearers, (of whom hereafter) are empowered for three days before Eaſter annually, when all other employments in the State are ſuſpended, to inquire into the behaviour of every miniſter and officer in the government, and to deprive him of his employment or place in the Great or Leſſer Council. But in caſe of an expulſion of any member from the Great Council, the ſentence muſt be confirmed by that Council, though they may expel a member of the Senate or Leſſer Council abſolutely, there being no appeal in that caſe. Having thus explained the office of a Seizenier, my author continues to relate the manner of filling up the vacancies in the Great Council, which is ſeldom done till there are fourſcore or an hundred vacant places; the reaſons of which delay is ſaid to be, that they may have an opportunity at the ſame time of ſatisfying a great number of perſons; but indeed that the remaining members of the Great Council may have the fewer competitors for bailliages and places of truſt, for which none but the members of that Council are qualified. Thoſe who are entitled to chuſe members of the Great Council, as hath been obſerved already, being the Senate, or Leſſer Council, and the ſixteen Seizeniers, every one of whom has the privilege of naming a member, and the two Avoyers, or Preſidents, two a-piece; great court is made to them by the candidates. The Chancellor and Greffier alſo are allowed each of them to name one: and the Commiſſary-General, and ſome other great officers, claim a right of being elected, as they uſually are; ſo that there are always about fifty who have ſome aſſurance of being elected. The reſt of the candidates are choſen by a plurality of voices; and the only qualification required is, that he be a member of one of the aforeſaid companies, and entered into the thirty-third year of his age.

Nothing is more common than for an Elector to name his eldeſt ſon, if he be qualified; and if he be not, he has an opportunity of marrying his daughter well, by giving his vote for her lover, which is ſometimes her only portion, and not a bad one, as it entitles the ſon-in-law to a bailliage. It is very merry upon this occaſion, as my author obſerves, to ſee numbers of paſſionate lovers ſtarting up in three or four days time, and pretending all the devotion imaginable for their miſtreſſes, whom they have ſcarce ever ſeen; for there is not three days difference between the choice of the Seizeniers, and the election of the members of the Great Council; and till the Seizeniers are appointed, they can't tell to whom to apply to. The firſt viſits therefore which a Seizenier receives after his election, are from perſons who pretend to be paſſionately ſmitten with his fair daughter, if he have no ſon, and the match is almoſt as ſoon concluded as propoſed, when the father meets with a man to his mind, which he ſeldom miſſes of: for as it is neceſſary towards the making a man's fortune in this republick, that he be a member of the Great Council, thoſe of the wealthieſt and beſt families frequently attempt to come into it this way, when others fail. Thus 'tis evident, that the vacancies in the Great Council are conſtantly filled up with the relations and friends of the remaining members; and conſequently the government is lodged in ſome few great families, the ordinary citizens being excluded from any ſhare in it, unleſs they have the good fortune to be choſen by a majority, after the relations and dependants of the Great Council are provided for, which is but a remote proſpect. And as they are excluded from this aſſembly, ſo are they by conſequence from all places of profit and truſt in the government; theſe being reſerved only for the members of this great body, as hath been intimated already.

The members of the Senate, or Leſſer Council, are upon a vacancy elected by the Great Council out of their own body, with this reſtriction, that neither the father and ſon, nor two brothers, can be of the Senate at the ſame time: and theſe vacancies in the Senate, are filled up as ſoon as the deceaſed Senator is buried; but in the great one, as hath been obſerved, they wait till there be fourſcore or an hundred vacancies, which is uſually nine or ten years.

Great officers of State.

The great officers of ſtate in this republick are, 1. The two Avoyers, as the French ſtile them, or Schultheiſſen, as the Germans call them, whoſe employments are for life, but they exerciſe them by turns annually. The perſon in office, who is called the Reigning Avoyer, preſides both in the greater and leſſer Council, propoſes the matters to be debated there, and keeps the ſeals which are put to all acts of ſtate, and to him all perſons apply, who have any buſineſs to tranſact in either Council; and the Avoyer out of office only takes place as firſt Senator till the year is expired, when he takes the ſeals and reſumes his authority in his turn: and though theſe are very honourable poſts, and they have a great influence on all affairs of State, the profits of them are but ſmall, not amounting to three hundred pounds a year. The next great officers are the Bandarets, or Standard-Bearers of the city, which being divided into four wards, the citizens rendezvous under their colours in their reſpective precincts; and their places are for life, but the profits do not yield each of them more than an hundred pounds per annum. Their unthority was formerly much greater, when with the Seizeniers they had the election of the members of the Great Council, but this privilege they are now deprived of. The next great officers are the two treaſurers; one called the Treaſurer of the German country, and the other of the Pais de Vaud or Roman, who receive the revenues of their reſpective diſtricts, and continue in their office for ſix years; theſe are the moſt profitable employments in the State, and, as my author oſerves, thoſe who have the management of the publick money, will always find means to enrich themſelves in ſpite of the beſt regulations. The next great officer is the Superintendant of the publick buildings: and theſe nine are always given to Senators, as a reward of their faithful ſervices to the publick. The other offices of any importance, ſuch as Chancellor, Greffier, Commiſſary, &c. are enjoyed by members of the Great Council, and ſome inferior employments by the ordinary citizens; but it is very ſeldom that a citizen, who is not of the Great Council, comes into a place of conſiderable profit.

And thus having treated of the government and magiſtracy in the city of Bern, our author proceeds to thoſe of the country; where he obſerves, that the whole Canton is divided into ſeventy-two baillages, governed by as many Bailiffs, who are members of the Great Council, and changed every ſix years. Theſe Bailiffs are inveſted with the civil as well as the military power in their reſpective diſtricts; being generals of the militia, and ſupreme magiſtrates in civil and criminal cauſes, and though they have their aſſociates in the courts of juſtice, the bailiff only has the authority of pronouncing ſentence. In civil cauſes indeed, where the thing in diſpute is of conſequence, there lies an appeal to the courts of appeal at Bern, where one is eſtabliſhed for the German country, and the other for the Païs de Vaud, and in capital caſes the ſentence muſt be ratified by the Great Council. And from the court of appeals for the German country there ſtill lies an appeal to the Great Council; but thoſe of the Païs de Vaud, 'tis ſaid, are deprived of this privilege, as being naturally ſo litigious, that there would be no end of their contentions, if they were indulged in it.

Theſe bailliages are ſo profitable, that the Bailiff may make a tolerable figure during his ſix years government, and in ſome of them lay up five or ſix thouſand pounds, which in a country where all ſuperfluities in equipage and clothing are retrenched, and every thing huſbanded to the greateſt advantage, is a conſiderable ſum, as my author obſerves; and as theſe are the principal employments by which they hope to make their fortunes, all their views are turned that way; and while the election to them was determined by open votes, all manner of corruption and ſervile compliances were practiſed in order to obtain them; which being found to have an ill effect on the publick affairs, the way of ballotting for them was introduced, till they found a way of diſcovering, who voted for them and who againſt them, notwithſtanding this caution; and conſequently the ſame dependance on the leading men, and the ſame enmities among themſelves were obſerved as before: whereupon it was agreed in the year 1710, that all employments ſhould be diſpoſed of by lot; and accordingly as many balls are put into a bag as there are competitors, one of which being gilt, he that draws it hath the bailliage. But the poſts of Avoyer, Bandaret, Treaſurer, and Senator, are ſtill diſpoſed of by ballot; it being ridiculous, as my author obſerves, to leave the appointment of the chief officers in the State to meer chance. No bachelor can be a candidate for any baillage or place of profit, nor can a man's own relations, or his wife's to the degree of ſecond couſins incluſive, give a ſuffrage for him in any caſe. The members of the Great Council and Senate, as well as the two Avoyers and four Bandarets, have their places for life, as has been intimated already; unleſs they have been guilty of ſome notorious crime, or committed an act of bankruptcy; in which caſes they may be degraded. The reſt of the publick employments are held for ſix years, except thoſe of Secretaries to the Council, and ſome other poſts, where long experience is required, which the poſſeſſors ſeldom leave but for ſome good bailliage; and the Chancellor's employment is of late limited to twelve years, but in lieu of it he hath the choice of any bailliage. Formerly when a perſon had enjoyed a good bailliage for his term of ſix years, he would immediately lay in for another, by which means ſome few of the leading men engroſſed all the valuable bailliages in their families; whereof in the new regulation for diſpoſing of them by lot, it was provided, that the bailliages ſhould be divided into five claſſes, according to their reputed value; and any perſon, who hath enjoyed a bailliage, is diſabled ſtanding for another bailliage, but in the two loweſt claſſes, and that there ſhould be an interval of ſeven years between his quitting one bailliage and his being promoted to another; and even then he muſt wave his pretenſions, if any of the Great Council, who have never had one, pretend to it. There is very little profit ariſes to the members of the Great Council, ſome ſmall allowances of corn and wood only for the uſe of their families, but it is coveted however as the only road to preferment. The ſalary of a ſenator is about three hundred crowns per ann. including his perquiſites; and yet they ſerve the publick with that diligence and fidelity, that their whole time is taken up in the diſcharge of their offices.

Altho' the executive power be in a great meaſure lodged in the Senate, there are however councils appointed for ſeveral branches of buſineſs, who are all members of the Great Council; the moſt conſiderable of which, is that of the Secret Council, conſiſting of the Avoyer out of office, who is Preſident, the four Bandarets, the two Treaſurers, and the two Secret Counſellors; to whom all matters of ſtate which require ſecrecy are referred, and they are empowered to act in many caſes for the publick good without communicating the affair to the Great Council, tho' when the danger is over their determinations muſt be ratified by it.

The Chamber of Bandarets is the next council, where the accounts of the bailiffs and all other officers of ſtate are examined, and conſiſts only of the four Bandarets, and the two treaſurers, who preſide by turns. Beſides theſe there is a conſiſtory, conſiſting of more of the laity than of the clergy; for the laity are ſupreme here, as in many other ſtates, in cauſes eccleſiaſtical. This court takes cognizance of matrimonial contracts, adultery, fornication, and other offences againſt good manners; but as the adulterer was formerly puniſhed with death for the firſt fact, it muſt now be the third before they proceed capitally againſt him; and for the firſt and ſecond he is only puniſhed by fine and impriſonment, and made uncapable of any publick employment.

Another chamber or council is appointed to ſee the ſumptuary laws put in execution, in which they are very ſevere; not only becauſe it is of great conſequence to the ſtate to have theſe laws duely obſerved, but becauſe the fines come into the judges pockets, as my author obſerves. And there is a court of juſtice in the city of Bern, where both civil and criminal cauſes are tryed in the firſt inſtance, beſides the two courts of appeals already mentioned; an officer is Preſident of this ordinary court, called by the Germans the *Groſs Weibel* and by the French the *Gros Santier*, to whom the preſervation of the publick peace is committed, and who is empowered to puniſh all offences againſt it. Theſe are the ſtanding councils in Bern, the members of all which are members of the Great Council, except the clergy of the conſiſtory: And beſides theſe, upon any great emergency, a particular council or committee is appointed to enquire into the matter, which is diſſolved as ſoon as the buſineſs referred to them is at an end.

Form of government in Lucerne, Friburg, and Soleure.

The form of government in the Cantons of Lucerne, Friburg, and Soleure, differs little from that of Bern, only the Great Council at Lucerne conſiſts but of an hundred members, and the Senate of thirty-five. As to the three cities of Zurich, Bazil, and Schaffhauſen, the capitals of the three Cantons, to which they communicate their names; the citizens of each are divided into twelve or more tribes, and each of theſe tribes hath it's quota of members both in the Great Council and in the Senate: In Zurich particularly each tribe hath twelve members in the Great Council, and four in the Senate, or Leſſer Council, which numbers are always compleat, the vacancies being immediately filled up when there are any; not by a new choice of the tribe the deceaſed member was of, but by the remaining fifteen repreſentatives of that tribe; by which means the body of the people have now very little ſhare in chuſing their repreſentatives either in the Great Council or the Senate; but this is ſaid to be an encroachment on their privileges. There is ſtill another difference between the form of government in theſe three Cantons, and that of Bern, namely, that the Senate in each of theſe cities conſiſts of fifty perſons, beſides the two Avoyers, or Burghermaſters, whereas that of Bern has but twenty-five members beſides the two Avoyers; though but half of theſe, 'tis true, are in office at one time, for each of them govern their ſix months by turns, unleſs in caſes of judicature, when all the fifty are aſſembled. Here our author takes an opportunity of conſidering ſome of thoſe maxims which are moſt in vogue in Switzerland, and other popular governments: As, a well regulated militia, in oppoſition to a ſtanding army of mercenary troops: Equal agrarian laws, that one or a few families may not ſo far exceed the other in riches and power, as to endanger the publick liberty: and laſtly, an equal rotation of magiſtracy, that each may have his ſhare of the power and profits of the government in his turn; which are all obſerved in the ſeven Cantons already mentioned. But of the firſt, the militia, I ſhall ſpeak in another place. As to the ſecond, an equal agrarian law, it appears that all their children, both male and female, by their conſtitution, inherit an equal part of their anceſtor's ſubſtance, only the father hath a power of diſpoſing by his will, of one third part of his eſtate to which of his ſons he pleaſes; ſo that the greateſt eſtates are ſoon ſplit into ſmall parcels, and thereby an equality of power, in ſome meaſure, preſerved among the people. And there cannot be a more equal rotation among the magiſtrates, who are moſt of them changed every ſix years: from whence my author infers, that the Sovereigns of theſe Cantons have little reaſon to apprehend any inteſtine diviſion among themſelves. But then, as the ſupreme councils have gradually deprived their fellow-citizens of many privileges, and the principal families ſtill endeavour to engroſs the government to themſelves; they are in danger of inſurrections from the people, and have felt them more than once in ſome of their cities; nor is there any way to ſatisfy the body of the citizens, as the ſame gentleman apprehends, but by taking a greater number of them into the adminiſtration. In relation to their ſubjects, it is obſerved, that the government of theſe ſeven Cantons is very unequal, for the ſovereign power is lodged only in the citizens of the capital city of each Canton, out of whom the members of the Great Council are choſen, and theſe only are qualified for places of profit or truſt, ſo that the reſt of the Canton are excluded from all poſſibility of ſharing in the government; and this was not unreaſonable at the firſt eſtabliſhment of theſe commonwealths, who had then little or no territory beyond the walls of their cities: but now their dominions are ſo far extended, and comprehend many good towns and villages, if the inhabitants of theſe are not indulged with ſome ſhare in the adminiſtration, it is apprehended they may one day endeavour to ſet up for themſelves, or transfer their allegiance to ſome neighbouring Prince or State. This inequality is moſt viſible in the Canton of Bern, which makes above a third part of Switzerland, where about fourſcore families have engroſſed the whole government to themſelves. I have ſeen, ſays the ſame honourable writer, within the ſpace of eight years, civil commotions in Geneva, Lucerne, and Zurich, occaſioned by the diſcontents of the citizens with their governors, for retrenching their privileges and engroſſing the power to themſelves, which have generally ended in a redreſs of their grievances. And it is obſerved of late years, that the citizens of theſe cities generally gain ground of the government, and compel them to re-inſtate them in ſuch privileges as they have taken from them: and if theſe diſcontents ariſe in the capitals of theſe little ſtates, where the ſubject does not lie under ſuch incapacities and diſadvantages as in the countries under their dominion; our author infers, they may more juſtly be apprehended in the country, where the inequality of the government is ſtill greater, as the extent of the territory is ſo. But in this I muſt take the liberty to differ from him; for people who have never enjoyed any ſhare in the government, are not ſo liable to mutiny at being kept out of the adminiſtration, as thoſe who have been deprived of their part in it: nor are they ſo capable of fomenting an inſurrection in the country where they lie diſperſed, as in cities, where a multitude of malecontents may aſſemble in a moment, and get to a head before the government can be prepared to ſuppreſs them; eſpecially in places where there is no ſtanding army, and the mob are as good ſoldiers as the militia; or rather, where the militia are formed out of the mob. But what is looked upon as a great ſecurity to the government of the Cantons is, that they impoſe very moderate taxes on their ſubjects, which are frequently the ſource of popular diſcontents. And a further ſecurity to them is, that all the Cantons are mutually obliged to aſſiſt each other in the ſupport of their reſpective forms of government. But our author inclines to think, that neither of theſe ſecurities can be much relied on: For, firſt he obſerved, that the ſubjects thought no mildneſs of the government could make them amends for being excluded any ſhare in it: And as to mutual aſſiſtance, it is not only a dangerous experiment to call in ſtrangers to pacify domeſtic commotions, but it happens in this caſe, that the Proteſtants and Papiſts have ſo little affection for each other, that they would do but very little for the preſervation of thoſe of a different perſuaſion in religion: And they are in general ſo jealous of the overgrown power of the Canton of Bern, that they would be glad to ſee it weakened.

Form of government in the leſſer Cantons.

I proceed now to inquire into the form of government in thoſe ſix Cantons, where there are no great cities, viz Switz, Underwald, Ury, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel; and theſe, it ſeems, are all of them democratical: for each of theſe Cantons being divided into diſtricts, according to their extent, ſome twelve, others ſix, and others four; each diſtrict, or community, in ſome reſpects, appears to be an independent ſovereignty; for in theſe they have both civil and criminal judicatories, in which the reſt of the Canton cannot interpoſe, and from whence there lies no appeal. But in the management of the publick affairs, every diſtrict having choſen a deputy or repreſentative, they aſſemble at ſome certain place, and form a ſtanding council of the Canton; and where the matter to be debated is of great importance, they ſend each of them two or three repreſentatives, but ſtill they have but a limited authority; for, according to my author, the ſupreme legiſlative power remains in the diffuſive body of the people; every male in the country upwards of ſixteen years of age, and every ſervant as well as his maſter, having an equal ſhare in the ſovereignty. But theſe aſſemblies do not uſually meet more than once or twice a year to chuſe their magiſtrates, and their repreſentatives to be ſent to the general dyets; tho' they may be convoked at other times, as there is occaſion to give their conſents to ſuch acts as require their concurrence. The firſt officer in theſe Cantons is called Land-Aman, and is choſen in a full aſſembly of the people, who always expreſs their conſent by holding up their hands. His office reſembles that of an Avoyer, or Burghermaſter; but is changed in ſome of theſe Cantons every year, and in others every two years. He is Preſident both of their ſtanding Council and General Aſſemblies, and hath the chief direction of all publick affairs, with the advice of the council. So ſoon as the Land-Aman is choſen, the people elect him a deputy, who is called Stat-Halter, and acts in the abſence of the other. They proceed alſo to chuſe Treaſurers, Secretaries, and other officers of ſtate, in the ſame manner, who continue in their poſts a longer or ſhorter time, according to the cuſtoms of the reſpective Cantons; but though every member of the Canton ſeems to have an equal ſhare in the government of it, it appears they are generally governed in their determinations by the gentry, to whom they pay a particular regard. On the other hand, if they apprehend they have been led into ſchemes that are deſtructive to their country by deſigning men, they never fail to puniſh the authors of ſuch advice with the utmoſt ſeverity.

I ſhall conclude this head with ſome of Mr Addison's remarks on the government of the Switzers. He obſerves, that their conſtitution is extremely well adapted to the poverty and barrenneſs of their climate: That the miſery of being ſubject to a deſpotic Prince, in a country compoſed of rocks and mountains, is ſufficiently evident from the governments in their neighbourhood, where, notwithſtanding their lands are much better than thoſe of the Swiſs, the people are in greater want of the neceſſaries and conveniences of life. A Prince's court, he remarks, eats too far into the income of a poor ſtate, and introduces various kinds of luxury, which are not conſiſtent with a narrow fortune. If the vanity of dreſs, balls, and entertainments were as common in the Cantons as they are in France, their military roughneſs would ſoon be loſt, their tempers grow too ſoft for their climate, and their expences out-run their revenues; and as the materials for their luxury muſt be imported from abroad, their country, which has few commodities to export againſt them, and but very little treaſure to anſwer the ballance, would infallibly be ruined. (What follows is as applicable to a mixed government as to a republick: I could wiſh the words were written with a ſun-beam, and never out of my countrymen's view, who ſeem to be plunging themſelves into the greateſt exceſſes of all kinds that ever any people were guilty of, and which muſt naturally draw on them inevitable deſtruction, if not ſuddenly remedied.) The words are theſe: 'Luxury wounds a republick in it's very vitals, as it's natural conſequences are rapine, avarice, and injuſtice; for the more money a man ſpends, the more muſt he endeavour to augment his ſtock; which at laſt ſets the liberty and votes of a commonwealth to ſale, if they find any foreign power (or ambitious native) that is able to pay the price of them.' Addison's Travels, p. 384. It is no wonder therefore he adds, that the poor commonwealths of Switzerland endeavour to ſuppreſs every thing that may introduce vanity and luxury; that they prohibit gaming, balls, and all extravagancies of dreſs; and that their magiſtrates in their publick aſſemblies appear in the plaineſt garb imaginable, to ſet an example to the reſt. Perſons of different qualities indeed are diſtinguiſhed by their ornaments, but they are ſuch as may be purchaſed at a very moderate price: a great officer, for example, is known by the depth of his hat-crown; and their holiday-cloaths, which have an appearance of finery, go from father to ſon, being ſeldom worn out in two or three generations. 'Tis an ordinary thing to ſee a man of ſubſtance wear the breeches and doublet of his great-grandfather; and their peaſants are clothed in a coarſe kind of canvaſs, the manufacture of the country.

CHAP. VII.

Treats of their revenues and forces.

Revenues.

AS neither the product or trade of Switzerland are conſiderable, the publick revenues are not large, if compared with thoſe of other kingdoms and ſtates: but if we compare their income with their expences, as my author obſerves, ſome of theſe republicks cannot be eſteemed poor; for tho' their annual revenue be ſmall, the charges of the government is leſs, and they lay up ſomething every year, which in a long tract of time furniſhes them with a conſiderable treaſure: and it is obſerved to be one advantage that the commonwealth has of a monarchy, that the former are generally better huſbands of their treaſure, not throwing it away upon their pleaſures or paſſions as Princes uſually do, and ſaving the expences of courts and guards, and other glittering fopperies, ſtiled by ſome the embroidered part of the government. The little popular Cantons indeed have ſcarce any publick revenues, but tax themſelves voluntarily, according to the exigency of their affairs; and if they happen at any time to have a thouſand pounds in their treaſure, they will agree to divide it among the ſeveral communities the Canton is compoſed of, if the publick has no preſent occaſion for it: though at the ſame time they proteſt againſt the practice for the future. But the commonwealths in Switzerland which may be eſteemed rich, are thoſe which have cities for their capitals, and among theſe the revenues of the Proteſtant Cantons exceed thoſe of the Catholick republicks, being poſſeſſed of the church-lands, which they ſeized at the Reformation, the profits whereof are appropriated to the ſervice of the government, except a ſmall part of them which are reſerved for the maintenance of the clergy. The revenues of the Catholick Cantons with cities, viz. of Lucerne, Soleure, and Friburg, are ſo inconſiderable, that after the annual expences of the government are defrayed, there remains but a very ſmall ſum to be laid up in the publick treaſury; even the little Cantons of Bazil and Schaffhauſen, though of a much ſmaller extent, are richer than theſe three Catholick Cantons, and always have a conſiderable ſum in their treaſury. But the two wealthieſt Cantons are thoſe of Zurich and Bern, the former of which, by the advantage of it's trade, is the richer, in proportion to the extent of it's territories; but Bern is ſo much larger, that the revenues of this Canton are ſuppoſed to amount to as much more as the former.

The ſeveral branches of the publick revenue in the Canton of Bern, are, 1. The profits of the demeſn lands which belong to the State. 2. The tenths of the produce of all the lands in the country. 3. A certain tax upon lands which are not the property of the gentry, called in French, *Cenſes Foncieres*. 4. Cuſtoms and duties on merchandize. And, 5. the revenue ariſing from the ſale of ſalt. From the firſt of theſe branches ariſe great quantities of corn and wine, which the State lays up in magazines in the ſeveral bailliages, and ſells to the people in times of ſcarcity. From the ſecond, conſiſting of the tenths of the fruits of the earth, they raiſe conſiderable ſums in ſo large an extent of country as this Canton contains, none being exempted, except ſome few ſeigneuries of the gentry. From the third, which is a tax on ſuch lands as are not in the poſſeſſion of the gentry, they levy about twenty pence an acre. From the fourth branch, conſiſting of duties on merchandize, they raiſe but little, the duties being very moderate, and their trade but inconſiderable: but from the fifth branch, ariſing by the ſale of ſalt, they raiſe great ſums, for the States alone retail it to the ſubject, and impoſe what price they pleaſe. There is another caſual tax ariſing from the ſale of all eſtates, the Sovereign being entitled to a ſixth part of the value upon every alienation. What may be the juſt amount of all theſe taxes my author does not attempt to determine; only obſerves, that as their revenues conſiſt chiefly in the ſale of corn and wine, theſe are more or leſs, according to the price ſuch things bear; and as the State ſells none in plentiful ſeaſons, it may happen that ſeveral years together little or no money is laid up in the treaſury: and on the other hand, they may lay up in one year the increaſe of many. Our author relates, that when he reſided amongſt them, namely, about the year 1712, the Canton of Bern, had three hundred thouſand pounds out at intereſt, which, he was credibly informed, did not amount to a ſixth part of what then remained in their treaſury. That thoſe who pretended to gueſs at the annual revenues of Bern and Zurich, lay the firſt at three hundred thouſand crowns per annum, and the other at an hundred and fifty, whereof they compute about two thirds are expended in the ordinary and extraordinary charges of the government, by which computation Bern lays up an hundred thouſand crowns a year, and Zurich fifty: but this he obſerves is meer conjecture, and chuſes therefore to leave the amount of their revenues undetermined. As to the three Catholick Cantons with cities, namely, thoſe of Lucerne, Soleure, and Friburg, though their revenues will do little more than diſcharge the neceſſary expences of the government, yet that little overplus it ſeems puts them in a condition of maintaining a ſmall number of troops every year for three or four months: but the two ſmall Cantons of Bazil and Schaffhauſen are better provided with treaſure than any of the three Catholick Cantons. And it is very neceſſary that theſe republicks ſhould always have ſome money in bank, for they have no extraordinary ways and means of raiſing money upon an emergency, as other States have: the impoſing new taxes on the breaking out of a war, are impracticable here, the greater part of the ſubjects on whom they ſhould be levied, being employed in their militia. And though the people might be willing to contribute what is in their power for their neceſſary defence, they would not be able to maintain a war of any long continuance; and eſpecially the little Cantons, who have no treaſure in bank when the war breaks out, cannot expect that their militia ſhould long remain together at their own expence.

Forces.

Standing forces have ever been thought inconſiſtent with the welfare of theſe republicks ſince their firſt inſtitution; but there is no where in Europe a better-regulated militia: with theſe they have from time to time maintained their liberty againſt all the attempts of the houſe of Auſtria and France; and during the long wars they had with thoſe powers, were eſteemed excellent ſoldiers, though they never kept the field the year round, but when the campaign was ended uſed to return to their reſpective dwellings. The Cantons having continued now upwards of two hundred years in peace with all their neighbours, and having had no wars but among themſelves on account of religion, which have not been very frequent, their troops are not eſteemed equal to what they were formerly. Almoſt the only religious diſputes which have occaſioned a rupture amongſt them, are thoſe in 1531, in 1656, and in 1712. In the two former of which the Catholick Cantons gained great advantages of the Proteſtants; but in the third, which laſted but four months, the Proteſtants broke the power of the Catholick Cantons, and would have made an entire conqueſt of them, if the Catholick Princes in their neighbourhood had not threatened to interpoſe in the quarrel. My author is of opinion, that the preſent Switzers are not at all degenerated from their anceſtors in point of bravery, the troops of that nation in foreign ſervice having behaved to the ſatisfaction of every power that employed them in the late war; and that the charge of their being degenerated amounts to no more than this, That the forces which are newly raiſed amongſt them, and have not been exerciſed with conſtant war, as their anceſtors were, require ſome time to diſcipline them before they can be a match for veteran troops. The reaſons uſually given by theſe people againſt maintaining a body of ſtanding forces, are, 1. That it would endanger their liberties. 2. That very few of the Cantons are able to maintain ſuch a body of troops as would ſecure them againſt an invaſion. And, 3. That a ſtanding army maintained by any of the Cantons in time of peace, would create a jealouſy in the reſt, and induce the neighbouring Princes to interpoſe, and oblige them to diſband ſuch forces. Therefore to maintain their civil governments in perfect freedom and independance, and to avoid giving jealouſy to their neighbours, and that they may be provided with a bank of money in caſe a war ſhould break out; they think it conducive to their proſperity to be without a ſtanding army, and depend upon their militia, who are regulated in the following manner:

Every male from ſixteen to ſixty is enrolled, and about one third of them regimented under the titles of Fuzileers and Electionaries; and out of the other two thirds theſe are from time to time recruited. The Fuzileers are all unmarried men of a good ſize, and in the flower of their age, always ready to march at an hour's warning. The Electionaries are married men, but of an age and ſize fit for ſervice. Every regiment of Fuzileers conſiſts of ten companies, and every regiment of Electionaries of twelve, beſides Staff-officers; there being in each company of Fuzileers an hundred and ten men, and in a company of Electionaries two hundred and eighteen, including officers of all kinds. Every ſoldier provides his own arms, but all are of one make, and of the neweſt faſhion, there being an officer called the Commiſſioner of arms, who inſpects their arms and mounting, and puniſhes thoſe who are not conformable to the ſtandard. They have alſo of late introduced an uniformity of cloathing, being all grey cloth, with facings of different colours to diſtinguiſh the regiments: and having found that horſe are of little uſe in this mountainous country, they have converted all their horſe into dragoons, except that in the Canton of Bern they have one regiment of Cuiraſſiers, which their vaſſals maintain at their own expence. There are ten troops in every regiment of dragoons of ſixty men each, and the horſes as well as arms are of the ſoldiers providing, none being admitted into the dragoons but ſubſtantial farmers, who are always furniſhed with horſes for their huſbandry. And tho' neither horſe nor foot receive pay while they remain at home, yet as ſoon as they take the field, their pay is ſettled after the following manner, double pay being allowed to the officers the firſt month, to enable them to provide their equipage.

The pay of the Field and Staff-Officers per month.

	French Livres.
A Colonel per month	240
A Lieutenant-Colonel	180
Major	165
Aid Major	75
Adjutant	48
Chaplain	75
Surgeon	48
Clerk	24
Prevot	18
Total	873

The pay of a company per month.

	French Livres.
A Captain per month	120
A Captain-Lieutenant	90
Lieutenant	75
Second Lieutenant	60
Enſign	48
Serjeant	15
Each under officer.	12
Each Corporal	8
Each Drum and Fiſe	7
Each Appointee	7
Each Soldier	6

There is only this difference between the pay of the Fuzileers, Electionaries, and Dragoons, namely that the Dragoon-Officers are ſupplied with forage *gratis*, and the Foot-Officers pay for it; and the private dragoon has ſix-pence a day and ammunition-bread, while the foot-ſoldier hath two-pence a day deducted out of the ſix-pence for his ammunition-bread. Every Field-Officer in both hath two ſervants paid by the State on the foot of common ſoldiers, and the Staff-Officers one. The State alſo provides tents, kettles, and hatchets for their ſoldiers, five men being allotted to one tent; and theſe things are laid up in the arſenal when the ſervice is over.

In the magazine of Bern there is always an entire new ſet of arms for all the militia of the Canton, beſides thoſe that are in common uſe; and there is a third ſet for the militia of every bailliage, kept in the caſtle where the Bailiff or Governor reſides; where there is alſo laid up a ſum amounting to three months pay for the whole militia of the bailliage, which money was raiſed upon the ſeveral communities for this purpoſe many years ſince, and is ſtill reſerved for any preſſing occaſion, not having being touched by the State during the laſt war, nor cannot be diſpoſed of without the conſent of the ſeveral communities, ſince the chief of each has a key of this little treaſury, and the Bailiff another.

The Canton of Bern have alſo a very fine train of artillery in their capital, ready to march upon the ſhorteſt warning; beſides a great number of cannon in the caſtles where their Bailiffs reſide: and for the ſervice of their artillery they have three companies of cannoneers, and one of bombardeers, conſiſting of an hundred men each, with proper officers, who are in conſtant pay, and commanded by the Waggon-Maſter-General. Every community is taxed to furniſh the neceſſary horſes and waggons for the uſe of the train and army, and know the proportion which they are to ſend, getting them ready upon the leaſt notice. There belongs alſo to the train an hundred and twenty men of ſeveral trades, as carpenters, ſmiths, wheelwrights, &c. and to theſe is added a company of guides, actually liſted, with their Captain, Lieutenant, and other officers, who have a perfect knowledge of the country.

They have no General or Commander in chief in time of peace; the principal military officer in the Canton of Bern is the Preſident of the council of war. Nor do they fill up the poſts of Secretary of war, Commiſſioners of victualling, Treaſurer, Quarter-maſters, Grand Prevot, and others, till the army is ready to take the field. And whenever a General is appointed for any expedition, there are ſeveral deputies of the Stateſmen of the greateſt rank and experience appointed to accompany him, and be a check upon him, who can undertake nothing of conſequence without their conſent; but the General, with theſe deputies, diſpoſes of all military employments in the field, which in time of peace are in the gift of the Great Council.

For the better diſciplining of theſe troops in the Canton of Bern, which is divided into eight diſtricts, there is an officer called the Grand Major in every one of them, who takes care that all the militia, as well thoſe that are regimented as others, be in a conſtant readineſs to march; and that their arms, ammunition, and cloathing, be in a good condition: for which end he often takes his rounds, viſiting both officers and ſoldiers, and drawing them out at leaſt once a year for a general review. He hath alſo an officer under him in every bailliage, who rides from one community to another, and exerciſes the ſoldiers every Sunday and Holiday after divine ſervice, and ſees that their arms and accoutrements be in order, and puniſhes the neglect of them. There are alſo butts erected in every community, where on certain days of the year they meet to ſhoot at a mark; and the cannoneers do the ſame with their great guns and mortars.

And for the readier aſſembling of their militia, there are ſignals in the moſt conſpicuous places of every bailliage, which conſiſts of wood and ſtraw, with which they make fires in the night-time, or a ſmoke in the day; and at every one of theſe ſignals is a Corporal, with a conſtant guard of ſix men, who ſet fire to the combuſtible matters on the approach of an enemy, or whenever they obſerve any other ſignals lighted, whereupon the whole body of the militia run to their arms, and march to the appointed rendezvous. And what renders them much better diſciplined than the militia of other nations, is, the cuſtom of the young fellows to ſerve three or four years in the Swiſs troops abroad, after which their officers are obliged to permit them to return home; ſo that a good part of their militia have actually been in ſome foreign ſervice, and may therefore well be looked upon as regular troops, who being intermixed with the reſt, ſoon make them as expert as themſelves. What number of forces theſe republicks can raiſe, my author does not determine; but obſerves, that in the late war between the Proteſtant and the Popiſh Cantons, the Canton of Bern had forty thouſand men in the field, and the Canton of Zurich twenty thouſand, though only the regimented troops were raiſed; and theſe, as hath been intimated already, make but a third part of their militia. The ſame eſtabliſhment which is obſerved in the Canton of Bern, is generally practiſed in all the other Proteſtant Cantons; but thoſe of the Catholicks are not always in a condition to furniſh their magazines with corn and other neceſſaries proper for an army when it takes the field.

CHAP. VIII.

Treats of their trade and manufactures.

Trade. THE Switzers export ſcarce any merchandize to foreign countries, except horſes, black cattle, butter, and cheeſe. The French take off great numbers of their horſes in time of war for remounting their cavalry, inſomuch, that my author aſſures us, he has known ten thouſand horſes bought in this country, by the French in the ſpace of a year for the uſe of their army. And the King of Sardania in the late wars had Swiſs horſes for his dragoons and artillery, but thoſe of Germany for remounting his cavalry. Great numbers are alſo ſold into the Milaneſe, and other parts of Lombardy, for their coaches. They diſpoſe of great numbers of their black cattle in Italy, and their cheeſes in moſt countries of Europe. Theſe commodities are common to all the Cantons; but the towns where manufactures may be ſaid to flouriſh, if compared with the reſt, are thoſe of Zurich, Bazil, Schaffhauſen, and St Gall. Zurich is conſiderable for a manufacture of crape, which they have brought to ſome perfection, and export in great quantities. The town of St Gall is as famous for it's linnen, which, though much inferior to that of Holland, is afforded cheaper, and worn by the gentry as well as common people. Bazil and Schaffhauſen are not diſtinguiſhed for any particular kind of manufacture, but lie mighty convenient for a foreign trade, as they are ſituated upon the frontiers of the Empire; for here they have the opportunity of exchanging the merchandizes of France, Italy, and Germany, which brings no ſmall profit to the inhabitants, many of whom are conſiderable merchants. The reſt of the towns of Switzerland enjoy only a little retail trade.

As to their importations, having neither corn or wine ſufficient of their own growth, to ſupply their neceſſities, they are forced to be obliged to their neighbours for them, and are ſupplied chiefly from Suabia and the Milaneſe. Their ſalt is imported from Tyrol, Franche Compte, and Bavaria, with which countries the Sovereigns of each Canton enter into treaties to be ſupplied at a certain price, and make great advantages by retailing it out again to their ſubjects. A ſalt-pit indeed has lately been diſcovered in the Canton of Bern, but it does not yet afford any thing conſiderable. And as there are ſcarce any manufactures of ſilk, wool, or hair, in Switzerland, all their clothing of theſe kinds is alſo imported from abroad, except a very coarſe ſort of woollen ſtuffs, which their peaſants wear. Their mechanicks alſo are ſuch bunglers, that the better ſort of people uſually ſend for their common utenſils from other countries. From all which it is evident, that their importations much exceed their exportations, and their country conſequently grows poorer every day. According to my author, the ſpecies of gold and ſilver are ſcarce ſeen in publick commerce, which proceeds in ſome meaſure, as he obſerves, from the coin being hoarded up by thoſe Cantons who have publick treaſuries, which for want of circulation is loſt to the country, and for want of ſecurities to place their money out at intereſt upon, which obliges them to ſend it to foreign banks, when they have any, whereby the country is deprived of the uſe of it. The balance of trade therefore being much againſt the Switzers, their governors, to prevent the conſumption of foreign goods as much as poſſible, have endeavoured to retrench all ſuperfluities in clothing and furniture by ſumptuary laws, which prohibit the wearing of gold, ſilver, jewels, ſilks, and thread-lace, and whatever elſe is more chargeable than uſeful in dreſs; only the women are a little indulged in the wearing ſilks at weddings and on feſtivals, and on ſome other ſolemn occaſions: but although this hinders the miſchief from increaſing, it is by no means a compleat remedy. Nothing, as my author obſerves, can prevent the exportation of their coin, but the eſtabliſhing manufactures in their country, which may ſerve at leaſt for their own conſumption; and though they have no good wool or ſilk of their own growth, they may however be ſupplied with theſe on moderate terms by their neighbours. When the French Refugees left their country upon the revocation of the edict of Nantz, it ſeems many of them retired into Switzerland, and endeavoured to eſtabliſh ſeveral manufactures there; but not being encouraged or protected by the government, and perſecuted by the natives, who would not ſuffer a foreigner to exerciſe any trade in their cities, the French Proteſtants found themſelves under a neceſſity of removing into other countries; whereby, as my author obſerves, the Proteſtant Cantons loſt the beſt opportunity they are ever like to have of erecting profitable manufactures in their country: as long as their citizens have the privilege of hindering foreigners from exerciſing trades amongſt them, and are ſuch indifferent artiſts themſelves, there is very little hopes of ſeeing manufactures flouriſh among them, or a foreign trade carried on to any advantage.

CHAP. IX.

Treats of the religion of the Switzers.

Religion.

THE Swiſs Cantons, as hath been obſerved already, are divided into Popiſh and Proteſtant, both of them exceeding zealous in their way: the clergy, according to my author, taking more pains to raiſe the averſion and horror of the people againſt the religion of their adverſaries than in countries where there is but one religion profeſſed. The Proteſtant Cantons are rigid Calviniſts, and the reſt had followed their example at the Reformation, ſays the ſame gentleman, if the Catholicks, not truſting their cauſe to the force of argument, had not had recourſe to arms, and made war upon ſuch as embraced the new opinions: in which the Proteſtants were defeated at the battle of Coppelin, anno 1531, whereby the progreſs of the Reformation, received ſome check in this country, many were reduced by force to the Romiſh perſuaſion who had deſerted it, and others confirmed in it that were wavering. Other battles were afterwards fought, in one of which ZUINGLIUS, one of the fathers of the Reformation, was killed; but at length a treaty of pacification was propoſed between the contending parties anno 1531, whereby it was agreed, That each Canton ſhould regulate religious matters in their reſpective territories, and not moleſt their neighbours on thoſe accounts; which reſtored peace to the Cantons at that time: and though there have ſince been ſome ſkirmiſhes amongſt them on account of religion, they have not been of any long continuance. In the year 1566, a Synod of the Proteſtant clergy of Switzerland was aſſembled, where the articles of their faith were drawn up, and entitled, *The Helvetick Confeſſion*: in which they adhere to the doctrines of CALVIN, as to grace, free-will, election, and predeſtination, condemning the tenets of ARMINIUS; inſomuch that they oblige all their clergy, on their admiſſion into Holy Orders, to ſwear that they will defend and maintain the Reformed Religion as it is contained in the Helvetick Confeſſion, and oppoſe Arminianiſm, and all other doctrines contrary to the ſaid confeſſion, to the utmoſt of their power. And notwithſtanding both Popery and Calviniſm are tolerated in their common bailliages, or governments, there is no toleration in the Cantons themſelves, every one who does not profeſs the religion eſtabliſhed, is baniſhed the country; even Lutherans, and every other denomination of Proteſtants: but the diſciples of CALVIN are liable to the ſame pains and diſabilities as the Papiſts are in the Proteſtant Cantons, who look upon themſelves as extremly moderate, that they only baniſh their brethren of a different ſect, and permit them to ſell their eſtates.

By theſe wholeſome ſeverities the Swiſs Calviniſts glory, that they have maintained almoſt a conſtant uniformity in their worſhip ever ſince the Reformation, though they have not been totally free from ſectaries; for in the Canton of Bern two ſects aroſe, the one called Pietiſts, and the other Anabaptiſts. The firſt did not advance any particular doctrines which were not profeſſed by the eſtabliſhed Church; but pretended to a greater ſanctity of life, and purity of manners than their neighbours, and diſtinguiſhed themſelves by abſenting from the publick worſhip, either on pretence of their unworthineſs to approach the houſe of GOD, or that they could not edify by the diſcourſes of worldly-minded men, whoſe lives were a contradiction to their doctrines. They make a covenant with all their ſenſes not to indulge them in any pleaſure, even to ſhun the ſmell of a roſe or violet, and to turn away their eyes from every beautiful object: to avoid as much as poſſible what the world calls innocent pleaſures, leſt their affections ſhould be tainted by any ſenſuality, and diverted from the love of him, who is the only hope and comfort of their beings. But their enemies, it ſeems, charged them with ſpiritual pride, fraud, and inſincerity in their dealings; and that they made uſe of the maſk of religion, only to ſurprize and impoſe on credulous people; and if any of them were found endeavouring to propagate their opinions, and make diſciples, they were baniſhed by the government. As to the Anabaptiſts, their opinions were propagated in the Canton of Bern but very lately. Theſe, 'tis obſerved, ſcruple to acknowledge the power of the magiſtrate, or to take oaths of allegiance to the government they live under; but that which rendered them moſt obnoxious in Switzerland, is their holding it unlawful to bear arms, even in defence of their country; for here being no ſtanding forces kept on foot, but the ſovereign relying entirely upon the militia, if this opinion of the unlawfulneſs of bearing arms, ſhould prevail, they muſt neceſſarily become a prey to the firſt invader. The government therefore obſerving, that their peaſants who were enrolled in the militia, began to excuſe themſelves when they were commanded into the ſervice, on ſcruples of conſcience; thought it high time to puniſh the followers of this ſect, with the utmoſt ſeverity; fining and impriſoning ſome, and baniſhing others, and their baniſhed teachers who returned into the country they hanged. At length they came to a reſolution of baniſhing all Anabaptiſts in general; and above three hundred of them became refugees in Holland only, about the year 1710. But the ſame reaſons the Swiſs Preſbyterians aſſign for perſecuting their brethren that differ from them, for aught I ſee, may be urged by any other Proteſtant government: for inſtance, they urge, 1. That ſhould they tolerate ſectaries, theſe would infallibly join with their Roman Catholick neighbours againſt the eſtabliſhed Church. 2. That no controverſies are managed with more heat and unchriſtian malice, than thoſe which concern religion. And, 3. That theſe diſputes ever have an influence on the ſtate, and frequently endanger the ſubverſion of the government; but if theſe be of any weight in Switzerland, and can juſtify perſecution there, I cannot ſee why they would not excuſe any other government in requiring uniformity in religion. But to proceed: The Swiſs Clergy in ſome of their cities have a great influence, and take the liberty of teaching politicks inſtead of divinity in their pulpits, endeavouring to work up the paſſions of their auditors to their own pitch: but in the Canton of Bern the government confines them to religious ſubjects, and keeps them in an entire dependance on the ſtate.

CHAP. X.

Treats of the allies of the Switzers.

Allies of the Switzers.

THE allies of the Switzers are, 1. The Griſons. 2. The town and county of Neufchatel. 3. The Abbot and City of St Gall. 4. The Valeſians. 5. The republick of Geneva. And, 6. The towns of Malhauſen and Bienne. The moſt conſiderable of whom are the Griſons.

The Griſons. Three leagues.

The country of the Griſons, antiently part of the Roman *Rhætia*, conſiſts of three provinces, united for their common defence. The firſt is ſtiled, the Griſon, or Grey League, and communicates it's name to the whole country. The ſecond is called, The league of the houſe of God, from the Biſhop of Coire's reſiding in it. And the third, The league of the ten juriſdictions, as it comprehended that number of communities.

Their ſituation and extent.

Theſe three leagues, including the countries they have acquired by grant or conqueſt, viz. the Valteline, Chiavenna, and Bormio, are bounded by the circle of Suabia on the north; by the county of Tyrol on the eaſt; by the ſtates of Milan and Venice towards the ſouth; and by the Cantons of Ury, Glaris, and Appenzel towards the weſt; being about an hundred miles in length, and ſixty in breadth. In the Griſon league are twenty-ſeven communities, in that of the Houſe of God twenty-two, and in that of the Ten Juriſdictions fourteen.

Chief towns of the Griſon league. Ilantz, &c.

The chief towns in the Griſon league, are Ilantz, Diſſentis, Flintz, and Splagen. Ilantz is a little town, ſituate on the Rhine, about fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Chur, or Coire, where the aſſemblies of the three leagues meet.

Chief towns of the league of the houſe of God. Coire, &c.

The chief towns in the league of the Houſe of God (which is ſtiled ſometimes Caddee, and by the Germans, Gotthuſpunt) are Chur, or Coire, the capital of the three leagues, Caſſaccia, Veſpurn, and Bergon. Coire, the moſt conſiderable town of the Griſon country, is ſituated at the foot of two mountains, on the banks of the river Pleſur, little more than a mile from the Rhine, and about ſixty to the ſouthward of Conſtance, and was a free Imperial city till the year 1498, when it entered into the Griſon league. The Biſhop of Coire had ſome kind of juriſdiction in this city till the Reformation, and hath ſtill a palace here, a cathedral, and ſome houſes for the Cantons about it; but his revenues are at this day very mean, though he be a Prince of the Empire. The buildings are tolerable, conſidering the country, and the town is encompaſſed with a wall and fortifications, moſt of the inhabitants being Proteſtants.

Chief town of the third league, Davas.

The only town mentioned in the league of the Ten Juriſdictions, is that of Davas, or Tafas, ſituate among the mountains, two leagues to the eaſtward of Coire, of which I meet with nothing remarkable.

Government of the Griſons.

The manners and cuſtoms of the Griſons differ but little from thoſe of the Switzers, any more than their ſoil and climate, and therefore do not need a particular deſcription. They were formerly ſubject to a variety of Princes; ſome of them to petty Sovereigns, others to the Biſhop of Coire, and more of them to the houſe of Auſtria. Thoſe ſubject to the firſt, purchaſed their liberty, or became free by the extinction of the families of their lords. The Biſhops of Coire were deprived of their power at the Reformation, and have now no ſhare or influence in the government of that city, or the territories belonging to it. And the houſe of Auſtria have at ſeveral times ſold all their dominions in this country, except the little lordſhip of Retzuns, of which the Griſons are the immediate ſovereigns. And thus by degrees the Griſons becoming an independent and free people, erected themſelves into a commonwealth, the ſovereign power whereof is veſted in the people; for every male of ſixteen years of age and upwards, has a vote in matters of ſtate, as in the petty Cantons of Switzerland. But then they have a better method of collecting their votes; for the people of every community firſt elect one to repreſent them in a Council or Dyet, and then the perſons ſo elected, amounting to the number ſixty-three, that is, one for every community, meet and debate of their affairs: and in theſe aſſemblies all reſolutions are determined by a majority, as their elections are by a majority of each community, every one of which are governed by their particular laws and cuſtoms, chuſe their own magiſtrates, and are indeed ſo many petty ſtates. The ſeveral communities of each league alſo have their particular Dyets, where they are repreſented by their deputies, and chuſe their chief and other officers annually. There are four other kinds of Dyets, compoſed of the repreſentatives of the three leagues: the firſt is called the general Dyet, conſiſting of a deputy from every community, beſides the three chiefs, which is held once a year in each of the three leagues by turns, the chief of the league where the Dyet is held being Preſident. Theſe meet the latter end of Auguſt, and having conſidered extraordinary affairs, proceed to ſettle the publick accounts, and determine controverſies between the communities, which uſually takes up about three weeks. The ſecond Dyet conſiſts of half the number of deputies, (two communities ſending one by turns) theſe have no fixed times of meeting, but are convoked whenever their affairs require it. The third Dyet, denominated a congreſs, conſiſts only of three deputies from each league, beſides the three chiefs, and meets annually in the beginning of March at Coire, being held for the ordinary affairs of the government. The fourth is a meeting of the three chiefs only, who aſſemble a little before the general Dyet, to prepare matters for them. And every one of theſe aſſemblies may be ſummoned as often as the affairs of the government require it, or any foreign miniſter hath buſineſs to propoſe to them: but in all of them the deputies are ſo limited by their inſtructions, that they cannot take a final reſolution on any matter in debate, but muſt reſort to the communities that ſent them, to have it confirmed.

The ſubjects of the three leagues are a mixture of Proteſtants and Papiſts; but the Proteſtants making two thirds of the people, and all things being determined by a plurality of voices, my author looks upon this republick as a Proteſtant ſtate; eſpecially as they are allied only to the two Proteſtant Cantons of Zurich and Bern. There are only the two bailliages of Meyenfield and Malants within the three leagues, the Governors whereof are removed every two years: but they have eight or nine governments more in the Valteline, and the counties of Bormio and Chiavenna, which three provinces were formerly part of the duchy of Milan, and yielded to the Griſons by the SFORZA's, Dukes of Milan, in conſideration of their ſervices in the wars. And notwithſtanding theſe provinces are ſubject to the Griſons, the Roman Catholick religion only is tolerated here; for in all the treaties between the Sovereigns of Milan and the Griſons, it is ſtipulated, that no Proteſtant ſhall remain there more than ſix weeks in one year, during which time he ſhall not exerciſe his religion; nor are their Proteſtant Governors allowed to keep a Chaplain in their houſes.

The Valteline.

The ſituation and extent.

Chief towns. Tirano.

Sondrio.

The Valteline conſiſts of one large valley, about ten leagues in length, abounding in corn, wine, and oil, and the moſt delicious fruits. The two other counties of Chiavenna and Bormio, are very fruitful, but not in ſo great a degree as the Valteline, which is as valuable for being a paſs between Germany and Italy, as for it's fertility; I ſhall therefore be a little more particular in deſcribing the ſituation of this country: and I find that the Valteline is bounded by the country of the Griſons on the north; by Tyrol towards the eaſt; by the territories of Venice on the ſouth; and by the duchy of Milan towards the weſt; the chief towns whereof are Tirano, Sondrio, and Morbegno. Tirano, the capital of the province, is ſituated on the banks of the river Adda, about ſix miles to the northwards of the territories of Venice, and fifty ſouth-weſt of Coire. Sondrio ſtands upon the Adda, forty miles ſouth of Coire, and is a place of the greateſt ſtrength in the Valteline, and the reſidence of the Governor.

Chiavenna, the ſituation.

The county of Chiavenna is of a ſmall extent, and bounded by the country of the Griſons on the north and weſt; by the Valteline on the eaſt; and by the four governments of Italy on the ſouth; the chief towns whereof are Chiavenna and Pleury.

Chiavenna town.

Pleury town.

Chiavenna is a little town pleaſantly ſituated at the foot of the mountains, upon the river Macra, which near this place falls into the lake of Como. It was antiently a large place, but had the misfortune, great part of it, to be buried by a mountain which hung over the town. And the like accident happened to the town of Pleury on the 25th of Auguſt 1618.

Bormio county.

Bormio city.

The county of Bormio is bounded by the country of the Griſons on the north; by the biſhoprick of Trent on the eaſt; by the Valteline towards the weſt; and by the Venetian territories on the ſouth; being ſurrounded by inacceſſible mountains: the chief town whereof is Bormio, ſituate on the Adda, three miles from it's ſource.

The bailliages in the Valteline, as well as thoſe in Chiavenna and Bormio, are diſpoſed of by each community of the Griſons by turns, and ſold to the beſt bidder, who is always made Bailiff or Governor, and muſt be guilty of great exactions on the poor people under his power, before he can reimburſe himſelf. The ſtated publick revenues of the Griſon leagues are very inconſiderable; and therefore upon a war breaking out, or any other emergency, they tax themſelves in proportion to their abilities, and the neceſſity of the ſervice. The duties ariſing from goods carried through the country, conſtitute the principal part of the publick revenues, if we except the penſions paid them by foreign Princes, which are divided among the common people as well as the magiſtrates: though it may be difficult to diſtinguiſh one from the other, when they are not in the execution of their offices; for their Senators do not think it beneath them to keep inns for the entertainment of travellers, or to exerciſe other mean employments; and, in ſhort, the Griſons may well be reckoned the refuſe of Switzerland. What renders them moſt conſiderable is, the paſſes through their country between Germany and Italy, of which there are four only by which their country is acceſſible; and even theſe may be defended by a very ſmall force. The firſt by the lake of Como, which preſerves their communication with Italy. The ſecond by the valley of Comonica, which gives them an entrance into the territories of Venice. The third by the value of the Inn, which lets them into Tyrol. And the fourth, by a bridge over the Rhine near Coire, they have a communication with Suabia and the Cantons of Switzerland.

Neufchatel and Vallengin.

The counties of Neufchatel and Vallengin alſo are allies of the Switzers: they are ſubject to the ſame Prince, and form together a little ſovereignty, bounded by the biſhoprick of Bazil and the territory of Biel towards the north; by the lake of Neufchatel towards the eaſt; by the Canton of Bern on the ſouth, and by Franche-Compte or Burgundy on the weſt; being about twelve leagues in length from north to ſouth, and ſix in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The air of this country near the lake is temperate; but very ſharp in the mountainous parts of it. The ſoil is ſtony, but produces the beſt wine in Switzerland, by the ſale whereof to foreigners the natives make great advantages. Their language is French, and they reſemble that nation more in their manners and cuſtoms than the Germans, having more vivacity than the reſt of the Switzers, with a good ſhare of vanity.

They are in a manner a free independent people, notwithſtanding they have always had a Prince for their head; for nothing is determined but by the three eſtates. They have alſo the privilege of chuſing their own magiſtrates and ſtandard-bearer, and are ſubject to no taxes but what they lay upon themſelves; and the whole country is of the Reformed Religion, except the two villages of Creſier and Landeron, the inhabitants whereof are Roman Catholicks. Upon the death of the ducheſs of Nemours, the laſt Counteſs of Neufchatel, as heireſs of the houſe of Longueville, the States of the country were inclined to ſubmit themſelves to the late King of Pruſſia, as heir by his mother to the houſe of Orange, which derived it's title to Neufchatel from the marriage of one of it's Princes with the heireſs of the houſe of Chalons, the direct Sovereign of thoſe two counties. Several competitors alſo aroſe at the ſame time, who claimed as heirs in blood to the houſe of Longueville; but the States rejected their claim, and adjudged it to the heirs of the houſe of Chalons; and the King of Pruſſia accordingly took poſſeſſion of it. The chief towns in the county of Neufchatel, are, 1. Neufchatel, the capital; and, 2. Landeron.

Chief towns. Neufchatel.

1. Neufchatel, called by the Germans, *Newburg*, is ſituated at the north-eaſt end of the lake to which it communicates it's name; about twenty miles north-weſt of Bern, and fifteen north-weſt of Friburg. The town is well built, and adorned with ſeveral handſome fountains. It is governed by a Council of ſixty Burghers, and enjoys large privileges; among which the moſt conſiderable is, that they are comburghers or fellow-citizens with the Canton of Bern, which is not only their protector, but umpire of all the differences between them and their Sovereign; and this Canton ſupported them in their religious and civil rights, while they were under the dominion of Popiſh Princes. The Counts of Neufchatel were formerly allied to the Cantons of Bern, Lucerne, Soleure, and Friburg; but ſince the inveſture of the King of Pruſſia, the Popiſh States do not ſeem fond of renewing the alliance, and they may be looked upon now as allied only to Bern.

Landeron.

2. Landeron, ſituate near the lake of Biel, remarkable for the ſtrength of it's ſituation, and a noble caſtle, the reſidence of the Prince.

Vallengin county.

The county of Vallengin lies about a league to the northward of Neufchatel, the chief town whereof is of the ſame name. It is ſituated near the foot of Mount Jura, which ſeparates it from Burgundy, and is divided into five vallies, which contain about forty villiages, the inhabitants whereof are generally Calviniſts.

St Gall, Abbot, his territories.

The Abbot and city of St Gall are alſo allies of the Switzers. The Abbot is Sovereign of a country called the Patrimony of St Gall, lying between the Canton of Zurich and the lake of Conſtance, as alſo of the county of Tockenburg contiguous to it; extending about thirty-ſix miles in length, and twelve in breadth. He aſſumes the title of a Prince of the Empire, which is merely titular, having neither vote or ſeſſion in it. He was alſo formerly Sovereign of the city of St Gall, and of good part of the Canton of Appenzel; but they have both of them purchaſed their liberty, and have now no dependance on him.

St Gall city.

The city of St Gall is ſituated in the Turgow, about five miles ſouth-weſt of the lake of Conſtance, and ten north-weſt of Appenzel, and forms a little commonwealth at preſent, without any territory belonging to it. The government conſiſts of a Great and Little Council, as in other cities of Switzerland, and is of the ariſtocratical kind. Both the Abbot and town of St Gall have the privilege of ſending Deputies to the General Dyets of the Swiſs Cantons, who have ſeſſion, but no votes there. It is one of the beſt towns of trade in the country, and particularly remarkable for it's linnen manufacture, which employs the inhabitants of all ages and conditions. The whole country about them furniſhes them with vaſt quantities of flax, out of which 'tis computed they make annually forty thouſand pieces of linnen, of two hundred ells to the piece, which they ſend into Italy, Germany, and the adjacent countries, in packs carried by mules; by which traffick the natives are ſo enriched, that there is no place where there are found more wealthy Burghers in proportion to the extent of it; or where there are ſo few poor people. In the town of St Gall 'tis computed there are about ten thouſand ſouls; the government reſembling that of the other cities of Switzerland. The abbey and the town are mortal enemies to each other, and every little offence on either ſide works them up into a flame. It is not long ſince, that a Monk, in one of their proceſſions, carrying his croſs erected through the town, with three or four thouſand peaſants attending him, occaſioned a tumult among the citizens, who looked upon it as an unpardonable inſult on their religion, and running to their arms, drew down four pieces of cannon to the gates of the abbey, vowing to be revenged for the affront; but the Catholicks who attended the proceſſion, being let out of the convent by a back way which led into the Abbot's territories, eſcaped their fury. The Abbot however was ſo exaſperated that he raiſed an army, and blocked up that ſide of the town which faces his dominions, prohibiting his ſubjects to furniſh the citizens with any manner of proviſions: when they were juſt upon the point of entering into a war, the Cantons, their protectors, compromiſed the matter; ordering, that the townſmen, who had been too raſh in taking up arms, ſhould pay a fine of two thouſand crowns; and on the other hand, that no prieſt ſhould carry his croſs through their town erected for the future, but let it hang about his neck, without touching it with either hand till he came within the precincts of the abbey. Neither the publick buildings of the town, the abbey, or the abbey-church, are very magnificent; but a collection of the inſcriptions on the walls of this and other Popiſh churches, Mr ADDISON is of opinion, would give us a good idea of the Roman Catholick religion, and ſufficiently expoſe the pride, vanity, and ſelf-intereſtedneſs of the convents, the abuſe of indulgencies, and, in a word, the ſuperſtition, credulity, and childiſhneſs of that religion. The town and abbey of St Gall have a Bear for their arms; and the Catholicks, according to Mr ADDISON, have an uncommon veneration for the memory of that bear which was the occaſion of it; of which one of the Monks of this abbey gave him the following relation, with tears of affection in his eyes. He related, that St GALL, whom they ſtile the great Apoſtle of Germany, found this country little better than a vaſt deſart, occaſioned, I preſume, by it's being over-run with bears and other beaſts of prey; meeting therefore with a bear in his way on a very cold day, he commanded the brute to bring him a bundle of wood and make a fire, which the beaſt having performed, he commanded him to retire into the centre of the wood, and there continue the remainder of his life, which the bear readily obeyed, and neither he nor his relations ever moleſted mankind for the future: from whence their diſciples are taught to believe, that their ſaints can reſtrain the rage of the fierceſt animals, and alter their very natures.

Tockenburg conteſt.

The privileges claimed by the inhabitants of the county of Tockenburg, having not long ſince been the occaſion of a bloody war between the Proteſtant and Popiſh Cantons of Switzerland, the honourable writer above-mentioned, gives us the following account of the differences between the Abbot and that people. He relates, that the laſt Count of Tockenburg having no children, granted ſuch privileges to his ſubjects before he died, that he made them in a manner a free people: for he indulged them in making their own laws, and in chuſing their own magiſtrates, and of entering into an alliance or comburgherſhip with the Canton of Glaris, for ſupporting their rights; whereby by the power of the Sovereign was ſo leſſened, that the ſucceſſor found little more left him than the right of collecting his revenues: all which was however ratified by Count RAREN, who ſucceeded as heir to this principality; who having enjoyed it about thirty years, ſold it to the Abbot of St Gall, with an expreſs reſervation of the rights and privileges of the inhabitants; to which the Abbot alſo conſented, and ratified them afreſh, though he afterwards endeavoured to aboliſh their new privileges, and particularly the comburgherſhip with Glaris, which was their great ſupport; which at length he found means to do, by inſinuating himſelf ſo far into the good opinion of the magiſtrates of Glaris, that they withdrew their protection from the Tockenburghers, and ſuffered their Abbot to tyrannize over them at pleaſure. Whereupon they had afterwards recourſe to the two Proteſtant Cantons of Zurich and Bern, who, for reaſons of ſtate, as well as religion, eſpouſed their cauſe, and ſent a ſolemn deputation to the Abbot, requiring him to permit them to enjoy their religious and civil rights; which he refuſing, the Deputies of the two Cantons went into the county of Tockenburg, and ſaw them reinſtated in their antient privileges. But religion being concerned in the diſpute, the Catholick Cantons of Lucerne, Ury, Switz, Underwald, and Zug, took part with the Abbot; as the Proteſtant Cantons of Bern and Zurich did with the Tockenburghers; and after ſeveral attempts to accommodate matters by treaty in vain, a war broke out in the year 1712, wherein the Proteſtants defeated the forces of the Popiſh Cantons in two pitched battles, taking from them the county of Baden, and ſeveral other territories: and the Popiſh Cantons being no longer able to keep the field againſt their victorious enemies, a treaty was again ſet on foot by the mediation of the French Ambaſſador, and a peace concluded at Arraw, on the terms above-recited in the chapter containing the modern hiſtory of this country. But ſtill the Cantons of Zurich and Bern, kept poſſeſſion of the abbey of St Gall, and other places, which they had taken from that Abbot, he refuſing to reſtore the Tockenburghers to their privileges: for the Abbot ſtiling himſelf a Prince of the Empire, though he hath neither vote or ſeſſion in the Dyets of the Empire, appealed to the Emperor as his Sovereign, alledging that Tockenburg was a fief of the Empire, and if there was any diſpute between him and his ſubjects, it ought to be determined in the Empire, and not by the neighbouring Cantons: and this was a doctrine ſo extremely pleaſing to the Emperor, that he gave the Abbot ſome hopes of aſſiſting him againſt the Proteſtant Cantons, if they refuſed to abide by his determination of the matter, at the ſame time offered his mediation to compoſe their differences. But the Cantons of Bern and Zurich, refuſed to accept it; alledging, that they were a free people, and had no dependance on the Empire; and if they ſhould ſubmit their diſputes to the Emperor, this would give him a handle to renew his pretenſions to their whole country. And in this ſtate, things remained till the year 1718, when the old Abbot being dead, and another of a more pacifick temper ſucceeding him, the Proteſtant Cantons, to avoid the intermeddling of any foreign powers in their affairs, agreed to reſtore all the territories that had been taken from the Abbot, and to acquieſce in more moderate terms for their allies the Tockenburghers, than they had at firſt inſiſted on: particularly, it was ageeed, that the Tockenburghers ſhould acknowledge the Abbot for their Sovereign, and do him homage accordingly. That the Council of Regency ſhould conſiſt of ſixty perſons, choſen out of the ſeveral diſtricts of the country by the Commons, whereof one half ſhould be Calviniſts, and the other Catholicks, and no member be changed as long as he was capable of ſerving, and behaved well. That this council ſhould elect the Preſident, his Vicar, and a Treaſurer. That the Vicar du Banderet and his officers ſhould be alternately of the religions above mentioned. That the Secretaries, Commiſſaries, and Sautiers, ſhould be as many of the one religion as of the other. That this Council ſhould aſſemble once a year at leaſt. That the juſticiary of the county, ſhould conſiſt of a Preſident and twenty-four Judges; the Preſident always to be the Bailiff of Tockenburg, who with the Judges, ſhould be appointed by the Abbot, and conſiſt of an equal number of each religion. This court to take cognizance of all criminal cauſes, and all fines and confiſcations to belong to the Abbot. The court of appeals to be compoſed of an equal number of each religion, one half to be appointed by the Abbot, and the other by the Council of Regency. That there ſhould be only the two religions above-mentioned tolerated in the county; and the miniſters of the Reformed ſhould be allowed to exerciſe diſcipline, and not be ſubject to the viſitation of thoſe of another religion. That if any diſpute ſhould ariſe for the future, between the Abbot and his ſubjects, each party ſhould chuſe three perſons out of the Cantons, who ſhould determine the matters in difference.

The Valais, or Valinza.

The republick of Valais is another allie of the Switzers, which takes it's name from a valley, inhabited by the ſubjects of this little commonwealth; which extends from the like of Geneva to the mountain called La Fourche, where the Rhone hath it's ſource, and is divided into two parts by that river, which runs through the middle of it, and frequently overflows great part of the country. This county is called by the Germans *Walliſſerand* and *Valinza*; and is bounded by Switzerland on the north and eaſt; by the Milaneſe and the duchy of Aouſt on the ſouth; and by Savoy on the weſt; and is about eighty miles in length, and from ten to twenty in breadth. It is ſeparated from the Canton of Bern and Savoy by mountains of a prodigious height, which are always covered with ſnow; and is uſually divided into the Upper and Lower Valais: the Upper Valais is again ſubdivided into ſeven independent communities, reſembling thoſe of the Griſons, and the Lower into ſix. Their mountains afford paſture for numerous herds of cattle in the ſummer, and the valley produces corn and wine, and a great variety of delicious fruits; but it is to the induſtry of the inhabitants, that this fertility of the low lands is in a great meaſure to be aſcribed, who with incredible labour, convey the water from the rocks and mountains, by wooden troughs, or channels, for two miles together in ſome places, being obliged to cut a paſſage through the rocks to lay them in. The harveſt continues in this country from May to October, being ſooner or later, according to the ſituation of the place. In the compaſs of one day's travelling we find a variety of ſeaſons, winter on one ſide a mountain, and ſummer on the other; while the ſpring appears in all it's beauty in a third place. 'Tis ſaid, there are mines of ſilver, copper, iron, and lead in ſome of their hills; but, I preſume, ſcarce worth the working, or the poor Swiſs would have been maſters of more treaſure than we find they are. The chief towns are Syon the capital, Martinach, and St Maurice.

Chief towns.

Syon, Martinach, St Maurice.

Syon, the *Sedunum* of the antients, a town of *Gallia Narbonenſis*, called by the Germans *Sitte*, ſtands upon the river Sitte, which a little below falls into the Rhone, being about fifty miles to the ſouthward of Bern, and ſixty to the eaſtward of Geneva. It is the ſeat of the Biſhop, who is a Prince of the Empire, and was formerly Sovereign of great part of the country; but his power is much diminiſhed of late, and the government changed into a republick, though the Biſhop ſtill preſides in their councils as their head, and hath a conſiderable influence on their affairs. The ſeven communities of the Upper Valais (to which the Lower is ſubject) ſend Deputies to their Dyets in the ſame manner as the Griſons do, and their commonwealth is governed in the ſame manner. The Valeſians were antiently allied to the Canton of Bern, but are now much more nearly allied to the Catholick Cantons, both by intereſt and inclination, as they are themſelves of the Catholick religion.

Geneva, ſituation, &c.

The next allie of the Switzers I ſhall mention is the city of Geneva, which ſtands at the ſouth-weſt end of the lake Lemman, or Geneva, in the latitude of forty-ſix degrees, twenty-five minutes, thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Lauſanne, and ſeventy ſouth-weſt of Bern, being divided in two parts by the river Rhone, the ſouth part of which is much the larger, and ſtands upon a hill; the other, which belongs to the country of Gex, is called Gervais, and ſtands upon a flat. There is a communication between them, by three wooden bridges; travellers take particular notice of two handſome ſtreets, the one extending along the banks of the river and lake, and the other aſcending the hill. The houſes lately built, are generally of hewn ſtone, but the reſt make no extraordinary figure; the moſt remarkable of their publick buildings are. 1. The Church of St PETER, formerly the cathedral, a handſome pile, wherein is the tomb of HENRY II, Duke of Rohan. 2. The town-houſe. And, 3. The publick library; but theſe don't ſeem to merit a particular deſcription. In ſhort, the town is not to be admired ſo much for it's beauty, as for the water, the fine walks and proſpects about it, which render it a pleaſant abode. The walls are upwards of two miles in circumference, and the fortifications ſufficient to prevent a ſudden ſurprize, but would not be able to endure a long ſiege. It's greateſt ſecurity conſiſts in the protection of it's allies, the Cantons of Bern and Zurich, and in it's being the intereſt of France, to prevent Savoy's taking poſſeſſion of it, and of Savoy, that it ſhould not fall into the hands of France. Otherwiſe, either of theſe powers, whoſe territories are almoſt contiguous to the walls of their city, might ſoon reduce the place. The inhabitants, 'tis computed, amount to about thirty thouſand men, of whom, five thouſand may be able to bear arms; though in their arſenal, which is kept in admirable order, there are arms for twelve thouſand men; and here they ſtill preſerve the ſcaling-ladders and arms they took from the Savoyards, when they attempted to ſurprize the city. The lower rank of people are a clowniſh generation, converſing with their cattle all the ſummer, whom they drive up the mountains about the middle of May, living in huts, and managing the buſineſs of the dairy till the winter returns, and then they come back to their dwellings in the town. The people of condition are eſteemed polite, many French and Italians of the Calviniſtical ſtrain, reſiding amongſt them, and ſeveral other nations making it their road to Italy. This town was antiently under the dominion of the Romans, and afterwards of the Burgundians. It was once alſo an Imperial town, and the Dukes of Savoy have had the ſovereignty of it. The Counts and Biſhops of Geneva, ſeem for ſome time to have had a mixed juriſdiction in the place; but at the Reformation their Biſhop was their Sovereign in temporals as well as ſpirituals. In the year 1533, the people expelled their Biſhop, and erected a form of government, reſembling that of the neighbouring cities of Switzerland; for they have a Great Council of two hundred, in whom the legiſlative power is lodged, and another choſen out of it, conſiſting of five and twenty members, who have the executive power: theſe, however, adviſe with a third Council, called the Council of State, conſiſting of ſixty members, taken out of the Great Council. Sixteen of the members of the Great Council, are always of the degree of Burghermaſters, or Syndicks, four of whom are in office every year; the firſt preſiding in matters of State: the ſecond hath the direction of the hoſpitals: the third has the care of the militia; and the fourth is called the Burghermaſter of the Reformation, who ſees all orders and acts of their Synod and State put in execution. They have alſo their Treaſurer, and other officers of State, as in other Swiſs republicks. Cauſes are heard in the firſt inſtance, before five members of the Leſſer Council, and others aſſociated with them. The government is of the ariſtocratical kind; but of late years the common people have proved mutinous, and compelled their ſuperiors to part with ſomething of their power; alledging that they had formerly a greater ſhare in the adminiſtration, and have been unjuſtly deprived of their rights and privileges by the leading men. Their Church is true Preſbyterian, having been formed by JOHN CALVIN in perſon, about the year 1535. It is now governed by their city clergy, who are fifteen in number, and the Burghermaſter for Reformation, with ſix others elected out of the Great Council, and this aſſembly is called the Conſiſtory; but their decrees are of no force, till they are ratified by the Great Council. Their people in the neighbouring country, make thirteen congregations, whoſe paſtors at certain times of the year aſſemble with the city clergy, and form a ſynod, making acts for the government of the Church within their little territory, which are alſo ratified by the Great Council. They take care to keep their clergy humble in this State, by allowing them moderate ſalaries, of fifty or threeſcore pounds a year a-piece, though as every thing is cheap, this will preſerve them from extreme want. The Preſbyterians here are in ſome inſtances, as rigid as their brethren in this part of the world. They will allow of neither cards, drinking, or dancing; but then they are not near ſo ſtrict in keeping the ſabbath, as the Engliſh and Scotch Preſbyterians, for they allow and even authorize all manly exerciſes on Sundays, after divine ſervice; the graveſt of them go to bowls, and their militia are then exerciſed by an act of State.

The ground about Geneva is not unfruitful, conſiſting of gardens, vineyards, meadows, and rich paſtures on the neighbouring hills; but their territories are very ſmall, being hemmed in by the dominions of France or Savoy, and the lake on three ſides, and on the fourth, their lands ſcarce extend four miles in length. The lake, it hath been obſerved already, is about ſixty miles in length, and twelve in breadth; and produces a great variety of good fiſh, eſpecially trouts, which weigh forty and fifty pounds a fiſh; and 'tis ſaid, in ſome places, not to be leſs than four or five hundred fathoms deep. The town has a good trade, which would be much better, if the Rhone was navigable from hence into France; but about ten miles below the city, there is ſuch a cataract, or water-fall, that no veſſels can paſs it, after which the river takes it's courſe under ground, riſing again at Seyſſel; from whence it is navigable to the mouth. Their principal manufactures are thoſe of gold and ſilver lace, ſilks, and ſhammy leather. And there is an univerſity here, but no ſalaries ſettled on the Profeſſors, whoſe gain ariſes chiefly from their pupils and diſciples. The language of the common people, is the Savoyard, or a very bad dialect of the French tongue, but people of condition ſpeak it in greater purity. This republick was antiently allied to the Catholick, as well as Proteſtant Cantons, but ſince they have adhered to the doctrine of CALVIN, the Catholicks ſeem to have dropped their alliance with this city.

Mr ADDISON gives an elegant deſcription of the city and lake of Geneva, and the neighbouring country, though his deſcription of the town is but partial. The greateſt part of the city, he obſerves, ſtands upon a hill, having it's views bounded on all ſides by ſeveral ranges of mountains, at a conſiderable diſtance, which leave open a wonderful variety of beautiful proſpects. Theſe mountains cover it from all winds, except the ſouth and north, to the laſt of which, the natives of Geneva aſcribe the healthfulneſs of the air: for as the Alps ſurround them on all ſides, they form a vaſt baſon, where there would be a conſtant ſtagnation of vapours in this watery country, did not the north wind put them in motion, and ſcatter them from time to time. Another effect the Alps have on Geneva is, that the ſun riſes later here, and ſets ſooner, than it does in other places of the ſame latitude, the ſun gilding the tops of the neighbouring mountains, half an hour after it is down with them. Theſe mountains alſo add much to the ſummer-heats, and form an horizon that hath ſomething in it very ſingular and agreeable. On one ſide lie a long tract of hills, that go under the name of Mount Jura, covered with vineyards and paſturage; on the other, huge precipices of naked rocks, riſing up in a thouſand odd figures, and cleft in ſome places, ſo as to diſcover high mountains of ſnow, which lie ſeveral leagues behind them. Towards the ſouth, the hills riſe more inſenſibly, and leave the eye a vaſt uninterrupted proſpect of many miles: but the moſt beautiful view is the lake, and the borders of it, which lie north of the town. This lake reſembles a ſea, in the colour of it's waters, and the ſtorms that are raiſed in it, and in ſummer hath ſomething like an ebb and flow, which ariſes from the melted ſnow that falls into it more plentifully at noon, than at other times of the day. It is encompaſſed by the dominions of five different powers, namely, thoſe of France, Savoy, Bern, the biſhoprick of Sion, or the Valais, and the republick of Geneva. The right ſide of the lake going from Geneva belongs to the Duke of Savoy, and is extremely well cultivated: here the traveller is entertained with a variety of proſpects, conſiſting of woods, vineyards, meadows, and corn-fields, which lie on the borders of it, and run up the ſides of the Alps. The nearer we approach the eaſt end of the lake, the mountains on both ſides grow thicker and higher, till at length they almoſt meet, and we often ſee on the tops of the mountains ſeveral ſharp rocks, which ſtand above the reſt; for the ſoil, which originally covered theſe mountains, and rendered them much higher than they are at preſent, having been waſhed away by the rains, has left the veins of ſtone bare, which ſupported them. The natural hiſtories of Switzerland contain various accounts of the fall of ſuch rocks, and the miſchief they have done, when their foundations have mouldered away with age, or been rent by an earthquake. Thoſe vaſt receptacles of ſnow, which are found on the mountain tops, and in the hollows of the Alps, the ingenious Mr ADDISON is of opinion, are the occaſion of thoſe periodical fountains that are found in Switzerland, and flow only at certain hours of the day; for as theſe mountains caſt their ſhadows upon one another, they hinder the ſun's ſhining on ſeveral places at certain times, and conſequently prevent the ſun's melting the ſnow that covers them ſome hours every day. Whenever it happens therefore, that a fountain takes it's riſe from theſe reſervoirs of ſnow, it will naturally begin to flow on ſuch hours of the day, as the ſnow begins to melt; but as ſoon as the ſun leaves it again to freeze and harden, the fountain dries up, and receives no more ſupplies, till about the ſame time the next day, when the heat of the ſun again ſets the ſnows a running, that fall into the ſame little conduits and canals, and conſequently break out, and diſcover themſelves always in the ſame place. But to return to the lake of Geneva: at the eaſt end the river Rhone falls into it, bringing with it a prodigious quantity of water in the ſummer; for the ſnows melting at this ſeaſon, both lakes and rivers are then much higher than in the winter: but the Rhone does not preſerve it's water unmixed with thoſe of the lake, as ſome writers have reported; there is indeed a ſtream diſcernable for about a quarter of a mile from it's entrance, but it is afterwards wholly mixed and loſt with the waters of the lake; nor is there any manner of current to be perceived till we come within a quarter of a mile of Geneva. The greateſt town on the lake next to Geneva, is Lauſanne, which ſometimes communicates it's name to it; but the town of Morge, between this place and Geneva, is looked upon as the beſt port, and has ſome appearance of trade. There is a noble proſpect of Geneva from the lake, which as we approach the town grows narrower gradually, till at length it changes it's name into the Rhone, turning a great number of mills in it's paſſage through the town, and is extremely rapid, though it's waters are very deep.

Geneva is much the politeſt town in Switzerland, according to Mr ADDISON, and may be looked upon as the court of the Alps. Hither the Proteſtant Cantons frequently ſend their children for education: but notwithſtanding ſome think that the Genevois have been of late refined by the converſation of the French Proteſtants, who make up one third of it's inhabitants; others are of opinion, they are rather corrupted than poliſhed, having forgot the advice given them in their Great Council by Father CALVIN, who there recommended to them above all things, an exemplary modeſty and humility, and as great a ſimplicity in their manners as in their religion; and their endeavouring to make a more ſplendid figure at this day, 'tis thought, will not turn much to their advantage. 'Tis well, ſays my author, if the great riches they are proud of being thought maſters of, do not one day tempt the French King to reduce this wealthy town; for they are pleaſed to boaſt that ſome of their merchants are worth four hundred thouſand pounds a man, who do not however ſpend five hundred pounds a year. But there is one thing very commendable in this, as well as in other Swiſs republicks, and that is their laying up corn in their publick granaries in plentiful years, and retailing it out to the common people at a moderate price when it is ſcarce. At Geneva three of the little Council are deputed for this office, who are obliged to ſtore up grain ſufficient to ſerve the people at leaſt two years in caſe of a famine; but none of theſe three directors are allowed to furniſh the granaries from their own ſtock, that they may have no temptation to impoſe on the publick, either in the price or goodneſs of the commodity; nor may they buy any corn, within twelve miles of Geneva. All publick-houſes are obliged to buy their corn of the State; ſo that it is changed every two years, and is not in danger of ſpoiling by being kept too long. And this is one of the moſt conſiderable branches of the publick revenue, ſuch corn being ſold out much dearer than it is bought.

Bienne.

The little town of Bienne, or Biel, allied to the Canton of Bern, is ſituated at the head of the lake of Bienne, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Soleure, and fifteen north-eaſt of Neufchatel; the Biſhop of Bazil, or Porentru, hath ſome kind of ſovereignty of it, but ſo limited, that they are generally eſteemed a free people, for they elect their own magiſtrates, and are governed by their own laws, only they are obliged to ſerve him in his wars, where the Canton of Bern are not parties; for they are comburghers and fellow-citizens with that Canton, which protects them in their religious and civil rights, being of the ſame perſuaſion in religious matters.

Mulhauſen.

The laſt allie of the Switzers I meet with, is the city of Mulhauſen, ſituate near Bazil, upon the river Ill in the Upper Alſatia, which is indeed, beyond the limits of Switzerland. It is a petty republick, of a very ſmall extent, which embraced the Reformation, at the ſame time the city of Bazil did, on which account theſe two cities concluded a treaty of comburgherſhip; by which means Mulhauſen became a member of the Helvetick body, but moſt ſtrictly allied to the Proteſtant Cantons: for whatever alliances may have been made between the Proteſtant and Catholick States of Switzerland, little benefit is to be expected from them; each member infallibly adheres to thoſe of the ſame religion, let the controverſy be what it will.

CHAP. XI.

Treats of the intereſt of Switzerland.

The intereſt of the Switzers.

THE Switzers we find ſituated in the heart of Europe: Their country ſurrounded by inacceſſible mountains, a hardy race of people, able to defend themſelves againſt all the world, if they were united, but much more formidable before religion divided them into parties and factions, than they are at preſent. The Proteſtants are much the ſtronger indeed, if no foreigner was to interpoſe in their quarrels; but as they are encompaſſed by Catholick Princes and States, who are always ready to aſſiſt their brethren againſt hereticks, the Proteſtant Cantons have no reaſon to look upon themſelves to be in a ſtate of perfect ſecurity. They were ſucceſsful indeed in the war 1712, and ſtill retain what they conquered of the Popiſh Cantons, but ſeem to have irritated them to that degree, that it is a queſtion now, whether the reſtoration of thoſe territories would reconcile them; for thoſe of the Popiſh communion frequently threaten the Proteſtants to call in ſome foreign power, and even to ſubmit themſelves to a ſtrange dominion, rather than not be compleatly revenged of their enemies. It is true, it cannot be the intereſt of the Germans, to ſtand by and ſee the French poſſeſſed of Switzerland; and yet, if France ſhould eſpouſe the cauſe of the Popiſh Cantons, it would be very dangerous for the Proteſtants to fly to the Emperor's protection, who to this day pretends a title to their country. They would in theſe circumſtances be reduced to a very hard Dilemma, namely, whether they would take the French or Germans to be their maſters; for nothing is more evident than that if the French, or German, was to join either party, the other would not be able to ſtand it's ground without foreign aſſiſtance. On the other hand, if the Swiſs were united, they need not fear all the forces of their neighbours. On the contrary, they would be courted by the nations that ſurround them; for they are exceeding populous, and moſt of their able men enrolled in their militia, which, for the reaſons abovementioned, are very near as good as veteran troops; and conſequently in any conteſts between France and the Empire, they would be able to turn the ſcale to which-ever ſide they inclined. There is no doubt therefore, that it is abundantly the intereſt of this people more than any other to be unanimous, which they can't but be ſenſible of; and yet ſuch are their miſunderſtandings, or rather implacable malice againſt each other, that it does not require the gift of prophecy to foretel, that they will never be united again. Religious feuds which happen between people of the ſame country, where their paſſions are perpetually whetted by oppoſition, are ſeldom appeaſed but by the utter ruin of the one or the other party. The weaker ſide will rather run the hazard of being conquered and enſlaved by foreigners, than be tyrannized over by a domeſtick faction of a different communion. The neighbouring powers indeed contemn their folly, and do not court their alliance as formerly: Inſtead of paying every Canton a penſion to purchaſe their friendſhip, they have nothing to do at preſent, but to play the one againſt the other, and offer their protection to the weaker ſide, which will as ſurely engage them in their intereſt as a ſtipend uſed to do. This is the caſe of the Popiſh Cantons, who will in a few years poſſibly become a province of France; whoſe Prince they already look upon as their protector. There is no nation courts them more, or takes off more of their troops, which is eſteemed the greateſt favour that can be done to a Swiſs republick; becauſe it is a proviſion for many of their leading men, who are at the ſame time trained up in the art of war, on which account they are at their return more reſpected than any claſs of men in their country.

The reaſon the French employ more of the Swiſs than any other nation does, is, becauſe their own foot are not of a ſize able to ſtand the ſhock of the German and Dutch infantry (and it would be the ſame with their horſe and dragoons, if they were not all of them pick'd men). The Confederates in the late wars, 'tis true, had ſome Swiſs among their troops, but the bulk of their mercenaries came from Germany and Denmark, whoſe troops are very little, if at all inferior to thoſe of the Swiſs. Theſe the French could not have, becauſe in a different intereſt, and therefore were under a neceſſity of entertaining greater numbers of Swiſs than the Allies did. And I believe the Dutch value the Swiſs more than any other troops, becauſe they raiſe them in the Proteſtant Cantons, who are of the ſame ſect, and can rely on their fidelity, more than on the troops of any neighbouring Prince or State, whoſe Sovereigns are more likely to be in an oppoſite intereſt: Nay, it ſeems the Dutch retain ſeveral Swiſs regiments in their ſervice, in time of peace, though their pay is higher than that of their own ſoldiers, and at the ſame time diſband their national troops. And here I can't avoid making one obſervation on the diſciples of CALVIN, or the reformed churches in general, which is, That let them be never ſo far diſtant from each other, and ſeparated by ſeas or inacceſſible mountains, ſtill they maintain a conſtant correſpondence, and promote their common intereſt with all their might. The King of Pruſſia and the Hollander, whenever they have the leaſt intimation that thoſe of their communion are in danger of being oppreſſed, leave no ſtone unturned to relieve them; and particularly, intereſt themſelves in the affairs of their Swiſs brethren, whenever they find them threatened by any neighbouring power. And perhaps the Proteſtant Cantons, relying upon the mediation of ſuch mighty ſupporters, are the leſs ſollicitous of cultivating a friendſhip with the Cantons of a different perſuaſion, imagining that by the countenance of ſuch powerful allies, they ſhall be able to maintain their ground againſt their enemies of the Popiſh religion, both at home and abroad; not conſidering that if the Cantons of the Roman communion ſhould unite their arms either with France or the Emperor, they might be diſpoſſeſſed of their country before any of their diſtant friends could be apprized of their diſtreſs. And though they are ſure to have the Emperor for them whenever they are attacked by France, and on the contrary, the French for them if they are attacked by the Emperor; yet it is highly probable, that which ſide ſoever remains conqueror, their privileges would be at leaſt retrenched, if they were not made a province to the one or the other. There is ſcarce an inſtance where different factions have called in foreigners to their aſſiſtance, but the conſtitution of that kingdom has undergone very great alterations, if it has not been entirely deſtroyed. In every view therefore, it muſt be of the laſt importance to the Swiſs to remain united, they can never otherwiſe make the figure in the world they have done, or indeed hope long to remain a nation.

'Tis true, the diſciples of each communion, where they happen to be intermingled, as in ſome of the leſſer Cantons, and in many of their common bailliages, can ſcarce avoid giving daily provocations to each other: the very rites and ceremonies of one religion are offenſive to the people of the other, and every ſolemn proceſſion proves a freſh occaſion of a quarrel; while the Prieſts of each religion, out of an indiſcreet zeal, march as it were in triumph upon theſe occaſions, and cannot forbear inſulting their opponents. The many arts that are uſed in making proſelytes, adminiſter alſo fewel to the flame, and a private converſation ſometimes arms the whole country. The Proteſtants relate, that a Popiſh Prieſt having applied himſelf to one of their diſciples, in order to reconcile him to the Romiſh Church, and finding no other arguments would prevail, threatened that the devil would fetch him on a certain day, if he remained obſtinate to the offers of grace. The fellow being apprehenſive that ſome trick would be played him, procured two of his comrades to keep him company at the time appointed; and while he was thraſhing in his barn, a figure appeared to him in ſo monſtrous a ſhape, that his companions imagined Satan was come for him in good earneſt, and immediately took to their heels; but whether the countryman had more courage than his friends, or was frightened to that degree he could not tell what he did, does not appear: however, certain it is, he fell upon the pretended phantom with his flail, and finding it to be compoſed of fleſh and bones, did not leave off thraſhing till he had beat his brains out; and coming to examine him more narrowly, found that this was the very Prieſt who had threatened him with this apparition, which he did not ſcruple proclaiming in the neighbourhood. Whereupon the Catholicks immediately aſſembled, and drew up a charge againſt the huſbandman for murdering one of the fathers of their church: and ſuch was the fury of both parties, that nothing could appeaſe them till they had recourſe to arms, and had engaged almoſt the whole country of Switzerland in the quarrel, which laſted a great while before it was made up. Every little treſpaſs alſo is ready to throw them into a ſtate of war: ſome young Students of Geneva, it ſeems, going out a ſhooting, and having juſt paſſed the territories of the republick, happened to ſhoot a fowl which belonged to the Duke of Savoy's ſubjects: this occaſioned an inſurrection of the mob in each country, and ſome on both ſides were killed in the fray: nor did it end here, but the Duke of Savoy demanded an hundred thouſand crowns of the city of Geneva, for every fowl that was killed, and that the offenders ſhould be delivered up to his mercy: nor could the republick pacify him till it had coſt them conſiderable ſums.

Another occaſion of frequent miſunderſtandings I find is, an agreement that both the Switzers and Griſons entered into with the State of Milan, and other Catholick powers, above an hundred years ſince, for the ſecurity of the Catholick religion in the countries granted to them; wherein it was particularly ſtipulated, That no Proteſtant ſhould be ſuffered to ſettle there: which article not being much attended to at firſt, there happens to be ſeveral Proteſtant families in thoſe countries which have continued there theſe hundred years. Of this the Popiſh Powers now complain, requiring that they may be baniſhed the country, in purſuance of the above-mentioned treaties. The Proteſtants, on the other hand, thinking it unreaſonable that their brethren ſhould be driven from their dwellings after ſo long a ſettlement, refuſe to comply with the demand. Nor are theſe differences like to be compoſed in haſte, eſpecially in the Valteline, the Emperor refuſing to renew his alliance with the Griſons, unleſs all the Proteſtants are expelled the country. From theſe in ſtances it appears, how unhappy it is to have two different religions eſtabliſhed in one country, the diſciples of each perpetually ſtruggling for dominion, or to be revenged on their opponents for every injury or affront they conceive to be offered to them by the votaries of a different communion. Much happier are the Dutch republicks, who, notwithſtanding they tolerate all opinions in religion, ſuffer only the diſciples of one to have any ſhare in the government: nor will they bear an occaſional conformiſt amongſt them; but if a magiſtrates goes to a conventicle or place of divine worſhip which is only tolerated, and whoſe rites are not conformable to thoſe of the national church, he is ever after rendered incapable of any place of profit or truſt in the ſtate: though, 'tis true, there are other kingdoms and ſtates whoſe governors countenance every faction, and dread nothing more than an union among their ſubjects, leſt they ſhould come to conſider their common intereſts, which are too often oppoſite to thoſe of their reſpective courts.

Mr Addiſon's Remarks on part of Switzerland.

Lauſanne.

The country of Vaud.

Cæſar's wall.

I ſhall conclude the deſciption of Switzerland with ſome of Mr Addison's obſervations in his travels through this country. At Lauſanne, the largeſt town on the Lemman lake next to that of Geneva, this gentleman took a view of the wall of the cathedral church, which was opened by an earthquake, and cloſed again ſome years after by another: the crack indeed was but juſt diſcernable when he ſaw it, but there were ſeveral people in the town then living, who had formerly paſſed through the breach. The country between Lauſanne and Geneva, he obſerves, is the moſt fruitful and beſt cultivated of any among the Alps. 'Twas formerly under the dominion of the Duke of Savoy, but taken from him by the Canton of Bern, and confirmed to that Canton by the treaty of St Julian. About five miles from Nyon, they ſtill ſhew the ruins of Cæsar's wall, which extended eighteen miles in length, viz. from Mount Jura, to the banks of the lake of Geneva, as Cæsar has deſcribed it in the firſt book of his Commentaries.

Friburg.

A remarkable hermitage.

From Lauſanne my author travelled to Friburg, the capital of one of the leargeſt Popiſh Cantons, the ſituation whereof is ſo irregular among rocks and precipices, that they are forced to climb up to ſeveral parts of it by ſtair-caſes of a prodigious aſcent, The college of Jeſuits here is ſaid to be the fineſt in Switzerland, from whence there are ſeveral beautiful proſpects: and they have a collection of pictures, repreſenting moſt of the fathers of their order, among whom are ſome natives of England, by us ſtiled Rebels, and by them Martyrs. The inſcription under Henry Garnet relates, that when the Hereticks could not prevail on him, either by force or promiſes to change his religion, they hanged and quartered him. Two leagues from Friburg there is a little hermitage, eſteemed one of the greateſt curioſities in Switzerland. It lies in the prettieſt ſolitude imaginable, among woods and rocks, which at firſt view incline one to be ſerious. The hermit had lived here five and twenty years, and with his own hands wrought out of the rock a pretty chapel, a ſacriſty, a chamber, kitchen, cellar, and other conveniencies. His chimney is carried up through the whole rock, notwithſtanding the rooms lie very deep; and he has cut the ſide of the rock into a level for a garden, to which he brings the earth he finds in the neighbouring parts, and has made ſuch a ſpot of ground of it, as furniſhes out a kind of luxury for a hermit; and as he obſerved the drops of water diſtilling from ſeveral parts of the rock, by following the veins of them he has made himſelf two or three fountains in the bowels of the mountain, which ſerve his table, and water his little garden.

High-ways.

Bern.

The ways from Friburg to Bern are very bad, great part of them through woods of fir-trees, of which they have ſuch great quantities, that they mend their high-ways in this country with wood inſtead of ſtone. The publick walks by the great church at Bern are worth the viewing: they are raiſed extremely high, and that their weight might not break the walls and pilaſters which ſurround them, they are built upon arches and vaults. Theſe walks afford the nobleſt ſummer's proſpect in the world, for here you have the full view of a huge range of mountains that lie in the country of the Griſons, and are covered with ſnow. They are about fourſcore miles diſtance from Bern, but their height and colour make them ſeem much nearer. The cathedral ſtands on one ſide of theſe walks, and is eſteemed the moſt magnificent Proteſtant church in Europe, out of England. The town of Bern is well ſupplied with water, there being a great variety of beautiful fountains at equal diſtances, from one end of their ſtreets to the other.

Soleure.

Soleure, or Soluthurn, our author looks upon as the politeſt town in this country. The French King, Lewis XIV, advanced large ſums towards the building of the Jeſuits Church here, which is eſteemed the fineſt modern building in Switzerland; and the whole fortifications round the town are faced with marble.

Convenience of water-carriage.

Here, and in all other parts of Switzerland, the wine that grows in the Pais de Vaud on the banks of the lake of Geneva, is very cheap, notwithſtanding the great diſtance between the vineyards and the places where the wine is ſold; for their navigable rivers lie ſo commodiouſly, that after half a day's land-carriage from the lake, they are embarked on thoſe rivers, and carried down the ſtream to Bern, Soleure, and all the richeſt parts of Switzerland.

Zurich.

Our author travelled from Soleure to Zurich, which he obſerves is prettily ſituated on the lake of the ſame name, and is one of the handſomeſt towns in the country. The town-houſe is a fine pile of building, and has in the frontiſpiece pillars of a beautiful black marble ſtreaked with white, which is dug in the neighbouring mountains, and the whole building is ſo well deſigned, that it would make a good figure even in Italy; though they have in a manner ſpoiled the beauty of the walls with abundance of childiſh Latin ſentences, which conſiſt often of a jingle of words: and 'tis obſervable, by ſeveral inſcriptions, of this country, that their men of learning are extremely delighted in playing little tricks with words and figures. The Swiſs wits are not yet got out of anagram and acroſtick.

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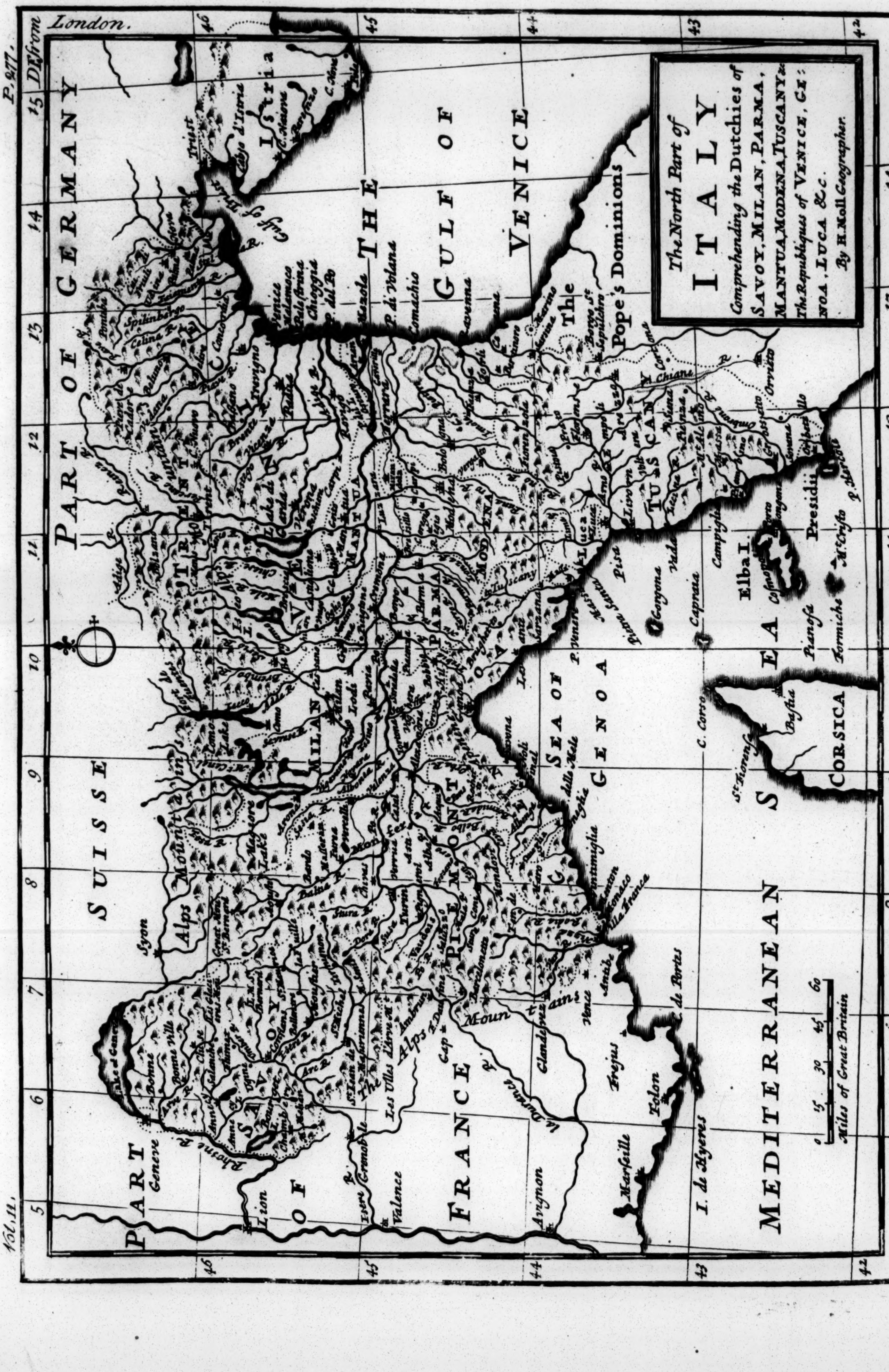

The North Part of
ITALY
Comprehending the Dutchies of SAVOY, MILAN, PARMA, MANTUA, MODENA, TUSCANY &c.
The Republiques of VENICE, GENOA, LUCA &c.
By H. Moll Geographer.

PART OF GERMANY
SUISSE
PART OF FRANCE
ISTRIA
THE GULF OF VENICE
The Pope's Dominions
SEA OF GENOA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CORSICA
Elba I.
Presidii
TUSCANY
MILAN
PIEMONT
SAVOY
MANTUA
MODENA
PARMA
Alps
Miles of Great Britain
0 5 15 30 45 60
Degrees from London.

THE PRESENT STATE OF ITALY.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the ſituation and extent of Italy. Of the air, ſeas, lakes, rivers, ſprings, mountains, and woods; and contains ſome general remarks on the modern inhabitants.

CHAP. I.

Name of Italy.

AS to the name of this celebrated country, I meet with nothing certain, or even probable, in thoſe writers who have pretended to ſhew us the reaſon of it's being called Italy; and therefore chuſe to omit all random gueſſes of this nature. Nor was it antiently comprehended under any one common name; but as it was cantoned out into ſeveral little ſovereignties, each of them had a name appropriated to it, as will appear in the deſcription of the reſpective provinces or diviſions.

Shape, ſituation, and extent.

Italy, according to the common obſervation, reſembles a boot, or leg with part of the thigh, and extends in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, that is, from the foot of Mount St Bernard (a mountain of the Alps) to the city of Otranto, ſix hundred miles in a direct line; or if allowances are made for the winding of the roads, and the ſeveral aſcents and deſcents of the Apennine mountains, we may reckon it ſeven hundred miles in length; if we turn aſide to the right, and travel to Reggio, the moſt ſouthern part of it, which lies upon the ſtraits between Italy and Sicily, we ſhall find the whole extent to be eight hundred miles. The breadth is very unequal, for if we meaſure the boot-top under the Alps, it is at leaſt four hundred Engliſh miles; in the calf of the leg about an hundred and twenty; and towards the inſtep about eighty in breadth; extending from thirty-eight degrees twenty minutes, to forty-ſix degrees northern latitude; and from the ſeventh to the nineteenth degree of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London; and is bounded by the Alps, which ſeparate it from France, Switzerland, and Germany, towards the north and north-weſt; by the gulph of Venice or the Adriatick Sea and the county of Trent towards the eaſt; by the Ionian Sea and ſtreight of Meſſina towards the ſouth; and by the Tuſcan or Tyrrhenian Sea towards the weſt.

Boundaries.

The air.

The air of Italy is very different according to the ſituation of the reſpective places: upon the Apennine mountains it is exceeding cold; on the ſouth-ſide of them the heats are troubleſome, and from June to September in the Campania about Rome very unhealthful; tho' hither it was the great men of antient Rome uſed to retire in ſummer for the benefit of the air; whereas the modern Romans fly the country at this ſeaſon, and chuſe the city as much more healthful: the reaſon of which difference it is ſuppoſed proceeds from the country's being in a manner unpeopled and uncultivated, and the waters ſuffered to ſtagnate, which their anceſtors uſed to drain off; for no countries are more unhealthful than thoſe that are both hot and moiſt. The north ſide of the Apennine is more healthful as well as cooler, than the provinces on the ſouth; but here alſo are ſome unhealthful ſpots, as will appear when we come to give a particular deſcription of the reſpective ſtates.

Seas.

Lakes.

The ſeas which encompaſs Italy on three ſides, are, the Adriatick ſea, or gulph of Venice; the Ionian; and the Tuſcan, or Tyrrhenian ſea; as hath been intimated already. There are alſo abundance of fine lakes, of which the principal are, the lakes Major, Lugano, Como, Iſco, and Garda, in the duchy of Milan; the lakes of Traſimene or Perugia, Vulſin, and Bracciano, in Tuſcany; and thoſe of Fucin, Fundi, Caſtello-Gandolpho and Calano in the Campania of Rome.

Rivers. Po.

Teſin.

Their chief rivers are, 1. The Po, which riſes in the Alps, between Dauphiné and the marquiſate of Saluſſes, called antiently *Eridanus*, and celebrated by the poets for the fall of PHAETON into it. The Po having croſſed Piedmont, the Montferat, Milaneſe, and Mantuan, and in it's paſſage viſited Turin, Caſal, Plaiſance, and Cremona, enters the duchy of Ferrara, and having been much enlarged by the Adda, the Teſin, and ſeveral other rivers which fall into it, diſcharges itſelf by ſeveral mouths into the ſea at Venice. 2. The Teſin, which riſes in Mount Adala, one of the mountains of the Alps, having traverſed the lake of Major, paſſes by Pavia and falls

Adda. Oglio. Mincio. Tanaro. Adige. Arno. Tiber.

falls into the Po. 3. The Adda, which having croſſed the lake of Como, diſcharges itſelf into the Po at Cremonia. 4. The Oglio, which iſſuing out of the lake Iſco, joins the Po near Mantua. 5. The Mincio, which running through the lake Garda, paſſes by Mantua, and afterwards falls into the Po. 6. Tanaro, which riſes in Piedmont, and falls into the Po at Baſſignano. 7. The Adige, which having it's ſource in the mountains of Tyrol, runs by Trent and Verona, and falls into the Adriatick to the ſouthward of Venice. 8. The Arno, which riſing in the Apennine mountains, paſſes by Florence and Piſa, and afterwards falls into the Tuſcan ſea. And laſtly, The Tiber, which having it's ſource alſo in the Apennine mountains, runs through Romania and Florence, and having paſſed by Rome, falls into the Tuſcan ſea at Oſtia. Beſides which, there are a multitude of leſſer ſtreams, which having their ſource in the Apennines, fall either into the Tuſcan or Adriatick ſeas: but their waters are generally foul and bad, ſcarce fit to drink; which is ſuppoſed to proceed from their impetuous courſe; for the Apennine, where they riſe, being a very high mountain, they ruſh down the ſides of it, carrying abundance of ſoil and filth along with them, and running but a very little way before they diſcharge themſelves into the ſea, continue muddy all along. The antient Romans therefore, as well as ſome publick-ſpirited Popes of late years, have taken the aqueducts under their particular care, and it is with a vaſt expence and labour they have collected the little ſprings which riſe in the mountains forty or fifty miles from Rome, and conveyed through aqueducts of brick or ſtone to that capital.

Aqueducts.

Mountains.

The chief mountains of Italy are, the Alps, the Apennine, and Mount Veſuvius. The Alps are the northern boundary of it, of which I have treated already. The Apennine are a chain of hills which run the whole length of the country, and divide the north-eaſt from the ſouth-weſt provinces. Veſuvius is about ſix miles to the eaſtward of Naples, and famous for it's vulcano's and eruptions, which will be particularly taken notice of in the deſcription of that kingdom. The Apennine mountains are generally well covered with woods and pleaſant groves, as appears from a paſſage in LUCAN, of which Mr ADDISON has given us the following tranſlation:

In pomp the ſhady Apennines ariſe,
And lift th' aſpiring nation to the ſkies.
No land like Italy erects the ſight
By ſuch a vaſt aſcent, or ſwells to ſuch a height.
Her numerous ſtates the tow'ring hills divide,
And ſee the billows riſe on every ſide.
At Piſa here the range of mountains ends,
And here to high Ancona's ſhores extends.
In their dark womb a thouſand rivers lie,
That with continu'd ſtreams the double ſea
ſupply.

And SILIUS ITALICUS, in his relation of HANNIBAL's march over the Apennine, gives the following deſcription of it, which the ſame writer eſteems very juſt, *viz.*

From ſteep to ſteep the troops advanc'd with pain,
In hopes at laſt the topmoſt cliff to gain:
But ſtill by new aſcents the mountain grew,
And a freſh toil preſented to their view.

Genius and temper of the natives.

I ſhall conclude this chapter with ſome general remarks on the cuſtoms and manners of the Italians, and cannot but obſerve, that moſt travellers who ſet out from hence, ſeem prejudiced againſt them on account of religion. The Italians, ſays a judicious writer, excel in a complaiſant obliging behaviour, obſerving a medium between the lightneſs of the French, and the ſtarch'd gravity of the Spaniard, and are by far the ſobereſt people that are to be found in the Chriſtian world, though they abound in plenty of the choiceſt wines; nor is there any thing like luxury to be ſeen at the tables of the great. They are generally men of wit, and have a genius for arts and ſciences; nor do they want application. Muſick, poetry, painting, ſculpture, and architecture, are their favourite ſtudies; there are no people on the face of the earth that have brought them to greater perfection. Their enemies indeed charge them with being too much addicted to pleaſure and idleneſs, and affirm that they are generally inſincere and perfidious; ſuch maſters in the art of diſſimulation, that they can conceal their reſentments till they meet with a favourable opportunity to revenge themſelves, and then they never fail to ſtrike home. But we may be aſſured that there are as many men of honour and probity in Italy, in proportion to the extent of the country, as in any other part of the world; and muſt not believe that murders and aſſaſſinations are ſo frequent here as ſome authors pretend. 'Tis true, they are of an amorous diſpoſition, and too jealous of the fair ſex; and ſome have puſhed their reſentment beyond the ordinary bounds, when they have imagined themſelves abuſed; but theſe inſtances are not common. Travellers perhaps expect the ſame freedom with their women they are uſed to in cooler climates; but they ſhould conſider every nation is governed by it's peculiar cuſtoms; that our notions of honour are given us in our education, from which we very difficultly recede: and we ought no more to expect that the conduct of the Italians ſhould be conformable to ours, than that their air and climate ſhould be the ſame. If there be ſome things which we cannot admire in them, there ſeems to be a great many more which deſerve our imitation. But to proceed in their character: The nobility and gentry are in nothing ſo profuſe as in their buildings and furniture, and in making collections of pictures, ſtatues, hangings, and other ornaments: they are fond alſo of ſplendid equipages, and great trains of ſervants, and make a figure at leaſt equal to their fortunes. They apprehend it derogates from their dignity to be born in the country, and therefore uſually ſend their wives to ſome conſiderable city to lie-in, if they happen to be out of town. The marrying with plebeians, or the lower rank of people alſo debaſes their quality to that degree, that they are rendered incapable of ſome poſts of honour and profit by it: thoſe therefore who have not fortunes equal to their quality, rather than marry an heireſs to a wealthy merchant or tradeſman, will chuſe to go into a convent. There are academies, or ſocieties of virtuoſi, in every town almoſt, who ſpend their time in improving the language of their country, which they admire above all others, and at their publick meetings entertain each other with rhetorical, moral, or philoſophical diſcourſes, for which the clemency of the air, and their temperance, abundantly qualify them. They are ſententious in their writings, and much delighted

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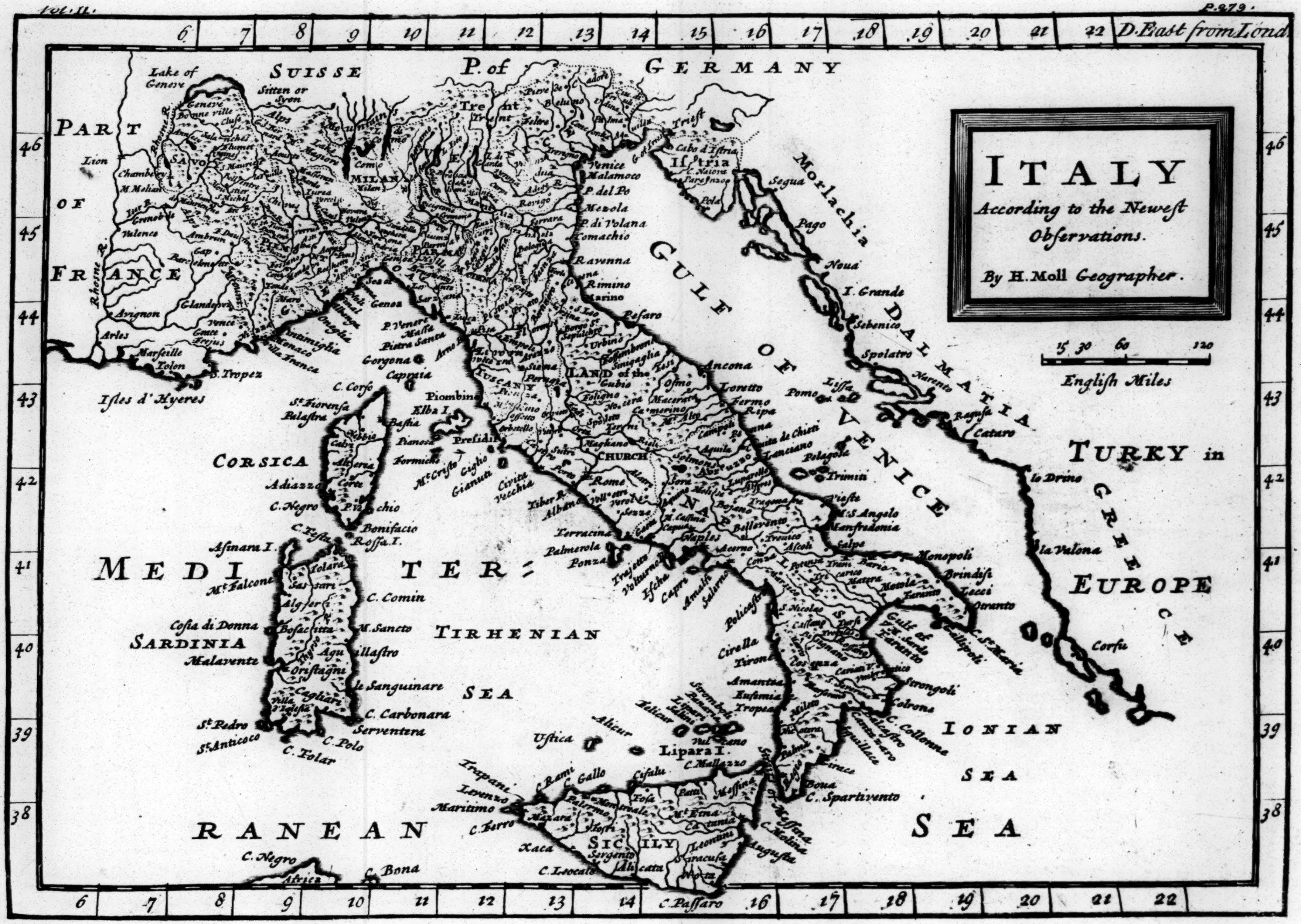
ITALY
According to the Newest Observations.
By H. Moll Geographer.
15 30 60 120
English Miles
D. East from Lond.
GERMANY
P. of
SUISSE
PART OF FRANCE
Lake of Geneve
Sitten or Syon
Lion
Chambery
Savoy
Rhosne R.
Grenoble
Valence
Avignon
Arles
Marseille
Tolon
S. Tropez
Isles d' Hyeres
Milan
Como
Trent
Venice
Malamoco
P. del Po
Mezola
P. di Volana
Comachio
Ravenna
Rimino
Marino
Pesaro
Ancona
Loretto
Fermo
Ripa
Istria
Cabo d'Istria
Triest
Segua
Pago
Noua
Morlachia
I. Grande
Sebenico
Spolatro
Narento
Ragusa
Cataro
DALMATIA
TURKY in EUROPE
GREECE
lo Drino
la Valona
Corfu
GULF OF VENICE
Lissa
Pomo
Pelagosa
Tremiti
Genoa
Gorgona
Capraia
Piombino
Elba I.
Bastia
Pianosa
Formiche
Mt. Cristo
Giglio
Gianuti
Presidii
Civita Vecchia
TUSCANY
LAND of the CHURCH
Rome
Tiber R.
Albano
Terracina
Palmerola
Ponza
Naples
Capua
Ischia
Capri
Amalfi
Salerno
NAP
M. S. Angelo
Manfredonia
Monopoli
Brindisi
Lecce
Otranto
C. St. Maria
Gallipoli
Gulf of Taranto
Taranto
Policastro
Cirella
Tirone
Amantea
Eufemia
Tropea
Strongoli
Cotrone
C. Colonne
Bona
C. Spartivento
CORSICA
C. Corso
St. Fiorenza
Balastra
Adiazzo
C. Negro
Bonifacio
Rossa I.
Asinara I.
Mt. Falcone
Costa di Donna
SARDINIA
Malavente
Oristagni
Cagliari
St. Pedro
St. Anticoco
C. Polo
C. Tolar
C. Carbonara
Serventera
le Sanguinare
C. Comin
M. Sancto
MEDI TER RANEAN
TIRHENIAN SEA
IONIAN SEA
SEA
Ustica
Alicur
Lipari I.
C. Mallazzo
Trapani
Levenzo
Maritimo
C. Ferro
C. Rami
C. Gallo
Palermo
Mazara
Cefalu
Mt. Etna
Messina
Catania
Augusta
Siracusa
SICILY
Xaca
C. Leocato
Alicata
C. Passaro
C. Negro
Africa
C. Bona
6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22
38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46

with thoughts and expreſſions out of the common road. The loweſt of the people are ſtrangely taken with ſounding words and lofty phraſes, even above their capacity.

Their perſons and habits.

As to their perſons, they are of an agreeable ſtature, well proportioned, and their features very engaging. Their complexions are not the beſt, but it is become a proverbial ſaying among the women, that if Heaven has given them a good ſhape and features, they will take care to make themſelves good complexions. Their hair is generally black, and thoſe that have light hair, travellers tell us, take a great deal of pains to turn it yellow in ſome places, eſpecially at Genoa. The Spaniſh or French mode prevails in their dreſs, as they happen to be affected to the one or the other nation; and black ſeems to be more worn than any other colour.

CHAP. II.

Shews the ſeveral diviſions and ſubdiviſions of Italy, and treats particularly of Savoy.

Grand diviſion of Italy.

Upper Italy.

I SHALL conſider Italy under three grand diviſions: I. Upper Italy, the moſt northern part of it, containing, 1. The principality of Piedmont (to which I ſhall add Savoy, tho' it be on this ſide of the Alps). 2. The dutchy of Montferat. 3. The territories of Genoa. 4. The duchy of Milan. 5. The duchy of Parma. 6. The duchy of Modena. 7. The duchy of Mantua. And, 8. The territories of Venice.

Middle Italy.

II. Middle Italy, containing the dominions of the Pope, and of the Great duke of Tuſcany, in which I comprehend the territories of Luca.

Lower Italy.

III. The Lower or ſouthern part of Italy, conſiſting of the kingdom of Naples.

SAVOY.

I SHALL firſt enter upon the deſcription of Savoy and Piedmont, and the reſt of the King of Sardinia's dominions in Upper Italy, which extend in length from the lake of Geneva to the port of Nice in the Mediterranean, about an hundred and fourſcore miles: the breadth being very unequal, in ſome places an hundred miles over, and in others ſcarce forty.

Situation and extent.

Savoy is bounded by the lake and territories of Geneva towards the north; by Piedmont, from which it is ſeparated by the Alps, towards the eaſt and ſouth; and by Dauphiné and Lionois in France, towards the weſt. This province lying on the French ſide of the Alps, is uſually reckoned to be out of Italy, but being contiguous to Piedmont, and the reſt of the King of Sardinia's dominions in Italy, it may not be amiſs to deſcribe it here.

Provinces.

Savoy is divided into ſeven provinces; 1. The duchy of Savoy, properly ſo called. 2. The county of Geneva. 3. The duchy of Chablais. 4. The barony of Foſſigny. 5. The county of Tarantaiſe. 6. The county of Maurienne. And, 7. The duchy of Aouſte, or Aoſta.

Savoy Proper.

1. The duchy of Savoy, properly ſo called, is bounded by the county of Geneva towards the north, by the Tarantaiſe and Maurienne on the eaſt; by Dauphiné towards the ſouth; and by Bugey and the river Rhone towards the weſt: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Chamberry. 2. Montmelian. 3. Bourget. 4. Aix. 5. Hautecombe. 6. Yenne. 7. Les Eſchelle. 8. Miolans. And, 9. Conflans.

Chief towns.

Chamberry.

1. Chamberry, the capital, is ſituated on a plain, at the confluence of the two little rivers Laiſſe and Albans, about fifty miles ſouth of Geneva, and twelve to the northward of Montmelian, antiently the reſidence of the Dukes of Savoy, and here the Parliament of the province ſtill aſſembles; but it has loſt much of it's antient grandeur. 2. Montmelian, a little town, ſituate on the river Iſere, twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Chamberry, ſtrongly fortified, and defended by a citadel built upon a rock, which made it looked upon formerly as impregnable, but it was taken more than once in the late wars. The other towns do not require a particular deſcription.

Montmelian.

County of Geneva.

2. The county of Geneva, bounded by Gex and Chablais on the north; by Foſſigny on the eaſt; by Savoy Proper on the ſouth; and by La Breſſe on the Weſt. The chief towns are, 1. Annecy. 2. Alby. And, 3. La Roche.

Chief towns.

Annecy.

Annecy, the capital of the county, is ſituated at the north end of a lake of the ſame name, thirty miles north of Chamberry. It is a large neat town, and the reſidence of the Biſhop of Geneva, ſince his expulſion from that city by the Proteſtants.

Duchy of Chablais.

3. The duchy of Chablais, bounded by the lake of Geneva on the north; by the Valais on the eaſt; and by the territories of Geneva towards the weſt; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Thonon. 2. Ripaille. And, 3. Evian.

Chief towns.

Thonon.

Thonon is ſituated at the mouth of the river Drame, where it falls into the lake of Geneva, about eighteen miles to the northward of the city of Geneva; a pleaſant well-built town, and inhabited by people of condition.

Ripaille.

Ripaille is a little diſtance from Thonon, and, according to Mr ADDISON, deſerves to be taken notice of for it's convent of Carthuſians, who have a large foreſt cut out into walks that are extremely thick and gloomy, and very ſuitable to the genius of the inhabitants. The viſto's are of great length, and terminate upon the lake of Geneva: On one ſide of the walks there is a near proſpect of the Alps, which are broken into ſo many ſteps and precipices, that they fill the mind with an agreeable kind of horror, and form one of the moſt irregular miſ-ſhapen ſcenes in the world. The convent belonged formerly to the Hermits of St MAURICE, and is famous for the retreat of the Antipope who ſtiled himſelf FÆLIX the fifth. He had been Duke of Savoy, and after a glorious reign took upon him the habit of an hermit, and retired to this ſolitary ſpot of his dominions, where he had not been above half a year, when he was choſen Pope by the council of Bazil. But his election being conteſted, he choſe for the peace of the Church, to retire again to his hermitage, and leave his competitor in the quiet poſſeſſion of the keys. But ſome ſay, he choſe, this charming ſolitude that he might ſpend his time in eaſe and luxury; from whence the Italians to this day uſe the proverb, *Andare a Ripuglia*; and the French, *Faire Ripaille*, to expreſs a delightful kind of life.

Barony of Foſſigny.

4. The barony of Foſſigny is bounded by Chablais on the north; by the Valais and the duchy of Aouſte on the eaſt; by the Tarantaiſe on the ſouth; and by the county of Geneva on the weſt: The chief towns whereof are, 1. Bonneville, 2. Cluſe. 3. Salanches. 4. Paſſy. And. 5. Toninga.

Chief towns.

Bonneville

Bonnevil-le.

Bonneville is ſituate on a riſing ground near the river Arve, about twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Geneva; but I don't meet with any thing in this, or the other four towns, that require a particular deſcription.

County of Tarantaiſe.

Chief towns.

5. The country of Tarantaiſe is bounded by Foſſigny on the north; by Aouſte on the eaſt; by the county of Maurienne on the ſouth and weſt: The chief towns whereof are, 1. Monſtier. 2. Brianconnet. And, 3. St Maurice.

Monſtier.

Monſtier is ſituated in a valley on the river Iſere, forty miles ſouth-eaſt of Chamberry, and is the See of an Archbiſhop, whoſe palace is the only publick building mentioned by travellers as worth the ſeeing.

County of Maurienne.

Chief towns.

6. The county of Maurienne is bounded by the Tarantaiſe on the north, and Dauphiné on the ſouth, lying between the Alps and the river Iſere, and conſiſting of one valley near fifty miles in length: the chief towns are, 1. St John de Maurienne. 2. La Chambre. 3. St Michael. 4. Trencignon. And, 5. Lanebourg.

St John de Maurienne.

St John de Maurienne is ſituated in a pleaſant valley on the river Arche, twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Monſtier, and is a populous well-built town, conſidering the country, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Vienne in Dauphiné.

The duchy of Aouſte.

Chief towns.

7. The duchy of Aouſte is bounded by the Valais on the north; by the Vercellois and the vallies of Seſia on the eaſt; by Maurienne on the ſouth: and by Savoy on the weſt: and is by ſome geographers placed in Savoy, and by others in Italy: and conſiſts of eight large vallies, being about fifteen leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and ten in breadth from north to ſouth. The chief towns are, 1. Aouſte. 2. Morges. 3. La Tuille. 4. Aviſe. 5. Court Major. 6. St Remi. 7. Donas. 8. Chatillon. And, 9. Bart.

Aouſte.

The city of Aouſte is ſituated in the middle of a valley of the ſame name, upon a little river, fifty miles north of Turin: it is the See of a Biſhop, whoſe palace, with the ruins of a Roman amphitheatre, are all the publick buildings which travellers mention as worth the viewing.

The air of Savoy.

Rivers.

Mountains.

The air of Savoy is much colder than that of Italy, being ſituated on the north ſide of the Alps, or rather upon them. The general diſtemper of the country, as in other mountainous places, is that of ſwelled throats or wens, from which few of them are free, ſuppoſed to proceed from their drinking ſnow-water. Their chief rivers are the Iſere, the Arche, and the Arve; and their lakes, thoſe of Bourget and Annecy. The principal mountain is that of Mount Cenis, ſuppoſed to be the higheſt of all the Alps, which has a road over it, and divides Savoy from Piedmont. The antients called this hill, or chain of hills, *Alpes Cottiæ*. A modern traveller relates, that the aſcent is very troubleſome, and in ſeveral places dangerous on account of the narrow paſſages on the brinks of high precipices, where if the beaſt the traveller rides happens to ſtumble, he falls half a mile at leaſt before he reaches the bottom; but the mules which are uſed in croſſing theſe hills are generally very ſure-footed. On the top of this mountain is a plain about two leagues over, at the end whereof, on the entrance into Piedmont, is an inn and a little chapel, called the Tranſis, where they bury people that are frozen to death, or ſmothered in the ſnow. The Romans ſtiled all nations who inhabited the northern ſide of the Alps, *Tranſalpini* and *Barbaria*, and looked upon them as a barbarous uncivilized people; and the preſent Italians, it ſeems, ſtile them *Tramontani*, and have but a mean opinion either of the Savoyards, or any other people on this ſide; inſomuch that if a man be guilty of any egregious blunder, they immediately call him a *Tramontano*.

Manners of the Savoyards.

Produce of the country.

The nobility and gentry of Savoy are as complaiſant and obliging as their neighbours of Italy, and not altogether ſo formal and preciſe. The common people are generally good-natured, honeſt, ſober, and laborious, but exceeding poor; which does not proceed ſo much from the barrenneſs of the country, being more fruitful in many parts of it than Switzerland, but from the deſpotick power of the Prince and great Lords, whoſe vaſſals the peaſants are, being not allowed a ſubſiſtence out of the lands they manure. So great is the ſcarcity of corn in ſome of their villages, that travellers relate, it is a rarity to meet with a piece of bread, and that they have been forced to content themſelves with a glaſs of wine and a few cheſnuts, the uſual food of the natives, at their inns upon the great road. Their poverty therefore obliges many of the natives to go abroad: We find Savoyard chimney-ſweepers, pedlars, and raree-ſhow-men, in every part of Europe, who are uſed to live ſo frugally at home, that they often return to their own country with a good round ſum of money. A modern traveller aſſures us, that he knew one of them that kept a ſhop at Turin, who had brought three hundred guineas out of England, which he had got by his raree-ſhow. The country however produces wine, and ſome corn, apples, pears, and other fruits. They have alſo large herds of black cattle, goats, hogs, veniſon, and wild fowl in the woods and mountains, and plenty of fiſh in their lakes and rivers: Their hares and partridges, as well as bears and foxes, on the tops of the Alps, are frequently white, as they are in the north of Ruſſia and Greenland. Here are large woods of fir-trees, which afford maſts, pitch, and tar, for ſhipping, and they have ſome oak-timber: their woods alſo abound in walnuts and cheſnuts, which make a great part of the food of the peaſants, as well as of their hogs. Here are alſo ſome marble and ſtone quarries, and coal-pits, and in ſeveral places mineral waters, and hot baths, of which thoſe at Aix near Chamberry are moſt reſorted to. They have alſo ſeveral ſalt-pits, eſpecially in the Tarantaiſe, and ſome ſalt-fountains, which furniſh them with good white ſalt. In Foſſigny there are allum mines, and the valley of Aouſte affords a good ſand for making cryſtal glaſſes.

PIEDMONT.

CHAP. III.

Contains a deſcription of Piedmont.

Situation and extent.

THE principality of Piedmont, ſo named from it's lying at the foot of the Alps, is bounded by the valley of Aouſte, and part of the duchy of Milan towards the north; by another part of Milan, and the Montferat on the eaſt; by the territories of Geneva, and the county of Nice on the ſouth; and by Dauphiné and Savoy on the weſt; extending an hundred miles in length from north to ſouth, and about ſeventy miles in breadth from

Grand diviſion.

from eaſt to weſt, and is generally computed to be three hundred miles and upwards in circumference. It may be divided into eight parts, or provinces, viz. 1. Piedmont Proper. 2. The marquiſate of Suza. 3. The marquiſate of Saluſſes, or Saluzzo. 4. The county of Aſti. 5. The lordſhip of Verceil. 6. The principality of Maſſerano. 7. The marquiſate of Ivrea. And, 8. The vallies of the Vaudois.

Piedmont Proper.

Chief towns.

Piedmont Proper is bounded by the marquiſate of Suſa on the north; by the Montferat towards the eaſt; by the territories of Geneva, and the county of Nice on the ſouth; and by the marquiſate of Saluzzo on the weſt. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Turin. 2. Brandis. 3. Chivas. 4. Montcalier. 5. Carignan. 6. Quieras, or Quieraſco. 7. Mondovi. 8. Coni. 9. Foſſano. 10. Savillano. 11. Pignerol. 12. Marſalia. And, 13. Rivoli. The principal whereof are,

Turin.

The Holy Handkerchief.

1. Turin, the capital of this principality, and of the King of Sardinia's dominions in Italy; the *Auguſta Taurinum*, or *Taurania*, of the antients, ſituate in the latitude of forty-four degrees fifty minutes; nine degrees to the eaſtward of London, near the confluence of the rivers Doira and Po; from the laſt of which it is about three hundred paces diſtant. The town is of a ſquare figure, about three miles in circumference; and admired for it's ſpacious ſquares, piazzas, broad ſtreets, lofty and magnificent buildings, and particularly the King's palace, which for the beauty of the ſeveral apartments, the richneſs of the furniture, the paintings, the cabinets of curioſities, and the library, is ſcarce to be paralleled. The palace of the Prince of Carignan, the cathedral and the Jeſuits chapel, are alſo much admired. The chapel of the Holy Handkerchief, lately built of black marble, is a pretty piece of architecture. This handkerchief according to tradition, was preſented to our Saviour by a compaſſionate virgin, as he was carrying his croſs to the place of crucifixion, who having wiped his face, returned it back to her with his picture imprinted on the linnen in the moſt lively colours; but 'tis ſaid, there are ſome other places which pretend to be in poſſeſſion of this precious relique.

The fortifications of the place are as fine as the nature of the ground will permit, and the citadel a regular pentagon: nor were the French able to take either the one or the other after a moſt furious ſiege of ten weeks continuance in the year 1706; but had it not been relieved in a very critical hour by the arms of the allies, commanded by the Duke of Savoy and Prince EUGENE, it could not have held out many days longer; for the enemy was maſter of the outworks, and the beſieged had ſcarce powder left to ſalute their Prince when he made his triumphant entry into his capital city, which he found little better than a heap of rubbiſh, the French King having given particular orders not to leave a houſe ſtanding that their bombs or red-hot bullets could reach; but it is now for the moſt part rebuilt to great advantage. Nor did the Grand Monarch's reſentment reſt here: the plantations of olives, the vines, the groves, the walks, and all the fine avenues to this charming city, which ſtood in one of the pleaſanteſt plains in Europe, were ordered to be deſtroyed; a loſs not ſo eaſily to be repaired as the buildings, which the Duke afterwards endeavoured to retaliate, when he marched into France to the ſiege of Thoulon.

Turin is the See of an Archbiſhop; and a Univerſity was erected here about the year 1405; beſides which, there are academies for riding, dancing, and martial exerciſes; and the court is ſaid to be as polite as any in Europe: the people in general alſo are much in the favour of our modern travellers, who ſeem better pleaſed with their reception here than in many other cities of Italy. The natives have not that ſtiffneſs and inſincerity, which they inſinuate are inſeparable from the Italians, who live more to the ſouthward. And one convenience Mr ADDISON mentions in this town, which is not to be met with in others, and that is, a rivulet on the upper ſide of the city, which is turned into the ſtreets every night, and clears them of all manner of filth, ſerving alſo to lay the duſt in ſummer, which otherwiſe in this populous place would be intolerable; but among all the conveniencies and beauties of Turin, their tattered paper windows are no ſmall diſgrace to it: Nothing ſets off our buildings in this part of the world like our noble ſaſh-windows of crown-glaſs; whereas in this, and the reſt of the cities of Italy, they content themſelves with paper lights, and theſe frequently torn and out of repair, which makes their moſt magnificent palaces have a ſcandalous aſpect.

Without the town, the Capuchins cloyſter, which ſtands upon a lovely mount, and affords a proſpect of the whole city and the nighbouring country, is much admired; as are the royal palace of La Venerie, about three miles out of town, and that of Valentin, ſituate on the banks of the Po, about a mile diſtant from the city. The barbarous ravages committed here, and in the reſt of the Duke of Savoy's territories by the French in the two laſt wars, have juſtly created the utmoſt abhorrence and deteſtation of that nation among the common people.

Chivas.

Chivas, or Chivazzo, is a ſtrong fortreſs, ſituate on the Po, about twelve miles to the northward of Turin, taken by the French in the year 1705, after a brave defence; but ſurrendred to the Duke of Savoy again the year following on the raiſing of the ſiege of Turin.

Mondovi.

Mondovi is ſituated upon an eminence at the foot of the Apennine mountains, about forty miles to the ſouthward of Turin, a large, beautiful, and well-peopled city, the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Turin. It is defended by a citadel, and eſteemed a place of ſtrength, and the ſecond city of Piedmont.

Coni.

Coni lies about thirty miles to the ſouthward of Turin, is reckoned a ſtrong place, and hath a citadel built without the town, upon a neighbouring hill.

Foſſano.

Foſſano, which derives it's name from the multitude of fountains about it, is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Turin, and is defended by a caſtle. This place lies about fifteen miles north-eaſt of Coni.

Pignerol.

Pignerol, ſituated on the river Chieſe, about ſixteen miles ſouth-weſt of Turin, a ſtrong fortreſs on the frontiers towards Dauphiné, and for a conſiderable time in the poſſeſſion of the French King, who being obliged to reſtore it to the Duke of Savoy in the year 1696, demoliſhed the fortifications; but the Duke being at liberty to fortify his frontier places by the treaty of Utrecht, has ſince put this and the reſt in a poſture of defence. The ſituation of the reſt of the towns of Piedmont will be found in the map bound up with this volume, but do not ſeem to merit a particular deſcription.

Marquiſate of Suſa.

The marquiſate of Suſa lies at the foot of Mount Cenis, and is bounded by Dauphiné, a province of France, on the weſt; and by Piedmont Proper on the eaſt; being about forty miles in length from north to ſouth, and ten in breadth; the only conſiderable town whereof is,

Suſa city.

Suſa, ſituate on the river Doira, twenty miles north-weſt of Turin, a town of the utmoſt importance to the King of Sardinia, lying on a paſs out of France into his country. The French demoliſhed the citadel on their taking it in 1704; but being yielded to the Duke of Savoy at the treaty of Utrecht, he was left at liberty to repair the fortifications of this and his other frontier garriſons.

Marquiſate of Saluzzo.

The marquiſate of Saluſſes, or Saluzzo, is bounded by Piedmont Proper towards the north and eaſt; by the counties of Nice and Tende on the ſouth; and by Dauphiné and Barcelonette on the weſt; extending about thirty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty in breadth from north to ſouth, in which diſtrict riſes the river Po, at the foot of mount Veſulo: The chief towns whereof are Saluzzo and Carmagnola.

Saluzzo city.

Saluzzo ſtands on an eminence at the foot of the Alps, about a mile from the banks of the Po, and twenty ſouth-weſt of Turin. It is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Turin, though he pretends to depend immediately on the Pope. The cathedral is a magnificent ſtructure, and there is an old caſtle, but of no great ſtrength.

Aſti county.

The county of Aſti is bounded on the north, eaſt, and ſouth, by Montferat; and by Piedmont Proper on the weſt; extending about thirty miles in length from north to ſouth, and about twenty miles in breadth: The chief towns whereof are, Aſti, Verue, and Ceve.

Aſti town.

The city of Aſti ſtands on the river Tanaro, about twenty-five miles to the eaſtward of Turin; 'tis a large populous place, well fortified, and defended by a citadel and caſtle, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Milan; and for the number and beauty of it's palaces and publick buildings is ſaid to equal moſt towns in Lombardy.

Verue.

Verue is a ſtrong fortreſs, ſituate on a rock cloſe to the river Po. It held out a ſiege of ſix months againſt all the efforts of France in the year 1705, nor did the Governor ſurrender 'till the place was become one heap of rubbiſh; but it is ſince re-edified, and the works repaired.

Ceve.

Ceve is the capital of a marquiſate, a ſmall but very pretty town, ſituate on the Tanaro, about ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Mondovi.

Verceil barony.

The lordſhip of Verceil is bounded by the duchy of Milan, and the vallies of Seſia on the north and eaſt, and by Montferat on the ſouth; extending in length about thirty miles from eaſt to weſt; and twenty from north to ſouth: the chief town whereof is Verceil.

Verceil city.

The city of Verceil, or Vercelli, is ſituate on the river Seſia, near the frontiers of Milan, fifteen miles to the northward of Caſal, and near forty north-eaſt of Turin. It is a large fortified town, and a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Milan, and the cathedral a handſome Gothic ſtructure. It was taken by the French in the year 1705, but quitted by them the next year, on the raiſing the ſiege of Turin, after they had demoliſhed the fortifications.

Bielle city and county.

The city of Bielle, the capital of a ſmall territory, to which it communicates it's name, ſtands on the river Cervo, fifteen miles to the weſtward of Verceil, of which I meet with nothing particular.

Maſſerano.

The principality of Maſſerano lies to the northward of Verceil; the chief town whereof is of the ſame name; ſixteen miles north-weſt of Verceil, but I do not meet with any particular deſcription of it.

Ivrea marquiſate and city.

The marquiſate of Ivrea lies to the ſouthward of the valley of Aouſte; the chief town whereof is of the ſame name, ſituate on the river Doira, about twenty-five miles north-weſt of Verceil, a large popoulous place, but not admired for the elegancy of it's buildings: it is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Turin, and had the reputation of a ſtrong town till the French took it in the year 1704, and demoliſhed the fortifications.

Vallies of the Vaudois.

The vallies of the Vaudois are five, viz. 1. Thoſe of Pragelas, or Cluſon. 2. Perouſe. 3. St Martin. 4. Angrogne. And, 5. Lucerne. Bounded by Piedmont Proper on the eaſt, weſt, and north, and by the marquiſate of Saluzzo on the ſouth. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Lucerne. 2. St Martin. And, 3. Perouſe, or Peruſa.

Lucerna.

The town of Lucerne, or Lucerna, the capital of theſe vallies, ſtands about ſix miles to the ſouthward of Pignerol, and communicates it's name to all of them, being as often called the vallies of Lucerne as of the Vaudois.

St Martin's.

St Martin's is the chief town of another of theſe vallies, and lies to the northward of Proper Lucerne.

Peruſa.

Peruſa, the chief of a third fruitful valley, lies about four miles to the northward of Pignerol. The natives were called Waldenſes and Vaudois, from one PETER WALDO, or VAUD, a merchant of Lyons, who, about the year 1610, began to exclaim againſt the errors of the Church of Rome, and having gained a multitude of proſelytes to his opinions, was expelled the territories of France with his diſciples, and ſettled in theſe vallies, where they remained in quiet for ſome years; but the late Princes of the houſe of Savoy have left no means unattempted to bring them over to the Church of Rome, and indeed uſed them ſo rigorouſly, that many of them were forced to fly for refuge into Switzerland, where about four thouſand of theſe people having taken arms, and fomed themſelves into regiments, ventured to return into their country again in a hoſtile manner, being commanded by ARNAUD, one of their celebrated preachers, and TUREL, a Maſon by trade, who forced their way into Savoy, defeating ſeveral detachments of the French and Savoyard troops; and their Prince, at the interceſſion of King WILLIAM, gave the reſt of them liberty to return and enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion; till the Duke having made a ſeparate treaty with France, in the year 1696, that crown inſiſted on his baniſhing them again, or compelling them to be reconciled to the Church of Rome, which occaſioned a freſh perſecution. This prince however breaking with France in the year 1703, took the Vaudois again into his favour, and employed them in the defence of their country againſt France, in which they did him good ſervice at firſt, but ſome of them afterwards put themſelves under the protection of the French.

Rivers.

Mountains.

The principal rivers of Piedmont are the Po, the Tanaro, the Stura, and the Doira, or Duria. This country lies between the Alps on one ſide, and the Apennine hills on the other; but is not encumbered with barren rocks and mountains, as it's neighbours of Savoy and the State of Genoa are. On the contrary, there is not a more deſirable climate, a pleaſanter or more fruitful province in Italy, abounding in corn, wine, fruits, rice, cattle, and fowls of all kinds, wild and tame; excellent cheeſe, ſilk, flax, hemp, and minerals; but the crop is ſometimes deſtroyed by ſtorms of hail, which are called the Plague of Piedmont, when it is almoſt ready for the ſickle. In plentiful years they export great quantities of corn and rice, as well as cattle, ſilk, linnen cloth, wrought iron, and paper; inſomuch that no country of it's dimenſions yields ſo great a revenue to it's Prince; what they want moſt is a large breed of horſes, with which they are ſupplied from Germany.

I proceed next to the dominions of the King of Sardinia which lie to the ſouthward of Piedmont; and theſe are, 1. The county of Nice. 2. The county of Tende. 3. The county of Broglio, or Bueil. 4. The principality of Oneglia. And, 5. The principality or valley of Barcelonetta. But this laſt was yielded to France by the peace of Utrecht, anno 1713.

CHAP. IV.

Treats of the counties of Nice, Tende, &c.

County of Nice. Situation and extent.

THE county of Nice is bounded by the marquiſate of Saluzzo on the north; by the county of Tende and the territories of Genoa on the eaſt; by the Mediterranean on the ſouth; and by the county of Broglio, or Bueil, and Provence, on the weſt. The country produces plenty of oil and wine, and but little corn, being very mountainous. It is divided into four vicariats, which contain thirty towns and upwards, the chief whereof are Nice and Villa Franca.

Nice city.

The city of Nice, or Nizza, ſtands on the Mediterranean ſhore, in a pleaſant plain, at the foot of the Alps, ten miles to the northward of Antibes, and ſixty to the ſouthward of Pignerol, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle ſituate on a rock, which commands both the town and the harbour. The Prince's palace, the Jeſuit's chapel, and the cathedral, are ſaid to be pretty ſtructures. The private houſes are lofty, and the ſtreets regular, but the place ſuffered very much in the late wars, being ſeveral times taken and retaken, and the fortifications were demoliſhed by the French, when they found they ſhould not be able to keep it; however, it was yielded to the King of Sardinia by the peace of Utrecht, who was left at liberty to repair the fortifications again by that treaty.

Villa Franca city.

Villa Franca is ſituated on the ſame ſhore, about five miles to the eaſtward of Nice. It ſeems to have a better harbour, and is defended by two forts. This town was alſo taken by the French in the late wars, but ſurrendered to the King of Sardinia, the then Duke of Savoy, by the enſuing Peace.

County of Tende and town.

The county of Tende is bounded by Piedmont on the north, by the territories of Genoa on the eaſt, and by the county of Nice, on the ſouth and weſt; the chief town whereof is Tende, ſituate at the foot of the Apennine, about thirty miles to the northward of Villa Franca, and hath a caſtle for it's defence.

Broglio county and town.

The country of Broglio, or Bueil, ſometimes reckoned part of the county of Nice, is bounded by the valley of Barcelonette on the north, by the county of Nice towards the eaſt, and by Provence in France on the ſouth and weſt; the chief town whereof is Broglio, ſituate on the frontiers of Provence, about thirty miles to the northward of Nice.

Onegila principality and town.

The principality of Oneglia lies on the Mediterranean, encompaſſed on three ſides by the territories of Genoa, being about twenty-five miles in length, and eight in breadth; the chief town whereof is Oneglia, ſituate on the ſea, about ſeventy miles ſouth-eaſt of Turin. 'Tis ſaid to be a populous trading place, and the country about it to abound in oil and fruits.

Barcelonette valley and town.

The principality or valley of Barcelonette is bounded by the marquiſate of Saluzzo on the north, by the county of Nice on the eaſt, by Broglio on the ſouth, and by Provence on the weſt; extending thirty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty in breadth from north to ſouth; the chief town whereof bears the name of the province, and ſtands about fifty miles north-weſt of Nice. This principality, as it was formerly dependent on Provence, the French King inſiſted ſhould be reſtored, and confirmed to him by the peace of Utrecht, which was accordingly granted him. And here it is very fit to give an abſtract of that treaty, as far as it relates to the boundaries between France and the dominions of the King of Sardinia. By this treaty his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty yielded and tranſferred to his Royal Highneſs of Savoy (the late King of Sardinia) the valley of Pragelas, with the forts of Exilles and Feneſtrelles, and the vallies of Oulx, Sezane, Bardonache, and Chateau-Dauphin, and all about the water, which comes from the Alps on the ſide of Piedmont, which his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty had poſſeſſed himſelf of during the war. Reciprocally his Royal Highneſs yielded to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty the valley of Barcelonette and it's dependances; ſo that the ſummit of the Alps and the mountain, were to ſerve for boundaries between France, Piedmont, and the county of Nice, in ſuch manner that the plains upon the ſaid ſummits and the heights ſhould be divided; and half the river flowing from the ſide of Dauphiné and Provence, ſhould belong to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, and thoſe on the ſide of Piedmont and the county of Nice ſhould belong to his Royal Highneſs of Savoy. And for the greater validity of the ſaid ceſſions, they were ratified and reciprocally regiſtered in the courts of Parliment and Chambers of accounts of Paris and of Dauphiné; as alſo in the Senate and Chamber of accounts of Turin, and the Senate of Nice. I proceed now to deſcribe the King of Sardinia's dominions which lie to the eaſtward of Piedmont; and theſe are the duchy of Montferat, the Alexandrin, the Vigevano, and the Lomelin in the Milaneſe.

Boundaries between France and the King of Sardinia's dominions.

CHAP. V.

Treats of the duchy of Montferat, &c.

Montferat duchy.

THE duchy of Montferat is bounded by the lordſhip of Verceil on the north, by the Alexandrin on the eaſt; by the territories of Genoa on the ſouth; and by the county of Aſti on the weſt: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Caſal. 2. Ponteora. 3. Lucedia. 4. Acqui. 5. Nice de la Paille. 6. Trino. 7. Albe or Alba.

Chief towns.

Caſal.

1. Caſal, the capital of Montferat, ſometimes called St Vas, ſituate on the banks of the Po, in

a fine plain, thirty miles to the eaſtward of Turin, and fifteen to the ſouthward of Verceil, a ſtrong town, but frequently taken and re-taken in the late wars. It is a well-built populous city, and a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Milan.

Acqui.

2. Acqui, the *Aquæ Statelliæ* of the Romans, which receives it's name from it's mineral waters, being much reſorted to at preſent, as well as antiently on that account, and lies about twenty miles to the ſouthward of Caſal. It is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Milan.

Trino.

3. Trino, ſituate near the Po, ſix miles to the weſtward of Caſal, remarkable for little but the defeat of the Duke of Savoy by the French, in the year 1703.

Albe.

4. Albe, the *Alba Pompeia* of the Romans, the capital of the diſtrict called the Albeſan, ſituate on the Tanaro, twenty miles to the weſtward of Acqui.

The Alexandrin.

The Alexandrin lies between the territories of Genoa and Milan on the ſouth and eaſt, and Montferat on the north-weſt; the chief towns whereof are Alexandria and Boſco.

Alexandria city.

Alexandria is ſituated ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Caſal, and forty ſouth-weſt of Milan, being divided in two parts by the river Tanaro, and is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Milan.

The Vigevano.

The Vigevano lies between Novara on the north, Milan on the eaſt, and the Lomelin on the ſouth; the chief towns whereof are Vigevano and Mortara.

Vigevano town.

Vigevano is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Teſin, twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Milan, defended by a caſtle built upon a rock, and is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Milan.

The Lomelin.

The Lomelin lies to the ſouthward of Vigevano, the chief towns whereof are Valencia, or Valenza, Lumello and Freſcarolo.

Valenza.

Valenza is ſituate near the Po, on the confines of Montferat, twelve miles to the eaſtward of Caſal; a little fortified town, which travellers do not think worth a particular deſcription.

Seſſia vallies

The vallies of Seſſia lie between the river of the ſame name, and the lake Major.

Soil and produce of Montſerat, *&c.*

The duchy of Montferat, the Alexandrin, the Vigevano, and Lomelin, are pleaſant fruitful countries, watered by the river Po, yielding corn, wine, and oil; and as they are contiguous to Piedmont, are a very valuable addition to the King of Sardinia's dominions. Formerly the Montferat was divided between this Prince and the Duke of Mantua; but upon the death of that Duke without iſſue, *anno* 1708, the Emperor transferred the Duke of Mantua's part to his Sardinian Majeſty. Afterwards the Alexandrin, and the reſt of the territories in the Milaneſe, abovementioned, were granted to his Royal Highneſs with the iſland of Sardinia, in lieu of Sicily, which he was obliged to quit to the Emperor; not that theſe are an equivalent, but the powers of Europe were pleaſed to have it ſo. And even in the Montferat the Emperor gave him a great deal of diſturbance, by exempting ſeveral lordſhips from his juriſdiction, which occaſioned a miſunderſtanding between the courts of Vienna and Turin for a conſiderable time.

Transferred to the King of Sardinia.

Government of Savoy, Piedmont, Nice, *&c.*

The adminiſtration of the government in Savoy and Piedmont, the county of Nice, Montferat, and the reſt of the dominions of the King of Sardinia, is committed to a Council of State, in which his Majeſty preſides; next him ſit the Princes of the Blood, and below them ſix Counſellors of State, the Principal Secretary, the Clerk of the Council, and other officers. There is alſo a Council of Finances, or Court of Exchequer, for each province, conſiſting of two Preſidents, a Comptroller, Secretary, and other requiſite officers: and a Chamber of Accounts conſiſting of three Preſidents, three Chevaliers of accounts, ſixteen Maſters of accounts, a Treaſurer-General, two Secretaries, a Comptroller, &c.

Juſtice is regularly adminiſtered in all caſes where the government is not concerned. There are three Senates to which appeals are made from inferior tribunals; the firſt for Savoy, the ſecond for Piedmont, and the third for Nice and it's dependancies. The Senate of Savoy is held at Chamberry, and conſiſts of four Preſidents, ſixteen Senators, of whom the Abbot of Hautecombe is always one, the Advocate-General, the Attorney-General, two Clerks of the Senate, and two Secretaries. The Senate of Piedmont ſits at Turin, and conſiſts of four Preſidents, two Knights, eighteen other Senators, an Advocate-General, an Attorney-General, a Clerk, and other neceſſary officers. The Senate of Nice is held in the capital city, and is compoſed of two Preſidents, ſix Counſellors, an Advocate, an Attorney-General, Clerk, *&c.*

As the King of Sardinia is abſolute in his dominions, theſe Senates or Parliaments are ſubject to his controul; and though common matters are referred to them, yet where the government is concerned, like the Parliaments of Paris and other cities of France, they ſerve only to record the decrees and edicts of the Prince.

CHAP. VI.

Contains an abſtract of the hiſtory of Savoy and Piedmont, with an account of his preſent Sardinian Majeſty's family, revenues, forces, titles, intereſts, and pretenſions,

Hiſtory of Savoy and Piedmont.

SAVOY was antiently poſſeſſed by the Allobroges, the Centrones, Nantuates, Garocelli, and other barbarous people, as the Romans ſtiled them. TERENTIUS VARRO reduced part of them to the obedience of Rome, and AUGUSTUS the reſt, forming them into a province. When the Empire was over-run by the northern nations, Savoy underwent the common fate, and was ſubject ſometimes to one, and ſometimes to another. The Burgundians incorporated it with the kingdom they eſtabliſhed in part of Gallia Celtica and Gallia Narbonenſis. After the deſtruction of the Burgundian kingdom, it came into the hands of BEROLD, the ſon of HUGH Duke of Saxony, who going into Italy with his uncle the Emperor OTHO III, about the year 999, had the government of this country conferred upon him, and at length acquired the ſovereignty of it. But my buſineſs being chiefly with modern hiſtory, I ſhall only gives the names of his immediate ſucceſſors, unleſs I meet with ſomething remarkable in their reſpective adminiſtrations.

HUMBERT I, ſucceeded his father BEROLD, *anno* 1027.

AMADEUS I, ſon of HUMBERT, 1048.
ODO, brother of AMADEUS, 1050.
AMADEUS II, ſon of ODO, 1080.
HUMBERT II, his ſon, 1095.
AMADEUS III, his ſon, 1103.
HUMBERT III, his ſon, 1149.

Thomas, his ſon, 1186.

Amadeus IV, his ſon, 1233.

Boniface, his ſon, 1253.

Peter, the ſeventh ſon of Count Thomas, in prejudice of the ſons of his eldeſt brother, ſucceeded, anno 1263.

Philip, his brother, the eighth ſon of Count Thomas, ſucceeded, 1276.

Amadeus V, ſon of Thomas, ſucceeded in prejudice of his elder brother Philip's children, 1284.

Edward, his ſon, 1323.

Aimon, his brother, 1329.

Amadeus VI, his ſon, 1343.

Amadeus VII, his ſon, 1383.

Duke of Savoy ſucceeds to Piedmont.

Amadeus VIII, his ſon, made a Duke by the Emperor Sigismund; and Lewis of Savoy, Prince of Piedmont, dying without iſſue, he ſucceeded to his dominions, 1391.

Lewis, his ſon, ſucceeded on his father's reſignation, who retired into the priory of Ripailles, on the lake of Geneva, where being choſen Pope by the name of Felix V, and governed nine years, for the peace of the church he reſigned the popedom to his competitor, and retired again to the monaſtery of Ripailles, 1434.

Amadeus IX, his ſon, 1465.

Philibert I, his ſon, 1477.

Charles I, his brother, ſucceeded his aunt, Queen Charlotte, in the Kingdom of Cyprus, 1482.

Charles-John-Amadeus, his ſon, 1490.

Philip II, ſon to Lewis, 1496.

Philibert II, his ſon, 1497.

Charles III, ſon to Philip II, 1504.

Emanuel-Philibert, his ſon, 1553.

Charles-Emanuel, his ſon, 1580.

Victor-Amadeus I, his ſon, 1630.

Francis-Hyacinthus, his ſon, 1637.

Charles Emanuel II, his brother, 1638.

Victor-Amadeus II, his ſon, the preſent Sovereign of Savoy, Piedmont, &c. ſucceeded his father Charles-Emanuel, on the 12th of June, 1675, during his minority. He was born on the 14th of May, 1666, and married Anne-Mary of Valois, daughter to Philip Duke of Orleans, and Henrietta daughter of Charles I, King of England, anno 1684, by whom he had iſſue Mary-Adelaide, mother to the preſent French King, and Mary-Louisa-Gabriella, married to Philip V, the preſent King of Spain; who is ſince dead, as well as the reſt of the King of Sardinia's children, except Charles-Emanuel-Victor, the preſent Prince of Piedmont, who married the Princeſs Palatine of Sultzbach, ſiſter to the Prince of Sultzbach, heir to the Elector Palatine, in the year 1722, who the ſame year being brought to bed of a Prince, died in child-bed; nor did her ſon ſurvive her much above two years: ſo that the King of Sardinia's dominions in Italy, are in danger of going to another branch of his family, viz. that of Carignan, if the Prince of Piedmont has no male iſſue. The Salique Law, it ſeems, is in force here, neither the females, or their iſſue, can inherit the dominions of Savoy or Piedmont. Of the branch of Carignan there are ſeveral males ſtill living, beſides the preſent Prince of that name. The celebrated Prince Eugene is of this houſe, but there are ſeveral before him in the ſucceſſion.

The Duke of Savoy entered into the grand alliance in the year 1690, and the Confederates ſent him a good body of troops, and large remittances of money, to enable him to make head againſt the French: but he was generally unfortunate in this war; and particularly in the year 1693, when the French obtained a compleat victory, and Duke Schomberg, General of the Engliſh auxiliaries, was mortally wounded in the field of battle. His Royal Highneſs made a ſeparate peace with France in the year 1696, in conſideration of their reſtoring all the towns they had taken from him during the war, except Pignerol, and their paying him four millions of livres, (400,000 l.) It was alſo agreed that the Duke of Burgundy ſhould marry his daughter, as hath been intimated already. On the other hand, the Duke agreed to baniſh all the French Refugees in his territories, and prohibit the Vaudois from converſing with his other ſubjects.

Upon the death of Charles II, King of Spain, he joined the French, and in concert with them endeavoured to prevent the Germans, under Prince Eugene, penetrating into Italy. But after the Germans had paſſed the Alps, and got footing in that country, he began to liſten to the propoſals that were made him by the allies; and of this Lewis XIV having received ſome intimation, ordered his Generals to make his troops priſoners: whereupon the Duke arreſted the Ambaſſadors of France and Spain, with all the French at Turin, and a regiment of horſe of the ſame nation, that lay in the neighbourhood. About which time his Royal Highneſs received the following ſhort letter from the moſt Chriſtian King, viz.

'Monſieur,

'Since religion, honour, alliance, treaties, 'and your own hand, are of no force between 'you and me, I have ſent my couſin, the Duke 'of Vendoſme, to explain my mind to you, and 'he will give you four and twenty hours to conſider what you have to do.'

The Duke, notwithſtanding he had married one daughter to the heir of the crown of France, and another to the King of Spain, remained unmoved in his reſolution of adhering to the allies. Whether they offered him better terms than France, or whether he obſerved that they were an over-match for Lewis XIV, and that this conduct would turn to his advantage in the end, whatever he might ſuffer for the preſent; he bravely reſolved to venture all, though he had at that time no forces able to make head againſt France. Prince Eugene indeed who commanded the Emperor's army in Lombardy, ſent him from time to time ſuch ſmall detachments as he could ſpare, and theſe ſerved to form a flying camp, and harraſs the French army, while they laid ſiege to his towns, but could not prevent the taking them one after another. Verceil, Suza, and Ivrea, were forced to ſurrender in the year 1704; and Verue, after a ſix months ſiege, in the year 1705, underwent the ſame fate: but all his fortreſſes were ſo well defended, that the French loſt the flower of their troops before them, and he gained time thereby till the Confederates could march to his aſſiſtance; for the French laying ſiege to Turin on the 3d of June, 1706, Prince Eugene joined the Duke of Savoy with the body of the Imperial army on the 28th of Auguſt following, and on the ſeventh of September they attacked the enemy before Turin with their

Battle of Turin.

their united forces, and gained a compleat victory. The ſame day the Duke entered his capital city in triumph, which was reduced to the laſt extremity, having endured a ſiege of three months, and ſpent all their powder. In this engagement the Duke of Orleans and the Marſhal MARSIN, who commanded the French, were both wounded, and MARSIN died of his wounds three days after. The allies took an hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, fifty mortars, and ſeven thouſand priſoners, with all the enemy's tents, ammunition, and baggage, and made a prodigious ſlaughter amongſt them; whereupon not only the towns in Savoy and Piedmont which the French had taken were immediately reduced to the obedience of their Sovereign the Duke of Savoy, but the Imperialiſts made themſelves maſters of the Milaneſe, and drove the French entirely out of Lombardy. The following year, 1707, Count TAUN, the Imperial General, marched with a detachment of fifteen thouſand men into the kingdom of Naples, in reducing whereof he met with but little oppoſition. The Duke of Savoy and Prince EUGENE at the ſame time marched into France with forty thouſand men, and in conjunction with the confederate fleet, commanded by Sir CLOUDESLY SHOVEL, laid ſiege to Thoulon; but having lain before that city about a month, the taking of it was found impracticable, and the Duke marched back again into Italy, the French being in no condition to oppoſe his return; or if they were, did not think fit to hazard a battle in their own country, where a defeat might have been fatal to them. The Duke, by way of retaliation for the havock the French had been guilty of in Piedmont, deſtroyed all the olive-trees about Thoulon, and in the country through which he marched. And this was the laſt conſiderable enterprize his Royal Highneſs was concerned in during the war; there happening to be a miſunderſtanding between the Emperor and him, concerning ſome fiefs in the Montferat: however, at the peace concluded in the year 1713, the ſervices the Duke of Savoy had performed, and the hazards he had run in the confederate cauſe, induced the high allies to confer on him the kingdom of Sicily; to which the King of Spain conſented, on condition of his Sicilian Majeſty's entering into a ſtrict alliance with him.

Siege of Thoulon.

In the month of Auguſt 1717, the King of Spain commanded the Marquis de Lede to make a deſcent on the iſland of Sardinia with ſix or ſeven thouſand men, and made himſelf maſter of the iſland, notwithſtanding it was yielded to the Emperor by the treaty of Utrecht. The following year, 1718, the ſame General invaded Sicily with ſeventeen or eighteen thouſand men, and moſt of the towns opened their gates to him, and ſubmitted to King PHILIP. Whereupon the Emperor, Great Britain, and France, entered into an alliance, which, upon the States-General coming into it, obtained the name of the Quadruple Alliance, whereby they engaged to ſee the peace of Utrecht performed in all it's articles, except ſuch as they ſhould conſent to alter: and in one of the ſaid articles it was ſtipulated, That whereas the ceſſion of Sicily by the treaty of Utrecht to the houſe of Savoy was ſolely made for rendering that peace more ſolid and laſting, and not on the account of any right the King of Sicily had thereto, which had not produced the deſired effect; the Princes who made the ſaid treaty of Utrecht therefore, for the repoſe of Italy, had thought it lawful for them, even without the conſent of the parties concerned, to abrogate that article of the ſaid treaty which regarded the kingdom of Sicily, and to require that the King of Sicily ſhould reſtore to his Imperial Majeſty the ſaid iſland and kingdom, with all it's dependencies. In return whereof his Imperial Majeſty ſhould yield to the ſaid King of Sicily the iſland and kingdom of Sardinia, in the ſame manner he poſſeſſed Sicily: on condition nevertheleſs, that the reverſion of the ſaid kingdom of Sardinia ſhould be reſerved to the crown of Spain, whenever the houſe of Savoy ſhould fail of heirs male. His Imperial Majeſty alſo confirmed to the King of Sardinia all the ceſſions made to him of the Montferat, and of the provinces, towns, and places transferred to him in the Milaneſe; and acknowledged the right of the ſaid King of Sicily to ſucceed to the crown of Spain, on failure of male iſſue of King PHILIP and his poſterity; provided that no Prince of the houſe of Savoy, who ſhould ſucceed to the kingdom of Spain, ſhould poſſeſs at the ſame time any part of the continent of Italy. To which alliance the King of Sicily acceded, and agreed to take upon him the title of King of Sardinia, inſtead of King of Sicily.

The Spaniards invade Sicily.

Sardinia given to his Sicilian Majeſty.

The King of Spain alſo being over-powered by the Imperialiſts and their allies, agreed to evacuate the iſlands of Sicily and Sardinia, to acknowledge the Emperor's title to one, and the King of Sardinia's to the other; and, in ſhort, to accede to the quadruple alliance: though it is highly probable, that neither his Sardinian or Catholick Majeſty were perfectly ſatisfied with the terms of it. His Sardinian Majeſty's dominions having enjoy'd a profound peace ever ſince the year 1720, that Prince has applied himſelf to correct ſuch abuſes, as had crept into the adminiſtration during the late wars, and to encourage trade and manufactures. He has alſo ordered the laws to be reviewed, which were grown too voluminous, and reduced them to a narrower compaſs, and abridged and ſhortened the proceedings in courts of juſtice, to the great ſatisfaction of his ſubjects.

The King's titles.

His preſent titles are VICTOR-AMADEUS, by the grace of God, King of Sardinia, Duke of Savoy, Chablais, Aouſte, Genevois, and Montferat; Prince of Piedmont, Achaia, Morea, and Oneglia; Marquis of Saluſſes and Suza; Earl of Aſti, Geneva, Nice, Tende, and Romont; Baron of Vaud; Lord of Verceil, Friburg, Marro, Piella, Novella; Prince and perpetual Vicar of the holy Roman Empire in Italy, and King of Cyprus, &c.

As the King of Sardinia is a member of the Empire, he has a ſeſſion in their Dyets amongſt the Princes of the Circle of the Upper Rhine, and contributes his quota to a war againſt the Turks; but I don't find he is ſubject to the laws and conſtitutions of the Empire in other reſpects, unleſs it be that he receives the inveſtiture of ſuch territories as he enjoys in the Montferat and Milaneſe from the Emperor.

Revenues.

The ordinary revenues of this Prince are uſually computed at five hundred thouſand pounds ſterling per ann. but this ſeems to be no more than an uncertain gueſs: however, as he is poſſeſſed of ſeveral rich and fertile provinces, they muſt be very conſiderable; and as he is abſolute in his dominions, he can augment them at his pleaſure. What he has to conſider is, that he does not too much oppreſs his ſubjects by laying on them duties greater than they can bear, and thereby diſcourage them from cultivating and improving

proving their lands to the beſt advantage, which would in the end redound to his own loſs. And as he is ſurrounded by Princes more potent than himſelf, he muſt take care alſo not to give his people too great provocations, leaſt they ſhould be induced to change their maſters, as we find ſome of the Vaudois did in the laſt war, putting themſelves under the protection of the French.

Forces.

He is always obliged to have a good body of troops in time of peace, to garriſon his frontier towns againſt France and the Milaneſe; but he does not ſeem to be governed by the German principle, of keeping up twice as many forces as he can maintain. It is with reluctance that he is ever drawn into a war either by France or the Empire; and when he finds it unavoidable, and that he muſt declare for the one party or the other, he takes care to make an advantageous bargain: to have ſuch ſums advanced, and penſions annually paid him, that he has little occaſion to burthen his ſubjects with extraordinary taxes. In all that long and terrible war he was engaged in for thirty years, till the peace of Utrecht, I queſtion whether he paid ten thouſand men with his own money; and though his country ſuffered very much, he was at laſt amply rewarded by an addition of ſeveral fine countries to his former territories, and placed in the rank of Kings. The taking Sicily from him again by the ſame powers who had conferred that kingdom on him, without any provocation on his part, muſt be a very great mortification; but as it is, he has been no great ſufferer by his adherence to the allies: had he been biaſſed indeed by conſiderations of blood or natural affection, it might have been expected that he ſhould have declared for France and Spain, his two grandſons being heirs to thoſe two kingdoms; but kindred or friendſhip, ſeldom determine Princes or States in forming their alliances. He might be apprehenſive, that if France and Spain had ſucceſs in the war, as their territories lay contiguous to his own, they would put what terms they pleaſed upon him, and he muſt become a vaſſal to Lewis le Grand. Whereas by taking part with the Confederates, he might enlarge his dominions, and make a greater figure in Europe than any of his anceſtors had done; and the ſucceſs has ſhewn the wiſdom of his choice. And here give me leave to obſerve, that no Prince has diſcovered a greater reach in politicks than the King of Sardinia, in defending his ſmall territories for ſo many years againſt the moſt powerful and ambitious Prince in Europe, who lay contiguous to him, and attacked him with the utmoſt fury. In the firſt war, though he had loſt the beſt part of his country, he had the addreſs to get every place reſtored him, except Pignerol, by a treaty to marry one daughter to the heir of France, and another to the King of Spain, and to procure large ſums of money from France to reimburſe the charges of the war. In the ſecond war, though he joined the French, and admitted their troops into his country, when he changed hands, and came over to the Confederates, he ſo contrived matters, that the French had not an opportunity of ſurprizing any of his towns, but every one of them defended themſelves to the laſt extremity, and gave his new allies an opportunity of relieving him. To ſay what his intereſt would be in caſe of a rupture between the allies of Vienna and Hanover, would be preſumption in me; but if we may judge at his future conduct by the paſt, we may conclude he will not be in haſte to declare for either; and when he does, the powers that offer him the greateſt advantages will have him. Should he take the Vienna ſide, no doubt but the maritime powers will ſoon deprive him of his kingdom of Sardinia; but this is a loſs which the Imperialiſts can eaſily make him amends for, by enlarging his Italian territories, and may perhaps erect him another kingdom in Lombardy, if they ſhould ſtand very much in need of him.

The republicks of Geneva and Genoa are as much inferior in ſtrength to his Sardinian Majeſty, and as apprehenſive of his deſigns againſt them, as he is of France or the Emperor; and were they not protected by their reſpective allies, would be in danger of falling under his power. Nor does he want a pretence to attack Geneva, if he ſhould meet with a favourable opportunity, his anceſtors having been Sovereigns of that city, as they were alſo of the neighbouring country of Vaud, which the Switzers made themſelves maſters of, and ſtill keep by a ſtrong hand. He is not yet indeed in a condition to recover either. But none of theſe States would willingly ſee his Sardinian Majeſty more powerful than he is, being well aſſured he would revive his antiquated claims on their reſpective countries, if he knew how to ſupport them by his arms.

GENOA.

CHAP. VII.

Treats of the territories and coaſt of Genoa, the antient Liguria.

Situation and extent.

THIS country is properly called, *The coaſt of Genoa*; extending along the Mediteranean Sea, from the river Var to the Magra, an hundred and fifty miles in length, and not being above twenty in breadth, and in ſome places ſcarce ten. It is bounded on the land ſide by the Alps and Apennine hills, which ſeparate the Genoeſe from the county of Nice, Piedmont, Montferat, the Milaneſe, and Parma on the weſt, north, and north-eaſt; it is bounded by the Duchy of Florence towards the eaſt; and by the Mediterranean, or the Riviere de Genoa on the ſouth.

The air.

The country lying thus open to the ſouth ſun, and the rocks and mountains covering it from the northern winds, the air is much warmer than in the neigbouring country of Piedmont, and in ſummer it is exceſſive hot. The tops of the mountains are perfectly bare, having neither wood nor herbage upon them; but the bottom and ſouth ſide of the mountains are well planted with vines, olives, mulberries, and other fruit-trees, and in ſome places with palm-trees, the laſt of which are rarely found in other parts of Italy; but the ſoil yields ſcarce any corn, nor have they great plenty of fiſh in their ſeas; or rather, as ſome relate, theſe ſeas are ſo tempeſtuous, that the fiſh are not eaſily taken here. Some travellers indeed aſſure us, that they have ſeen large ſhoals of fiſh upon this coaſt in fine weather, which may eaſily be reconciled with the former accounts; for let there be ever ſo great a plenty of fiſh in a calm, they always diſappear in ſtormy weather, which this coaſt is very ſubject to.

Mountains.

Soil.

Manners of the Genoeſe.

The Genoeſe, as Mr Addison obſerves, are generally eſteemed a cunning induſtrious people, and more enured to hardſhip than the reſt of the Italians, which was the character of their anceſtors,

ſtors, the antient Ligurians. As the barrenneſs of the country continues, no wonder, ſays my author, that their manners are the ſame; for nothing makes men's wits ſharper than want. But there may be this further reaſon given for their ſagacity and dexterity in buſineſs, namely, that all their nobility and gentry apply themſelves to trade, and are better acquainted with the myſteries of over-reaching and cozening thoſe they deal with, than the gentry of other countries. It is very rare to find a tradeſman above the little arts of tricking and deceiving his cuſtomers, either in the price or goodneſs of what he ſells; and thoſe that have been bred up in ſuch practices, are ſeldom obſerved to have that ſpirit and generoſity which is ſo natural to gentlemen. Let an overgrown tradeſman come and ſettle in the country, you ſhall ſee him practiſing all the little arts in the neighbourhood he lives in he was uſed to in his ſhop, as often as he meets with an opportunity: if he is guilty of a charitable or benevolent act, it is uſually by his laſt will and teſtament, which is not to take place till after he is dead, and this by way of compoſition with heaven perhaps for the extortion and knavery of his youth.

Habits.

The quality in Genoa are uſually clothed in black, and wear no ſwords; but throw a cloak over them when they got out, notwithſtanding the heat of the country. As for the poorer ſort of people, ſuch as labourers, huſbandmen, &c. they ſcarce wear any cloaths at all, nor have occaſion for any, the weather is ſo warm. The people of a middle rank follow ſome the Spaniſh and others the French modes, according as they are affected. The womens petticoats, who are pleaſed with the Spaniſh faſhions, are ſtuffed out with farthingals; while the men wear broad hats, long-waiſted doublets with hanging ſleeves, and ſtrait breeches, buckling themſelves up with broad leathern belts.

Towns.

The chief towns are, 1. Genoa, the capital. 2. Gavi. 3. Cogereto. 4. Varragio. 5. Noli. 6. Albenga. 7. St Laurenzo. 8. Taggia. 9. St Remo. 10. Vintimiglia. 11. Oneglia. 12. Final. 13. Sarzana. 14. Lerice. 15. Spezza. 16. Porto Venere. 17. Monteroſſo. 18. Seſtri. 19. Lavagne. 20. Rapallo. 21. Porto Fino. 22. Brugneto. 23. Torriglia. 24. Vergagny. And, 25. Chivari.

Genoa city.

The city of Genoa lies upon the ſea, embracing the harbour in form of a creſcent, in forty-four degrees thirty minutes north latitude; part of it is on a flat, cloſe to the ſhore, the other part riſes gradually with the hill. The houſes are lofty, and beautifully painted on the outſide, and afford one of the fineſt proſpects in the world to thoſe who approach it from the ſea. The harbour is large and deep, but lies open to the ſouth-weſt, the moſt troubleſome wind that blows in theſe ſeas. They have built a mole, which ſecures their gallies and ſmall veſſels from ſtorms as well as enemies, but the larger lie expoſed to both: nor could they protect the town itſelf from a bombardment, when the French fleet came before it in the year 1684, the heart of the town was almoſt deſtroyed; but it is ſince rebuilt to great advantage: nor did the fineſt palaces which ſtood towards the outſide of the town receive any great damage. The Genoeſe have ſince built another mole and ſeveral forts, which they have provided with long guns to ſecure them againſt the like misfortune; but whether it will anſwer their expectations or not, I find is much queſtioned. Moſt of the ſtreets are very narrow, and the houſes built ſix or ſeven ſtories high, which occaſions the lower rooms to be dark, but defends them from the ſcorching heat of the ſun. The buildings are of brick or ſtone, the walls generally plaiſtered over and painted, and the roofs flat. The new ſtreet, according to Mr Addison, is a double range of palaces from one end to the other, built with an excellent fancy, and fit for the greateſt Princes to inhabit. They are richly adorned with marble, and the fronts of four or five of them entirely of that kind of ſtone; but theſe are all the marble houſes in Genoa, though, according to the accounts of many travellers, one would be inclined to think the whole town was built with it. Five or ſix of the ſtreets are of a great breadth, and the houſes very magnificent; as they are alſo in the ſuburb of St Pietro D'Arena. There are a great many beautiful palaces ſtanding along the ſea-ſhore, which makes the town appear much larger than it is to thoſe who ſail by it; but the circumference of the city is not above ſix miles. It is ſurrounded by a wall and other fortifications, and at a little diſtance there is a ſecond wall, which takes in the hills that command the place. The ſtreets being too narrow for coaches to paſs, chairs and litters are chiefly uſed by the quality inſtead of them.

There are in the place about thirty pariſh-churches, twenty colleges, and as many convents and religious houſes; the ſteeples and towers whereof are no ſmall ornament to the city, and may be ſeen at a great diſtance at ſea. But what ſeems peculiar to this town is their gardens of flowers and greens on the roofs of their houſes, and in their balconies, where the foundation will bear them. The principal publick buildings are, 1. The cathedral, dedicated to St Lawrence, a large edifice, but not ſo beautiful as many other Italian churches. The things moſt remarkable on the inſide are the marble pillars which ſupport the roof, and a marble ſtatue of St John the Evangeliſt. The aſhes of St John the Baptiſt are ſaid to be preſerved in this church in a ſilver veſſel, which ſtands upon four porphyry pillars. They ſhew alſo a large diſh made of one ſingle emerald, which, according to tradition, was preſented to Solomon by the Queen of Sheba, and is the ſame which our Saviour eat the paſchal lamb out of. The church of the Annunciation is the fineſt in Genoa, built at the ſole charge of the family of Lomelline: the roof is glorioſly gilded, the pillars that ſupport it are of marble, and the walls covered with the moſt exquiſite paintings; the altars are magnificent, and adorned with fine pictures done by Rubens, and other great maſters. The churches of St Cyr, St Matthew, and St Mary of Carignan, are alſo well worth viewing.

The Duke of Doria's palace has the beſt appearance on the outſide of any in Genoa: it takes up all the ground from the ſea-ſhore to the top of the hill; in the lower part of it is a magnificent gallery, paved with black and white marble, and ſupported by pillars of the ſame ſtone, being an hundred and twenty paces long, and ſtands in full view of the port. Beyond this is a fine garden, adorned with fountains and ſtatues, amongſt which one of them repreſents Andrew Doria, the head of the family, under the figure of Neptune, much larger than the life. As the palace riſes higher upon the aſcent of the hill, the apartments are ſtill more magnificent; nor can any thing be richer than the furniture; the very bedſteads are of ſilver, and nothing is to be ſeen but tables of jaſper, alabaſter, agate, or ſilver; among which there is one of ſilver, ſaid to weigh twenty-four thouſand crowns. One room, Mr ADDISON obſerves, is hung with tapeſtry, in which are wrought, the figures of the great perſons that family has produced; nor can any houſe in Europe ſhow a longer line of heroes, who have preferred the good of their country to all other views. There is another ſtatue erected to the memory of ANDREW DORIA at the entrance of the Doge's palace, with the title of, *The deliverer of his country*. But to return to the palace of DORIA; it is filled with ſtatues, buſts, baſs-reliefs, and the moſt exquiſite paintings; the hall through which we enter is built in form of a portico, and covered with pictures drawn by the beſt hands. Beyond this part of the palace is a beautiful ſummer-houſe in the middle of a fine garden, which reaches to the top of the hill, adorned with grotto's, fountains, and ſtatues; and among other curioſities, there is a tomb and epitaph of a dog, that had a legacy of five hundred pounds per annum left him for his maintenance.

The palaces of Durazzo, Palavicino, Spinola, Baldi, Grimaldi, Lomellini, and Turſis, alſo are deſervedly admired. But Mr ADDISON ſeems to prefer the Villa Imperiale, a mile out of town, to any of them. The Doge's palace is a large building, where are chambers for the great and little Council, and for the colleges, as alſo lodgings for the Doge, and ſome of the Senators and their families; but this is much inferior to the private palaces of the nobility, both in point of architecture and materials. It is not to be conceived, ſays a French writer, how many beauties may be diſcovered with the ſingle caſt of an eye in the new ſtreet of Genoa: all is enchanting! all aſtoniſhing! When we have viewed one of theſe palaces, we are apt to think that nothing can excel it, and yet the beauty of the next, will make us forget what we juſt before ſo much admired. The Jeſuits church may alſo well be ranked among the Genoeſe palaces, if we regard the materials, the architecture, or the painting with which it is adorned. Mr ADDISON complains, that there are but few antiquities to be met with in this city: he ſaw no other than the roſtrum of an old Roman ſhip, which is made of iron, and ends in a boar's head: this was found in the harbour of Genoa as they were cleaning it. In the arſenal, where 'tis pretended there are arms for forty thouſand men, they ſhew ſeveral pieces of armour, which, according to tradition, were worn by certain Genoeſe ladies, in a croiſade againſt the Turks, in which they diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their bravery.

This city has been the See of an Archbiſhop ever ſince the year 1132, and though it be not an univerſity, here is an academy of wits, who ſpend their time in compoſing orations, poems, and other ingenious ſtudies: for as the Italians are perfectly ignorant in the art of drinking and ſmoaking away the beſt part of their day, the principal amuſement of the quality, in ſome countries to the northward of them; it is neceſſary they ſhould introduce ſome amuſements, in the room of thoſe elegant entertainments. When a foreigner arrives at Genoa, I perceive his baggage is ſtrictly ſearched, and he is ſeverely treated if the cuſtom-houſe officers find any foreign coin. A dagger, or a ſharp pointed knife alſo is ſeized as an unlawful weapon; and incurs a forfeiture; but fire-arms are only taken away, and ſecured till the traveller leaves the town, and they require a fee for taking care of them. It is the ſame in other towns of Italy; ſo that a perſon pays more than the price of his piſtols before he has paſſed through many of them.

VERIYARD relates, that the day he arrived at Genoa, as he paſſed through one of the great ſtreets, he obſerved a woman mounted on a ſtage, hung round with ſpheres, globes, ſchemes, and mathematical inſtruments: ſhe was tall of ſtature, of a ſwarthy complection, and a fierce maſculine countenance, and was haranguing the croud, magnifying her ſkill in judicial aſtrology, and telling of fortunes, with a thouſand ridiculous geſtures and odd grimaces; after which ſhe invited the people to attend at her chamber, where they might have an account of their whole lives, paſt and to come, at a reaſonable rate: and as a proof of her art, ſhe whiſpered ſeveral of the mob, through a kind of ſpeaking-trumpet twelve feet long, applying the ſmall end of it to the ear of the perſon ſhe ſpoke to, ſo that none of the ſtanders-by could hear what ſhe ſaid. Among others, ſhe pitched upon our traveller to make an experiment upon; and having applied the machine to his ear, ſhe told him, he was troubled with an itch of rambling, that he had gone through many dangers to gratify his curioſity, and been five years out of his own country; which a little ſurprized him, every tittle of it being literally true: and as he was but juſt come into the town, and had converſed with none of the inhabitants, he ſeemed to ſuſpect ſhe had received her intelligence from the devil. But as to his being a traveller, ſhe might eaſily collect this from his garb, and the time he had been abroad, was probably a meer gueſs; people are ſo willing upon one luckly gueſs to aſcribe every thing to ſome ſupernatural power, and to make allowances where the pretended conjurer happens to be miſtaken, that 'tis no difficult matter, for the profeſſors of this ſcience, to eſtabliſh a reputation wherever they come. I proceed now to deſcribe the ſituation of the reſt of the towns of any conſequence upon the Genoeſe coaſt; viz.

Cogereto.

2. Cogereto, a little port-town, fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Genoa, which would ſcarce have been worth mentioning, but that it is ſaid to be the place where the famous COLUMBUS, who diſcovered America, was born; though ſome make him a native of the city of Genoa.

Savona.

3. Savona, at the bottom of a bay, about thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Genoa, one of the largeſt towns in the Genoeſe territories, to which the King of Sardinia ſometimes ſets up a claim. It is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Milan, and remarkable for the birth of three Popes, viz. GREGORY VII, JULIUS II, and SIXTUS IV.

Noli.

4. Noli, ſituate on the ſame coaſt, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Savona, the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Genoa; an independent ſtate, till the fifteenth century, when it was incorporated with the republick of Genoa.

Final.

5. Final, about five miles ſouth-weſt of Noli, and forty from Genoa, the capital of a marquiſate, bounded by two mountains on the eaſt and weſt, by the duchy of Montferat on the north, and by the ſea of Genoa towards the ſouth; governed by it's own Lords, 'till about the year 1600, when ANDREAS SFORZA, the laſt Marquis, ſold it to the Spaniards, who yielded it to the Imperialiſts

when they evacuated the reſt of the Spaniſh territories in Italy, in the year 1707, and was by the Imperialiſts ſold to the republick of Genoa, who are now in poſſeſſion of it. The town is defended by a caſtle and two forts, and may be reckoned a tolerable harbour on a coaſt where none are good.

Albenga. 6. Albenga, ſituate on the ſame coaſt, about twenty miles to the ſouthward of Final, at the mouth of a ſmall river, formerly eſteemed a conſiderable city, and a pretty good harbour, and is ſtill the See of a Biſhop ſuffragan to Genoa.

Oneglia. 7. Oneglia, the capital of a territory of the ſame name, about ſixty miles ſouth-weſt of Genoa, and forty to the weſtward of Nice, belonging to the King of Sardinia, and already deſcribed with the reſt of that Prince's territories.

St Remo. 8. St Remo, fifteen miles to the weſtward of Oneglia, pleaſantly ſituated, partly in a plain by the ſea-ſide, and partly on the aſcent of a hill, the country about it abounding in oranges, lemons, and other delicious fruits, which has occaſioned it to be called the paradiſe of Italy. Mr ADDISON being driven into this harbour by contrary winds, obſerved that there were ſeveral plantations of palm-trees in the neighbouring fields, which are not found in any other part of Italy.

Vintimiglia. 9. Vintimiglia, a port-town, ſituate at the mouth of the river Rota, thirty miles and upwards to the weſtward of Oneglia, remarkable for little but it's antient caſtle, and it's being a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Milan.

Monaco. 10. Monaco, the capital of a little principality, belonging to the family of Grimaldi, about ten miles long and three broad. The town lies about ten miles to the weſtward of Vintimiglia, and eight to the eaſtward of Nice, and is ſuppoſed to be the *Herculis Monæci Portus* of the antients. It is fortified and defended by a caſtle, and has a harbour belonging to it. The Spaniards were in poſſeſſion of it 'till the year 1641, when the Prince expelled them, and received a French garriſon, under whoſe protection it has been almoſt ever ſince. The Prince is a Peer of France.

The towns ſituate to the eaſtward of Genoa, are, 1. Rapallo, which lies on a little bay of the ſame name, ſixteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Genoa, famous for the excellent oil produced in the country about it.

Rapallo.

Lavagne. 2. Lavagne, ſituate at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, twenty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Genoa.

Borgheto. 3. Borgheto, the capital of a marquiſate, a little to the eaſtward of Lavagne, the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Genoa.

Sarzana. 4. Sarzana, ſituate about ſixty miles ſouth-eaſt of Genoa, about three miles from the mouth of the river Magra, the eaſtern boundary of the ſtate of Genoa, a large populous town, with a pretty good trade, and the See of a Biſhop ſuffragan to Rome.

Porto Venere. And, 5. Porto Venere, about ſeven miles to the ſouthward of Sarzana, upon the gulph of Spezza, eſteemed a good harbour, and defended by a fort.

The legiſlative authority in the republick of Genoa is lodged in the Great Council or Senate. The adminiſtration of the government is committed to the Doge, or Duke, with the following councils, 1. The council called the Signiory. 2. The council called the College. 3. An aſſembly ſtiled the Council. And, 4. An aſſembly compoſed of the Signiory and College united in one.

The Great Council, or Senate, conſiſts of the Signiory and College, and four hundred noblemen and principal citizens, annually elected out of the freemen, who muſt be twenty five years of age, and who have been regiſtred citizens four years at leaſt, and have not been of this council before; three hundred of whom, with the members of the Signiory and College, make a Quorum. Four parts in five of this Senate muſt agree to the enacting new laws, and levying of taxes; and they have alſo ſome of the principal offices in their diſpoſal.

The Signiory conſiſts of the Duke and twelve other members, who have been free twelve years, and hold their places two years, but are not capable of being elected again under five years after their quitting them. By theſe, audience is given to Ambaſſadors, diſpatches to and from foreign courts ſent and received, letters-patent granted, and orders iſſued for the payment of the publick money: And where the matter is of difficulty, and they cannot agree, they call the College to their aſſiſtance, and ſometimes the Council alſo, and the matter is determined by plurality of voices.

The College is compoſed of eight members ſtiled Procurators, together with all ſuch as have enjoyed the office of Dukes, the latter being Procurators for life, but the former choſen once in two years. Theſe manage the revenue, farm out the lands of the ſtate, buy and ſell for the republick, and in caſe any diſpute ariſe, call the Signiory to their aſſiſtance.

The aſſembly called the Council, conſiſts of the Signiory, the College, and one hundred members more, choſen out of the Great Council or Senate. Theſe are the laſt reſort in civil cauſes, and receive all appeals from inferior judicatories, and aſſiſt the Signiory and College in difficult points, as hath been obſerved already.

The Signiory and College united, have a power of granting pardons in ordinary caſes, but in parricide, high-treaſon, and other enormous crimes, they are obliged to call the Council to their aſſiſtance. The Signiory and College alſo treat of war and peace, and forming alliances; and in all their councils, matters are determined by ballot. Beſides the five councils above-mentioned, there is another aſſembly of five perſons, whoſe office it is to ſee the laws put in execution.

The Doge is obliged to reſide in the palace the two years he is in office, with two of the Signiory, and their families. He muſt be an inhabitant of the city, fifty years of age, no baſtard, and one that hath an eſtate to ſupport his dignity. He propoſes all matters to be debated in the Senate and Council, which are of a publick concern; and after he has ſerved two years retires to his own houſe, where he remains in private for eight days 'till his adminiſtration is examined, and either approved or condemned. In the firſt caſe he is made Procurator during life; but in the other, proceeded againſt as a criminal.

When the Doge is elected, they place a crown of gold upon his head, and a ſcepter in his hand, on account of the iſland and kingdom of Corſica, of which they are Sovereigns; but this is but a ſhadow of royalty, the authority being lodged in the Senate: He hath however his guards, and his habit is not inferior to that of other crowned heads, his temporary Majeſty being cloathed in robes of crimſon velvet, and complimented with the title of His Serenity. The Senators are ſtiled Their Excellencies, and the Nobility Illuſtrious; as indeed every man is in Italy, who makes any thing of a figure. The nobility derive their titles from ſuch lands or ſigniories as they poſſeſs in Milan or Naples, or have purchaſed them of the King of Spain or the Emperor, who now poſſeſſes the Spaniſh territories in Italy. And though the antient and modern nobility enjoy the ſame privileges, yet thoſe families which are of an hundred or two years ſtanding, mightily deſpiſe thoſe who are lately made, as is uſual in other countries. This republick has ſuffered very much by permitting her ſubjects to purchaſe honours and eſtates of foreign Princes; for this has in a manner rendered the moſt conſiderable families amongſt them ſubjects to another juriſdiction. While the Spaniard was poſſeſſed of Milan and Naples, they were obliged to be governed by Spaniſh councils, as they are now by the Imperialiſts; which has ſometimes drawn upon them the reſentment of the French, who have bombarded their capital city and other towns upon the coaſt, and given a great ſhock to their trade.

Forces.

As to their naval ſtrength, it is dwindled to nothing: Their fleet, which formerly obtained ſo many glorious victories over the Venetians, Turks, Spaniards, &c. and ſettled ſo many colonies in Aſia, is now reduced to ſix gallies; and when they would have made an addition to them of four more, the French King ordered them to deſiſt at their peril. Their forces at land in time of peace may be about four or five thouſand men, and in caſe of a war they might raiſe twenty thouſand, and find taxes ſufficient to maintain them, for many of their ſubjects are ſtill very rich.

Revenues.

The ordinary revenue indeed is not computed to amount to two hundred thouſand pounds per annum, but upon an extraordinary occaſion the great men muſt ſubmit to be taxed in proportion to their wealth; though as they compoſe the legiſlature, no doubt they will avoid charging their own eſtates 'till there is an abſolute neceſſity for it. As for what they poſſeſs in the Emperor's territories in Naples and Milan, they are uſually taxed higher than the natives, and theſe duties add nothing to the publick revenue of their own ſtate; and whatever extortions are practiſed upon them abroad, they have no remedy for them. It has always been the maxim of the Spaniards, as I ſuppoſe it is now of the Imperialiſts, not to ſuffer the Genoeſe to ſell their eſtates in Naples, &c. to any but their own countrymen, that the great men of Genoa may always be dependent on thoſe powers. There is a bank at Genoa, whoſe fund is part of the publick duties, which are appropriated to pay off the debts of the republick; from whence it is natural to think the projectors of our Sinking Fund took the hint.

The crown of Spain remains ſtill vaſtly indebted to this republick for the money borrowed by PHILIP II, towards fitting out the Invincible Armada againſt England, and other ſums taken up ſince; for which that kingdom pays them part of the intereſt ſometimes, and probably they never expect the principal, eſpecially ſince the Spaniards have ſo little to do in Italy at this day. One piece of œconomy the Genoeſe are juſtly commended for, conſidering the barrenneſs of their country; and that is, the keeping always two or three years proviſion of corn, wine, and oil, before-hand in their ſtore-houſes, for the uſe of the publick. In plentiful years, when theſe things are cheap, they buy up enough to ſerve the city three or four years; and if there happens to be a bad year, they live upon the old ſtore. The neceſſaries of life by this means are never at an extravagant price, the ſtate contenting itſelf with a very moderate profit. All retailers of corn and wine, bakers, vintners, *&c.* are obliged to take them of the publick, and have a certain gain allowed them, which they may not exceed upon the ſevereſt penalties. The wine-cellars are fixed in ſeveral quarters of the town as conveniently as may be, and every cellar has it's intendant or officer, who is anſwerable to the ſtate for his conduct. The Genoeſe boaſt that theſe wines are never adulterated, and that here only pure natural wine is drunk; for ſhould the officers or their ſervants be concerned in the mixing them, they would infallibly be ſent to the gallies.

Trade and manufactures.

The chief manufactures in Genoa, are ſilks, taffeta's, velvets, brocades, and other rich ſtuffs, which they export to other countries, together with wine, oil, citrons, lemons, anchovies, dried ſweet-meats, Parmeſan cheeſe, and ſeveral kinds of drugs uſed in phyſick and painting; but their trade ſeems to be very much upon the decline.

Abſtract of their hiſtory.

From hiſtory we learn, that this country, the antient Liguria, with the reſt of Italy, fell under the dominion of the Romans; and that MAGO, the brother of HANNIBAL, having taken and deſtroyed their capital city of Genoa, the Romans ſent LUCRETIUS to rebuild it, during the conſulate of CN. SERVILIUS SCIPIO, and C. SERVILIUS NEPOS. Upon the fall of the Roman empire it became ſubject to the Lombards; after which, they erected governments of their own, but were ſo tumultuous and unſteady in their choice, that no ſtate has ever ſuffered greater or more frequent revolutions. Sometimes the people choſe them a head on whom they conferred the ſovereignty; ſoon after, the nobility depoſed him, and aſſumed the government themſelves. To-day they put themſelves under the protection of ſome neighbouring Prince; and not many days after renounced his authority. They were ſucceſſively ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Milan, the French, the Marquis of Montferat, the Duke of Milan, and again to the French: and in the intervals of theſe foreign governments they choſe Counts, Conſuls, and Captains, of their own. At length ANDREW DORIA, about the year 1518, ſettled their republick in the form we find it at preſent; of which event a late writer gives the following relation:

The republick of Genoa formed by Andrew Doria.

The Genoeſe putting themſelves ſometimes under the protection of the Spaniards, and ſometimes under that of the French, according as they could procure the moſt advantageous terms from the one or the other, as hath been hinted already; the abovementioned ANDREAS DORIA, a native of this republick, who was one of the greateſt Admirals and Generals of his time, and had ſerved alternately in the French and Spaniſh armies, had the addreſs to play one of theſe powers againſt the other ſo ſucceſsfully, that he entirely diſengaged his country from a dependance on either of them, and then erected a free ſtate according to the aboveſaid model, notwithſtanding the Genoeſe offered to make him their hereditary Prince, without putting any limitations upon him; and ſo jealous was he of their loſing their liberty again, that he procured an act of ſtate, that neither he nor any of his deſcendants, nor any other family that ſhould grow rich and powerful in the commonwealth, ſhould be admitted to any office or ſhare in the government, leſt they ſhould uſurp the ſovereign power. But all his caution was very near being eluded even in his life-time; for about the year 1547, a popular citizen named FIESCO, had obtained ſuch an influence over the people by his benevolence to the poor and neceſſitous, and a pretended zeal for the publick good, that he carried all before him: He prevailed with the citizens to impriſon the principal Senators, under pretence of male-adminiſtration; and created an ill opinion in the people alſo of their once-admired Prince DORIA, the only perſon he apprehended able to fruſtrate his deſigns; and afterwards found but little difficulty in making himſelf maſter of the capital city. But going the ſame day as it were in triumph to take poſſeſſion of the fleet of the republick, which lay at anchor in the harbour, and walking over a plank from one veſſel to another, he dropped into the ſea loaded with his armour, and ſunk downright; whereupon his party being in confuſion, the aged Prince DORIA took advantage of it, ſet upon the rebels, and diſperſed them; and by theſe means became a ſecond time the founder of their commonwealth. FIESCO's body being afterwards found, the Senate decreed that it ſhould be carried ſeveral leagues to ſea, and with ignominious ceremonies thrown into it; that his eſtate ſhould be confiſcated, his palace demoliſhed, and no houſe ever be built in the place where it ſtood, that the ruins might remain a monument of his treachery, as they do to this day: While, on the contrary, the fine marble ſtatues of Prince DORIA, and of his nephew who was killed in oppoſing the uſurper, ſtand on each ſide of the ſtairs as we aſcend the ſenate-houſe, in memory of their virtue. The nobility of Genoa, the ſame author obſerves, converſe freely with foreigners as well as with their fellow-citizens; while the Venetian nobility are reſerved, wearing a diſtinguiſhing habit, and it ſeems dangerous entering into too free a converſation with them. But to return to the Genoeſe: After this ſecond deliverance by Prince ANDREW DORIA, they cauſed a regiſter to be made of all their free citizens; and found five hundred twenty-four antient families of noble extraction, and four hundred eighty-ſeven other families of conſiderable citizens; and theſe two claſſes only were denominated free citizens; in whom and their deſcendants, taking up their freedoms and regiſtering themſelves, not being infamous, or having exerciſed any mechanical trade within three years before their election, the government is lodged. The reſt of the inhabitants, either of the city or in the territories belonging to the republick, are ſtiled unfree, and have no ſhare of the government. Out of the former only the members of the Senate and of all the other Councils are elected. But it is provided, That if any free citizen ſhall, through infamy, or his exerciſing any mechanical employment, be diſabled to exerciſe any office or place in the adminiſtration; yet his legitimate male iſſue, being men of reputation, and not exerciſing any mean trade, ſhall be reſtored to the privileges of their anceſtors. It is alſo provided, That the buying and ſelling as merchants, or the going to ſea and negotiating ſuch kind of buſineſs, without keeping open ſhop, ſhall not diſqualify a freeman. And the Signiory, the College and Council in conjunction, have a power of electing annually in January out of the citizens that are not free, any number not exceeding ten, to be regiſtered and added to the number of free citizens. The inhabitants who are not free are eligible alſo to many beneficial offices.

MILAN.

CHAP. VIII.

Contains a deſcription of the duchy of Milan.

Situation and extent of the duchy of Milan.

THE duchy of Milan is bounded by Switzerland and the country of the Griſons on the north; by the territories of Venice and the duchies of Mantua and Parma towards the eaſt; by the Apennine mountains, which ſeparate it from the territories of Genoa on the ſouth; and by Montferat and the King of Sardinia's other dominions on the weſt, being about eighty miles in length from north to ſouth, and ſixty in breadth from eaſt to weſt, and three hundred miles in circumference. It is extremely well watered with rivers and lakes: the chief rivers are the Po, the Teſin, the Adda, and the Seſſia; the lakes are thoſe of Maggiore, Lugano, and Como. The air and climate are very deſirable, and the whole country almoſt one fruitful plain, adorned with a great variety of fine towns, palaces, and convents. This country, ſays Dr BURNET, is equal to the lovelieſt ſpots in England or France, hath all the ſweetneſs of Holland and Flanders, but with a warmer ſun and better air. The neighbourhood of the mountains cauſes a freſhneſs of air here, that makes it the moſt deſirable place to live in that can be found.

Rivers and lakes.

The air.

Soil.

Subdiviſion.

This duchy is divided into thirteen parts, viz. 1. The Milaneſe Proper. 2. The Paveſe. 3. The Lodeſan. 4. The Cremoneſe. 5. The Comaſco. 6. The county of Anghiera. 7. The vallies of Seſſia. 8. The Novareſe. 9. The Vigevanois. 10. The Lomelline. 11. The Alexandrin. 12. The Tortoneſe. And, 13. The territory of Bobbio.

Milaneſe Proper.

Milaneſe Proper is bounded by Comaſco on the north, by the Lodeſan on the eaſt, by the Paveſe on the ſouth, and by the Novareſe on the weſt; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Milan, the capital of the duchy. 2. Marignano. 3. Agnadel. And, 4. Caſſano.

The city of Milan.

1. Milan, ſtiled *The Great*, and that very juſtly, if we conſider it's demenſions, the multitude of it's inhabitants, the magnificence of it's temples and palaces, or it's manufactures and commerce. It is ſituated in the latitude of forty-five degrees twenty-five minutes; nine degrees thirty minutes to the eaſtward of London, about two hundred and fifty miles north-weſt of Rome, and eighty-five to the eaſtward of Turin. It ſtands upon the little river Olana, and has the advantage of two navigable canals, by which it hath a communication with the rivers Adda and Teſin. The city is of a round form, and encompaſſed by a wall, in which there are ten gates, being about ten miles in circumference, too large to admit of a regular fortification; but the citadel, which is a large hexagon and commands the place, is looked upon as one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Italy. The ſtreets of the town are broad and clean, the ſquares ſpacious, the houſes lofty, but the contrivance of them, or their beauty, not ſo much admired as thoſe in ſome other Italian cities. It contains two hundred and thirty churches, of which eighty are parochial, and eleven collegiate. There are alſo forty convents of men, and fifty of women, with ſome other fraternities, and the ſuburbs are very large. The vaſtneſs of the town,

the nobleneſs of the buildings, and above all, the ſurpriſing riches of the churches and convents, ſays Dr BURNET, are ſigns of great wealth. It is ſuppoſed to contain three hundred thouſand ſouls, amongſt whom are great numbers of nobility and gentry, as well as merchants. Their principal manufactures are thoſe of ſilk-brocade, and other rich ſtuffs: their ſteel and iron-ware, and fine cryſtal-works, are alſo much admired, eſpecially the laſt; and their artificers of every kind are ſuch exquiſite artiſts, that they have engroſſed the trade of this part of Italy. The nobility here affect to make a grand appearance, as is evident from their clothes, their coaches, and numerous retinues of ſervants; and the women go abroad and enjoy more freedom here than in many other towns in Italy.

The publick buildings moſt taken notice of, are, 1. The cathedral, a vaſt Gothick ſtructure, about five hundred feet in length, and two hundred in breadth: the pavements, the walls, inſide and out, with the roof, according to Dr BURNET, are all marble. The roof is ſupported by an hundred and ſixty white marble pillars, ſtanding in four rows, each of them three fathoms round, and valued at ten thouſand crowns a pillar: though this church is ſo full of ſtatues, ſays the ſame reverend writer, that one would be inclined to think every ſaint hath it's ſtatue here; it is ſaid there are ſeveral thouſands ſtill wanting to finiſh the deſign. Thoſe of St BARTHOLOMEW fleaed, alive, and ADAM and EVE, are admirable pieces. Here are two noble brazen pulpits in the church, each of them running round a large pillar like a gallery, and ſupported by huge figures of the ſame metal. The choir is wainſcoted and carved in ſo extraordinary a manner, ſays my author, that I never ſaw paſſion ſo well expreſſed in wood. It contains ſixty ſtalls, and they have almoſt all the hiſtories of the goſpel repreſented in them. Juſt under the cupola lies St CARLO's body, (CHARLES BORROMEO once Archbiſhop of this See) in a great cryſtal caſe of an immenſe price. The plate and other preſents made to this ſaint are of a prodigious value; ſome ſervices for the altar are all of gold, very maſſive, and ſet with jewels; others are ſo finely wrought, that the faſhion is thought equal to the value of the metal; and indeed the riches of the churches of Milan, ſays my author, ſtrike one with amazement.

The church of St AMBROSE is in great eſteem on account of the corps of that ſaint, which is interred here; and his denying the Emperor THEODOSIUS entrance into the ſame church, for having barbarouſly maſſacred ſeven thouſand of the inhabitants of Theſſalonica. Here is alſo ſhewn a brazen ſerpent upon a high marble pillar, ſaid to be the ſame that MOSES erected in the deſart, though the ſcripture aſſures us, it was beaten to powder ſome thouſand years ago.

The other buildings beſt worth viewing are the palace of the Archbiſhop, the Viceroy's, and that of the Marquis of Homodeo's; the ſeminary alſo is a fine building, erected by CHARLES BORROMEO; and the college of the Jeſuits, the townhouſe, and the great hoſpital deſerve our attention. The laſt is a magnificent ſtructure, wherein are entertained four thouſand infirm people, having a revenue of ſeventy thouſand crowns per annum, and upwards. The cloſet of Signior MANFIEDO SETTALA, being a vaſt collection of natural and artificial rarities, is alſo ſaid to be well worth the viewing. As for the Ambroſian library, ſo much admired by ſome, Mr ADDISON obſerves, that they have laid out more money in pictures than in books, according to the Italian genius. About two miles from Milan, as the ſame writer relates, ſtands a building that would have been a maſter-piece in it's kind, had the architect deſigned it for an artificial echo. Here he diſcharged a piſtol, and the ſound was returned ſix and fifty times, though the air was very thick and foggy. The firſt repetitions follow very thick, but are heard more diſtinctly in proportion as they decay. There are two parallel walls which beat the ſound back on each other, till the undulation is quite worn out. Other travellers relate, that they have heard the echo repeated in this place an hundred times. At Milan, as in ſeveral other cities of Italy, the natives are inclined to imitate the French in their mien and garb; but there is a kind of aukwardneſs in the Italians, which eaſily diſcovers the airs they give themſelves not to be natural.

The government.

Academy of Wits.

The civil government of Milan is lodged in the ſenate, conſiſting of prelates, doctors of law, and gentlemen of the country, who are however ſubject to the controul of the Emperor's Vicar-General, who is at preſent the celebrated Prince EUGENE of Savoy, to whom the Viceroys of Naples and Sicily, and the Governors of all the reſt of the Italian territories ſubject to the Emperor are accountable. The Vicar-General alſo appoints the preſident of the ſenate, magiſtrates, commiſſaries, officers of the treaſury, &c. The governor of the town and citadel of Milan are independent of each other. The ſeveral cities, diſtricts, and chatellanies of Milan are governed in civil matters by their reſpective magiſtrates. In each city there are twelve Seniors or Aldermen, who are choſen out of the common council, conſiſting generally of ſixty members, and the governors of the ſeveral places are appointed by the Vicar-General, and accountable to him, as are all the generals and military officers. The city of Milan is an Archbiſhop's See, and according to tradition, their firſt prelate was St BARNABAS, collegue to St PAUL. Here, as in other towns, is an academy, or club of Wits, who ſtile themſelves *Naſcoſti*, that is, hidden, or ſecret. At their publick meetings they entertain each other with rhetorical, moral, or philoſophical diſcourſes, and ſometimes with politicks; for travellers relate, that there is no place where the common people inquire into ſtate-affairs, and entertain one another with political remarks more than in this country. They always had an averſion to the French, but the barbarous and inſolent treatment they met with from them in the laſt war, has confirmed them in their averſion to that nation; this induced them ſo readily to ſubmit to the Auſtrian dominion after the victory of Turin in the year 1706.

The Paveſe.

The ſecond ſubdiviſion of the Milaneſe, is the Paveſe, which lies to the ſouthward of Milaneſe Proper; the ſoil whereof affords ſuch plenty of corn, wine, and the moſt delicious fruits, that it is called the garden of the Milaneſe: The chief towns whereof are Pavia, Certoſa, and Voghera.

The city of Pavia.

The city of Pavia is ſituated in a plain on the banks of the river Teſin, four miles north of the Po, and twenty to the ſouthward of Milan, and was the capital of the kingdom of the Lombards, till that monarchy was deſtroyed by the Emperor CHARLEMAGNE, who took DIDIER their laſt King priſoner in this city. The ſtreets are ſtraight and large; but the buildings generally inferior to the other towns of Italy. There are ſome buildings indeed very well worth viewing, particularly two colleges of their univerſity, which conſiſts of ſeven in all; the one was founded by Pope PIUS V, and the other by Cardinal BORROMEO. The church of St PETER, with the monaſtery adjoining to it, are noble ſtructures; in the laſt of which the corps of St AUSTIN is ſaid to be interred in a tomb of white marble, and is viſited to this day with abundance of devotion. The church of the Dominicans alſo is well worth a traveller's curioſity, as well for the beauty of it's architecture, as for it's rich moveables and admirable paintings. In the ſquare before the cathedral is a brazen ſtatue on horſe-back of MARCUS ANTONINUS, which the people call CHARLES V, and ſome learned men have taken for CONSTANTINE the Great. The cathedral itſelf is a heavy old Gothick building, and has little to recommend it. The church and convent of the Carthuſians are beautiful ſtructures; the choir of the church particularly is exceeding fine, all the walls are lined with marble, and adorned with pillars of the ſame ſtone of different colours, and the figures about the high altar are incomparable. As to the convent, ſome travellers affirm, that there is nothing equal to it, if we regard either the grandeur or conveniencies, the court being ſurrounded with a portico a mile in circumference, ſuſtained by an infinite number of pillars, under which are the cells of the Monks. But notwithſtanding there are ſome churches and religious houſes that deſerve our attention here, the place is at this day very much impoveriſhed and run to ruin, nor are it's fortifications of any great conſequence. It is ſtill however the See of a Biſhop, one of the richeſt in Italy, and depends immediately on the Pope.

The Lodeſan.

The third ſubdiviſion of Milan is the Lodeſan, which abounds in rich paſture and large herds of cattle, and is famous for it's cheeſe. The chief towns whereof are Lodi, and Lodi Vechio.

The city of Lodi.

The city of Lodi ſtands on a hill near the banks of the river Adda, twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Milan, being a large well-built town, and a Biſhop's See; but travellers do not give us a particular deſcription of it.

The Cremoneſe.

The Cremoneſe is a ſmall province to the eaſtward of the Lodeſan, from which it is ſeparated by the river Adda, and abounds in corn, wine, flax, and fruits. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Cremona. 2. Caſal Maggiore. And, 3. Soncino.

The city of Cremona.

The city of Cremona ſtands in a plain on the north ſide of the Po, a canal cut from this river to the Oglio running through the city, and is about forty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Milan. It is a large well-built town, five miles in circumference, the ſtreets wide and ſtraight, and the ſquares ſpacious; but neither populous nor rich. It is defended by a caſtle and other fortifications, and being in poſſeſſion of the French in the year 1702, Prince EUGENE of Savoy, the Imperial General, entered the place by a ſubterraneous paſſage, and ſurprized Marſhal VILLEROY, who commanded the French garriſon, in his bed; but the Prince was forced to retire with his priſoner, ſome Iriſh regiments in garriſon making a brave defence, and the detachment which ſhould have ſupported the Germans, miſſing their way, and not coming up in time. This town however, with the reſt of Milan, was evacuated by the French in the year 1707, and the Imperialiſts have been in poſſeſſion of it ever ſince. The cathedral, the Biſhop's palace and the town-houſe, are ſaid to be handſome ſtructures; and there are ſeveral fine hoſpitals well endowed. It is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Milan, and hath an univerſity very little frequented at preſent.

The Comaſco.

Comaſco, the fifth ſubdiviſion of the Milaneſe, lies north of Milaneſe Proper; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Como. 2. Lecco. 3. Bellamo. And, 4. Fort de Fuentes.

The city of Como.

Como is ſituated at the ſouth end of the lake to which it communicates it's name, about twenty-five miles to the northward of Milan; 'tis a populous town, and a place of ſome ſtrength, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Milan. Here PLINY the younger was born. The neighbouring lake is about thirty miles in length and three in breadth; the river Adda runs through it.

Anghiera.

The ſixth ſubdiviſion of the Milaneſe is Anghiera, ſituate on each ſide of the ſouth part of the lake Maggiore; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Anghiera. 2. Arona. 3. Orta. 4. Palanza. 5. Canobio. 6. Ugona. And, 7. Domo d'Oſcella.

The town of Anghiera.

The town of Anghiera ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the lake Maggiore, about thirty miles north-weſt of Milan; but I meet with no particular deſcription of this, or of any of the reſt of the towns in this diſtrict.

The vallies of Seſſia.

The eighth ſubdiviſion of the Milaneſe are the vallies of Seſſia, which lie to the weſtward of Anghiera: but theſe having been yielded to his Sardinian Majeſty by the Emperor, have been mentioned already.

The Novareſe.

The little province of the Novareſe is bounded by the diſtrict of Anghiera on the north; by the Milaneſe Proper on the eaſt; and by the King of Sardinia's territories on the ſouth and weſt: the chief town whereof is,

The city of Novara.

Novara, about thirty miles to the eaſtward of Milan, a fortified town, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Milan.

Vigevano.

The Vigevano, or Vigevanaſco, ſituate on the river Teſin, having been granted to his Sardinian Majeſty by the Emperor, has been already deſcribed.

The Lomelline.

The Lomelline, or Laumelline, to the ſouthward of Vigevano, having been granted alſo to the King of Sardinia by his Imperial Majeſty, hath been already deſcribed.

The Alexandrin.

The Alexandrin alſo, which lies to the ſouthward of the Po, having been yielded to his Sardinian Majeſty, hath been treated of already.

The Tortoneſe. Town of Tortona.

The Tortoneſe lies to the eaſtward of the Alexandrin, the chief town whereof is Tortona, about twelve miles eaſt of Alexandrin, and is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Milan.

Town and territory of Bobbio.

The diſtrict of Bobbio lies between the Paveſe on the north; and the Apennine hills, which ſeparate it from the territories of Genoa, on the ſouth; the chief town whereof is Bobbio, ſituate in a pleaſant plain, about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Tortona, being a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Genoa.

The duchy of Milan, the north part of the antient Liguria, was inhabited by the Inſubres when it fell under the dominion of the Romans. Upon the decline of the Roman Empire it was poſſeſſed by the Goths, who were expelled by the Longobardi, or Lombards, a people of Germany, about the year 572. Milan conſtituted the beſt part of the kingdom of Lombardy, which continued about two hundred years, when DIDIER the laſt

King being taken priſoner, and the monarchy deſtroyed by CHARLEMAGNE, the Emperors of Germany afterwards appointed the governors of the Milaneſe, who at length aſſumed the ſovereignty of this country ſtiling themſelves Lords of Milan. JOHN GALEAS was firſt honoured with the title of Duke, about the year 1395, and being ſucceeded by his two ſons, who died without any legitimate iſſue, ſeveral Princes laid claim to the Duchy, particularly the Emperor FREDERICK IV, ALPHONSUS King of Naples, LEWIS Duke of Savoy, CHARLES Duke of Orleans, and the Republick of Venice: whereupon the Milaneſe for ſome time took the government into their own hands; but about the year 1468, ſubmitted themſelves to FRANCIS SFORZA, one of the greateſt Generals of his time, who had married the baſe daughter of their laſt Duke. LEWIS XII, King of France, ſon to the Duke of Orleans, and great-grandſon of Duke JOHN GALEAS, reviving his pretenſions to the Milaneſe, marched an army thither, and reduced it to his obedience in leſs than a month; obliging the Duke, ſurnamed LEWIS the Black, to fly for refuge into Germany. His ſubjects growing weary of the French inſolence, ſoon after recalled him; but being betrayed by a mercenary Swiſs ſoldier in his ſervice, he was taken priſoner by the enemy, and died in captivity. MAXIMILIAN, the ſon of Duke LEWIS, aſſiſted by the Swiſs, defeated the French in his turn, and drove them out of the country. But FRANCIS I, reinforcing his troops, obtained a ſignal victory over the Milaneſe and Swiſs, obliging MAXIMILIAN to quit the government, and accept a penſion of thirty thouſand ducats *per annum*. FRANCIS SFORZA, the ſon of MAXIMILIAN, being aſſiſted by the Emperor and the Pope, was reſtored to his duchy about the year 1521; and at the treaty of Cambray, *anno* 1529, the French King relinquiſhed his claim to the Milaneſe. Upon the death of FRANCIS SFORZA II, *anno* 1536, the Emperor CHARLES V, granted the inveſtiture of the duchy to his own ſon PHILIP II, King of Spain; whoſe ſucceſſors enjoyed it till the year 1706, when the French and Spaniards evacuated the Milaneſe, and the reſt of the Spaniſh dominions in Italy; which, by the following treaty of peace in the year 1714, were yielded to the Emperor, who ſtill remains ſovereign of them.

The conſtant revenues of the duchy of Milan are computed at three hundred thouſand pounds *per annum*, and the compliment of forces for this duchy are about thirty thouſand men; though there are ſcarce half ſo many in actual ſervice, the officers putting great part of the pay in their pockets, which is aſſigned for that ſervice; at leaſt this was the caſe while they were under the dominion of Spain; poſſibly the preſent Vicar-General, Prince EUGENE, may have put things upon a better foot.

MANTUA.

CHAP. IX.

Contains a deſcription of the duchy of Mantua.

Situation and extent.

Subdiviſion.

Chief towns.

THE duchy of Mantua is bounded by the Breſcian and Veroneſe, part of the territories of Venice, on the north; by another part of the Venetian dominions and the Ferrareſe on the eaſt; by the duchies of Modena and Mirandola on the ſouth; and by the Cremoneſe in the duchy of Milan towards the weſt; being divided into, 1. The duchy of Mantua proper. 2. The duchy of Guaſtalla. 3. The county of Novellara. 4. The duchy of Sabionetta. 5. The principality of Bozolo. 6. The principality of Caſtiglione de la Stivere. And, 7. The principality of Solferino. But not finding their exact boundaries, I ſhall content myſelf with a general deſcription of the whole duchy; which is about fifty miles in length, but of a very unequal breadth, in ſome places upwards of thirty miles, and in others not ſeven miles over. The chief towns are, 1. Mantua. 2. Borgoforte. 3. Governolo. 4. Oſtiglia. 5. Gonzaga. 6. Goito. 7. Luzara. 8. Viadana. 9. Guaſtalla. 10. Novellara. 11. Sabionetta. 12. Bozolo. 13. Caſtiglione delle Stivere. And 14. Solferino.

Mantua city.

Trade.

The city of Mantua ſtands in the middle of a lake, or as ſome call it, a moraſs, formed by the river Mincio, about fourſcore miles to the eaſtward of Milan, and as many ſouth-weſt of Venice, the ſituation rendering it very unhealthful in the hot ſeaſon. It is joined to the continent by a cauſe-way three hundred paces long on the ſide of Cremona, and by two others five or ſix hundred paces long towards the north, with forts and draw-bridges for their defence. It is between four and five miles in circumference, and ſuppoſed to contain fifty thouſand inhabitants. The walls and fortifications are but indifferent, the lake being it's beſt defence; the ſtreets are large, and the ſquares ſpacious. There are about eighteen pariſh-churches in it, and forty convents: the cathedral, the Jeſuits church, that of St BARNABAS, the town-houſe, the theatre, and the ducal palace, are the principal publick buildings; but I do not find any of them much admired by travellers: indeed one writer acquaints us, that ſeveral of the ſtreets have piazza's with marble pillars, and that the palaces of the nobility and perſons of quality are very numerous; but I preſume they have nothing extraordinary in their ſtructure, others having paſſed over them in ſilence. The town however is a place of good trade, their ſilk manufacture particularly has a great reputation all over Europe; it is from this city thoſe glorious Italian ſilks, called Mantua's take their name, which our countrymen find more difficulty in imitating than any other. The late Duke had ſeveral palaces, or pleaſure-houſes, as they are called, in the neighbouring country, of which the principal were Marmerola and La Favorita. TASSO the poet was born in Mantua, and the celebrated VIRGIL at the village of Andes, within two or three miles of it. It is in the cathedral of this city the Catholicks pretend to have preſerved two or three drops of our Saviour's blood. This biſhoprick is immediately ſubject to the Holy See, and acknowledges no other ſuperior.

Luzara.

Luzara, fifteen miles ſouth of Mantua, is not remarkable for any thing but a great battle fought near it, between the Imperialiſts on one ſide, and the French and Spaniards on the other, in the year 1702, when both ſides claimed the victory.

Guaſtalla.

The town of Guaſtalla is the capital of a duchy of the ſame name, and lies about twenty miles ſouth of Mantua.

Sabionetta.

Sabionetta alſo is the capital of a duchy, and lies about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Mantua; but does not require a particular deſcription, any more than the other towns above-mentioned.

Hiſtory of Mantua.

The duchy of Mantua generally ſollowed the fortune of the reſt of Lombardy, till about the eleventh century, when the leading men of the country erected a government of their own, and became independent of any foreign power. Some time after they loſt their liberty again, and were ſubject to ſeveral tyrants, as they are ſtiled, till Lewis de Gonzaga, from whom the late Duke derived his pedigree, depoſed the laſt tyrant in the year 1328, and obtained the ſovereignty of the Mantuan, as Vicar of the Empire. His ſucceſſors enjoyed the titles of lords of Mantua, till the year 1435, when the Emperor honoured them with the title of Marquis; and Charles V, afterwards conferred that of Duke on Frederick II. The duchy continued in this branch till the year 1627, when Vincent II, dying without iſſue, his couſin Charles Gonzaga, Duke of Nevers in France, by the aſſiſtance of Lewis XIII, obtained the ſovereignty of this duchy. His grandſon, Ferdinand-Charles IV, the laſt Duke, adhering to the French King in the late war, was proſcribed by the Emperor, who ſeiz'd the duchy as a forfeited fee; and the Duke dying in the year 1708 without iſſue, his Imperial Majeſty ſtill keeps poſſeſſion of it. The country of Mantua abounds in corn, fruits, flax, ſilk, and excellent paſture, but has little good wine. The annual revenue of the late Duke, is computed to amount to three hundred thouſand crowns and upwards, beſides what he drew from the Montferrat. The other branches of the family of Gonzaga are the Princes of Guaſtalla, Bozolo, Caſtiglione, and the Earl of Novellara; but theſe ſeem at preſent contented with the Emperor's government, and have not yet thought fit to lay claim to the duchy of Mantua.

MODENA.

CHAP. X.

Contains a deſcription of the duchies of Modena, Mirandola, Reggio, and other ſmall ſtates dependent on Modena.

Subdiviſion.

Under the name of the Modeneſe, I comprehend the duchy of Modena, the duchy of Mirandola, the duchy of Reggio, the marquiſate of Scandiano, the principality of Corregio, and the principality of Carpi; bounded by the Mantuan towards the north; by the Bologneſe on the eaſt, by the Apennine hills, which ſeparate it from Tuſcany, towards the ſouth; and by the Parmeſan on the weſt: extending about ſixty miles in length from north to ſouth, and fifty in breadth from eaſt to weſt: the chief towns whereof are,

Chief towns.

1. Modena. 2. Boſtia. 3. Final de Modena. 4. Frignano. 5. Caſagnano. 6. Mirandola. 7. Concordia. 8. Reggio. 9. Rubiera. 10. Berſello. 11. Scandiano, 12. Corregio. 13. Carpi. 14. Saſſuolo. 15. St Martin de Eſte.

Modena city.

The city of Modena ſtands upon a canal, in a pleaſant fruitful plain, about forty miles to the ſouthward of Mantua, and twenty north-weſt of Bologna, built out of the ruins of the antient Mutina, which ſtood near this place. It is ſurrounded by a wall, and ſome antique fortifications of no great ſtrength; the buildings are not fine, conſidering they are in Italy, the ſtreets generally narrow and dark, with little low Piazza's before the houſes, which are no great ornament to the place: the cathedral and the Duke's palace are the only things mentioned by travellers as worth the viewing. The ſoil about Modena, ſays Mr Addiſon, is very rich, and well cultivated, and the Prince's palace magnificent. The ſubject might live in great plenty here, if the taxes and impoſitions were not ſo exorbitant; but the Court is too ſplendid for the ſmall territories which lie about it. One cannot but be amazed to ſee ſuch a profuſion of wealth laid out in coaches, trappings, tables, cabinets, and ſuch precious toys, in which, few Princes in Europe can equal theſe petty ſovereigns; though at the ſame time they neglect to make bridges over their rivers for the conveniency of travellers, who are forced to pay unreaſonable exactions at every ferry, upon the leaſt riſing of the waters. It happens very unfortunately, adds the ſame author, that theſe little Italian Princes will ſtill be endeavouring, at their ſubjects coſt, to equal the pomp and grandeur of the greateſt monarchs, as well as to outvie thoſe of their own rank. The town of Modena, is neither large nor populous, nor has it any great trade, though it ſtands in a country abounding in corn, wine, rich paſtures, cattle, and all manner of delicious fruits. But notwithſtanding the people are not generally rich, with Mr Addiſon's leave, they cannot be very miſerable, in the midſt of ſo much plenty; eſpecially in ſo warm a climate, where the poor have little or no occaſion, either for clothes or firing, the want of which occaſions the greateſt hardſhips the poor endure in theſe northern countries. But our travellers of the Whig ſtrain, out of an unaccountable prejudice to Monarchy and the Popiſh religion, unanimouſly cry out of the miſeries and oppreſſions the ſubjects of the Italian Princes undergo; and yet none of them pretend to tell us, wherein that miſery conſiſts, unleſs it be, that there are not ſo many overgrown tradeſmen as there are in other countries; which I am apt to think is not to the diſadvantage of the inferior rank of people, who ſuffer leſs by monopolies where trade is more equally divided. Modena is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Bologna, and the reſidence of the Duke.

Frignano.

Frignano is the capital of a little country of the ſame name, ſituate at the foot of a mountain on the river Panaro, twenty miles ſouth of Modena.

Mirandola.

Mirandola, the capital of a duchy of the ſame name, is pleaſantly ſituated in a fruitful country, twenty miles to the northward of Modena, formerly under the dominon of it's own Prince, of the family of Pic, but purchaſed of the Emperor by the Duke of Modena, with Concordia, about the year 1711. The revenues of the duchy of Mirandola, were computed to amount to two thouſand pounds per annum.

Reggio.

Reggio is the capital of a duchy, and ſtands about fifteen miles north-eaſt of Modena; a populous trading town, better built than Modena, and ſubject to the ſame Prince. The natives admire their churches and publick buildings, which would make a good appearance in any other part of the world, but it ſeems are not comparable to many others in Italy. Reggio is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Bologna.

Corregio.

Corregio is the capital of a principality of the ſame name, and ſtands about ten miles north-eaſt of Reggio, but is not conſiderable enongh to require a particular deſcription.

Carpi.

Carpi alſo is the capital of a principality, ſituate in a fine plain, on a canal filled by the river

Secchia, ten miles north-weſt of Modena, defended by a citadel and other works, and eſteemed a place of ſome ſtrength, taken by the Germans in the year 1702, after they had obtained a victory over the French near this place; ſubject at preſent to the Duke of Modena.

Hiſtory of Modena.

The preſent Duke's family.

His revenues.

Commachio ſurrendered to the Pope.

Modena became a Roman colony ſoon after the eſtabliſhment of that State, but was deſtroyed by MARCUS ANTONINUS. The Lombards rebuilt the city and made it a part of their kingdom. It was afterwards a free State, under the protection of the Empire, till it became annexed to the marquiſate of Ferrara. It has been ſince poſſeſſed alternately by the Pope and by the family of D'ESTE, being at this day ſubject to the latter. The preſent Duke is REGINAULD, Duke of Modena, Reggio, and Mirandola; Prince of Carpi and Corregio; Lord of Frignano, Carfagnano, Corregio, &c. born in 1655, and made Cardinal Deacon in 1686: after his brother's death however he threw off the purple, and about the year 1696 married CHARLOTTA, the daughter of JOHN FREDERICK Duke of Hanover, by whom he had BENEDICTA-ERNESTINA-MARY, born anno 1697, and married to Prince ANTHONY of Parma in the year 1715. 2. FRANCIS-MARY, hereditary Prince of Modena, born in 1698, who married the ſecond daughter of the late Duke of Orleans, by whom he hath had two ſons. 3. AMELIA-JOSEPHA, born anno 1699. And, 4. JOHN-FREDERICK-ERNEST, born anno 1700. The Duke is abſolute in his dominions, and appoints the Governors of the ſeveral towns and fortreſſes, and podeſta's or judges in criminal and civil affairs, determining all appeals however himſelf. His revenues are computed to amount to an hundred thouſand pounds per annum; but his forces not being ſufficient to defend his country againſt the neighbouring powers, he relies chiefly upon his alliance with the Emperor, whoſe party he eſpouſed in the late war: and though his country was ravaged by the French, and great part of it taken from him on that account, it was afterwards recovered by the Emperor, and reſtored him with advantage. And in the year 1726, his Imperial Majeſty granted the Duke of Modena a principality in Hungary, in conſideration of his Highneſs's reſigning his pretenſions to Commachio, which the Emperor a little before yielded to the Pope.

MARY Queen of England of this family.

MARY-ELEANOR-BEATRIX, Siſter of the Duke of Modena, was married to JAMES Duke of York (afterwards King of England) anno 1673, to which match ſome are apt to aſcribe that Prince's misfortunes: but however this be, it appears from hence that the Chevalier de St GEORGE is nephew to the Duke of Modena, and firſt couſin to the ducheſs of Parma his daughter, to whom the Chevalier lately made that viſit which the Britiſh court ſo much reſented, as to command the Duke of Parma's Miniſter out of the kingdom.

PARMA.

Situation and extent.

THE duchy of Parma, (in which I include the Plaiſantin, or duchy of Piacenza, the States of Baſſetto and Landi, being all ſubject to the ſame Prince) is bounded by the Cremoneſe and Lodeſan on the north; by the duchy of Reggio towards the eaſt; by the territories of Genoa and Modena on the ſouth; and by the Paveſan and Bobbion on the weſt: extending ſixty miles in length, and thirty in breadth. The chief towns are, 1. Parma. 2. Caſtel Guelpho. 3. Fornovo. 4. Corneglio. 5. Piacenza. 6. Nibiano. 7. Borgo St Domino. 8. Florenzola. 9. Corte Maggiore 10. Buſſeto. 11. Borgo de Val de Taro. 12. Bardi. And, 13. Compano.

Chief towns.

Parma city

The city of Parma, the capital, is pleaſantly ſituated on a river of the ſame name, which divides it in two parts, having a communication with each other by three bridges; the form of it is almoſt round, and the walls about three miles in circumference: it is defended by a citadel and other fortifications, and eſteemed a place of ſome ſtrength: the ſtreets are wide and ſtrait, and the buildings regular, but low, having no piazza's before them, as at Modena. It ſtands about ſixty miles north-eaſt of Genoa, and thirty north-weſt of Modena. The publick buildings beſt worth the viewing are, the Cathedral, a magnificent pile, ſurrounded on the out-ſide by ſeveral ranges of pillars, and the cupola exquiſitely painted by the celebrated CORREGIO. The church of St JOHN is a beautiful piece of architecture, and adorned with the paintings of the ſame CORREGIO and PARMEGIANA. In the church of the Capuchins is the tomb of that famous General ALEXANDER FARNESE. The Duke's palace, that part of it which is lately built, is an elegant ſtructure, but moſt admired for the theatre and fine gallery. The theatre, Mr ADDISON obſerved, was the moſt ſpacious in Europe, and ſo admirably contrived, that from the depth of the ſtage the loweſt ſound may be heard diſtinctly to the furtheſt part of the audience; and let the voice be raiſed never ſo high, there is nothing like an echo to cauſe the leaſt confuſion. There are no boxes in it, only benches riſing gradually as in an amphitheatre, and the pit between the benches and the ſtage is ſometimes filled with water three foot deep, into which are brought little gilded boats, that with the lights and glaſſes that ſurround it from a very agreeable ſcene. The gallery is hung with a numerous collection of pictures, done by the moſt celebrated hands, and on the ſide of it is a large room adorned with inlaid tables, cabinets, works of amber and cryſtal, and other pieces admired for their value and contrivance; adjoining to this is another large room furniſhed with antient inſcriptions, idols, buſts, medals, and other antiquities. Amongſt the medals the ſcarceſt is that of PESCENIUS NIGER, (coined at Antioch, where that Emperor trifled away his time, till he loſt his life and empire) on the reverſe a *Dea Salus*. There are alſo two of OTHO, two of MESSALINA and POPPÆA, two of PERTINAX, and another of GORDIANUS AFRICANUS. The gardens of the palace alſo are admired for the grotto's, fountains, caſcades, fine walks, ſtatues, and other embelliſhments. The Univerſity here was founded in the year 1509, in which there is a large college appropriated to the nobility, where all manner of exerciſes are taught as well as the ſciences. The academy of wits here ſtile themſelves *Innominati*, or *Anonymous*, and ſpend their time as the members of other Italian academies uſually do. Parma is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Bologna, and a place of good trade, eſpecially in cheeſe, which they ſend to every country in Europe.

Piacenza.

Piacenza, or Plaiſance, is ſituated about thirty miles north-weſt of Parma, in a fruitful plain, watered with rivulets, about half a mile from the Po, Po, being rather larger than Parma, and defended by a wall, a citadel, and other fortifications. The Duke of Parma has a palace here. The ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious, and the buildings regular, but they ſeem to be excelled by ſo many other places of Italy, that travellers have not thought them worth a particular deſcription. A fountain erected by AUGUSTUS CÆSAR, and an equeſtrian ſtatue of ALEXANDER I, Duke of Parma and Piacenza, however are mentioned by every traveller as worth the viewing. Piacenza is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan of Bologna, and has an Univerſity but of no great fame. The trade of this place conſiſts chiefly in their cheeſe, as at Parma: theſe cities being ſurrounded with the richeſt paſture-grounds in Italy.

Buſſeto.

Buſſeto is the capital of a country, of the ſame name, about ſixteen miles to the north-eaſt of Piacenza, taken notice of for little but it's deſirable ſituation.

Borgo di Val di Taro.

Borgo di Val di Taro is a ſmall city, on the river Taro, capital of the State of Landi, purchaſed by the Duke of Parma in 1682, of the family of LANDI.

Borgo St Domino.

Borgo St Domino, the antient *Julia Fidentia*, about ſixteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Piacenza, ſituate in the State of Buſſeto, is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Bologna, but does not require a particular deſcription.

Air, ſoil, animals, and produce.

The duchies of Parma and Piacenza are allowed to be bleſſed with a fine air and fruitful ſoil. They abound alſo in cattle of all kinds, and the wool of their ſheep is not inferior to any in Italy. Their excellent cheeſe has been taken notice of already, and they have plenty of the beſt oil, wine, rice, corn, and fruits; truffles, a delicious root without ſtems or plants, alſo are found here, and they have ſome mines of copper and ſilver.

Abſtract of their hiſtory.

The Tuſcans inhabited this country antiently; and the Romans ſent a colony hither above an hundred years before the birth of our Saviour. Upon the declenſion of the Roman Empire it fell under the power of the barbarous nations that invaded Italy, and afterwards became a free State. It was ſucceſſively ſubject to the weſtern Emperors, the Pope, the Venetians, Milanoiſe, and French. Pope JULIUS II, reduced it again under the power of the See of Rome. Pope PAUL III created his natural ſon, PETER LEWIS FARNESE, Duke of Parma and Piacenza, about the year 1545; but the Emperor diſputed his title, till his ſon OCTAVIO FARNESE married MARGARET of Auſtria, the Emperor's natural daughter, which confirmed this duchy in the Farneſian family, though the Emperor ſtill looks upon it as a fief of the Empire, and revertible to him on failure of male iſſue. The Pope on the contrary claims it as a fee of the holy See, and actually receives ten thouſand crowns per annum of this Prince.

The family of Farneſe.

And here it is neceſſary to be a little more particular in treating of the family of FARNESE than of any Italian Prince, in order to the clearing up a conſiderable piece of modern hiſtory. It ſeems ODOUARDO, or EDWARD FARNESE, Duke of Parma, in the year 1690, married DOROTHY-SOPHIA of Newburgh, ſiſter to the Elector Palatine, and the Empreſs-mother, and to the Queen Dowager of Spain, and afterwards died in the year 1693; having had iſſue by his Princeſs a ſon named ALEXANDER, who died ſoon after his birth, and a daughter named ELIZABETH born in the year 1692, and married to PHILIP V, the preſent King of Spain, anno 1714. Prince FRANCIS FARNESE ſucceeded his brother ODOUARDO or EDWARD in the duchy of Parma, and in 1695, married his widow, the Princeſs DOROTHY-SOPHIA, mother to the preſent Queen of Spain, at which every body was amazed on account of the proximity of blood, Prince EDWARD his eldeſt brother having had children by her; but the Pope granted a diſpenſation, which removed all ſcruples.

The preſent Queen of Spain.

The reverſion of the duchies of Parma and Tuſcany ſettled on her ſon by the quadruple alliance.

In the year 1718, the Emperor, the Kings of Great Britain and France, and the States-General, entered into an alliance, which from the number of the parties, obtained the name of the quadruple alliance, wherein it was ſtipulated, that for preventing a war in Italy, in caſe the Grand Duke of Tuſcany, or the Duke of Parma and Placentia, or their ſucceſſors, ſhould die without heirs male, the ſtates and duchies poſſeſſed by the Grand Duke of Tuſcany and Duke of Parma being fiefs of the Empire, ſhould go to the firſt-born ſon of the ſaid Queen of Spain, and his male iſſue lawfully begotten; and in default of ſuch iſſue, to the ſecond, and other younger ſons of the ſaid Queen in like manner: provided that none of the aforeſaid duchies or dominions ſhould ever be poſſeſſed by a Prince who at the ſame time held the kingdom of Spain; nor any King of Spain be guardian to the Prince who ſhould ſucceed to the ſaid duchies and dominions. And for the ſecuring the ſaid ſucceſſion to the ſon of the Queen of Spain, it was farther agreed, that garriſons of Swiſs troops ſhould immediately be put into the towns of Parma and Placentia, Leghorn and Porto Ferraro, in the iſle of Elba, to be paid by the contracting powers: (but this laſt part of the agreement was never put in execution.)

The Duke of Tuſcany died in the year 1723, and was ſucceeded by his ſon JOHN GASTON DE MEDICIS the preſent Duke, who was born May 24, 1671, and married to ANNE-MARIA-FRANCES, daughter of JULIUS-FRANCIS, Duke of SAX-LAWENBURG, and Widow of PHILIP-WILLIAM, Count Palatine of the Rhine, by whom he has no children, nor is ever like to have any; and being the laſt heir male of the family of MEDICIS, is to be ſucceeded in that duchy by Don CARLOS, eldeſt ſon of the preſent Queen of Spain, according to the aboveſaid treaty: but more of this in the deſcription of Tuſcany.

By another treaty, anno 1725, between the Emperor and King of Spain, the ſaid duchies of Parma and Tuſcany are confirmed to the eldeſt ſon of the ſaid Queen of Spain, and his male deſcendants, on failure of heirs male of the ſaid two houſes of Parma and Tuſcany; but the Duke of Parma dying on the 25th of February 1726-7, and being ſucceeded by his brother ANTHONY FARNESE, who the ſame year married AMELIA-JOSEPHA, the third daughter of the Duke of Modena, if there be any male iſſue of this marriage, the ſettlement upon the eldeſt ſon of the Queen of Spain cannot take effect as to Parma.

Anthony Farneſe the preſent Duke.

The annual revenue of this duchy is computed at an hundred thouſand pounds; but this Prince alſo owes his ſecurity more to the jealouſies his neighbours entertain of each other, than to the forces he can raiſe.

TUSCANY.

CHAP. XI.

Contains a deſcription of the duchy of Tuſcany, or Florence, and the republick of Luca.

Situation and extent.

Air and ſoil.

Produce.

Rivers.

Diviſion.

THE duchy of Tuſcany, or Florence, is bounded by the territories of the Pope on the north, eaſt, and ſouth-eaſt; by the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt; and by the territories of Genoa and Modena on the north-weſt: extending an hundred miles in length, and about as many in breadth, being pretty near ſquare. As great part of this country is taken up by the Apennine mountains, and that the barreneſt part of them, it cannot be ſaid in general to be either fruitful or pleaſant; the air alſo is ſo exceeding ſharp on theſe hills, that they are generally deſtitute of towns and inhabitants; but then there are ſome vallies, and thoſe large ones, that are the very reverſe, and when viewed from the neighbouring hills appear a perfect paradiſe; where the air is not only more agreeable, but ripens the fruits of the earth ſooner, and brings them to a much greater perfection than on the north ſide of the Apennine. There is a plain particularly, which runs quite croſs the country from eaſt to weſt, namely, from Arezzo to Piſa; extending fourſcore miles in length, and watered by the river Arno; which abounds in corn, wine, oil, oranges, citrons, figs, and all manner of delicious fruits; and as for mulberry trees, the food of their ſilk-worms, and cheſnuts, no country is better ſtocked with them. There are alſo ſeveral little hills between the vallies and the barren Apennines, where they enjoy a happy medium, being neither ſubject to the cold blaſts of the one, or the ſcorching heats of the other, and that are well covered with trees and herbage, which make them very delightful retirements in the ſummer. The chief rivers are the Arno, and Ombro, which riſing in the Apennine mountains, run to the ſouth-weſt, and fall into the Tuſcan ſea, the one near Piſa, and the other over againſt the iſland of Elba. This country is uſually divided into three parts, viz. the Piſan, the Florentin, or Florenza, and the Sienneſe.

The Piſan.

The Piſan is bounded by the Florentin and the republick of Lucca on the north and eaſt; by the Sienneſe on the ſouth-eaſt; and the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Piſa. 2. Leghorn. And, 3. Volterra.

Piſa city.

The city of Piſa ſtands in a fruitful plain on the river Arno, but in an unhealthful air; thirty-ſix miles to the weſtward of Florence; fifty north-weſt of Sienna, and about ſix from the Tuſcan ſea. It is the largeſt town in Tuſcany next to Florence; and defended by a good wall, a citadel, and other fortifications; being divided almoſt into two equal parts by the river Arno, which is of a good breadth here: there are three handſome bridges, by which they have an eaſy communication, one of them being built with marble. The ſides of the river, lined with a ſloping wall, form a mighty commodious quay, where ſhips of burthen formerly unladed their merchandize; but the mouth of the river being now choaked up, it is only navigable for ſmaller veſſels. The ſtreets are broad and ſtrait, paved with large ſtones; the houſes well built, the ſquares ſpacious, and the publick buildings magnificent; of which the domo or cathedral, dedicated to St MARY, is eſteemed the chief, very advantageouſly ſituated in the middle of a large piazza, and built out of a great heap of wrought marble, ſuch as pillars, pedeſtals, capitals, corniſhes, and architraves, part of the ſpoils which the Piſans took in their eaſtern expeditions, when the republick was in a flouriſhing condition. The roof is ſupported by ſeventy-ſix tall marble pillars of different colours, and finely gilt. The choir is painted by the greateſt maſters, and the floor inlaid with marble. The brazen doors are exquiſitely wrought, containing the annunciation, incarnation, nativity, life, and paſſion, of our Saviour, and conſequently could never have belonged to SOLOMON's temple, according to the tradition of the place. In the ſame area with the domo, ſtands the baptiſtery, a round fabrick ſupported by ſtately pillars; and near it the burying-place, called the *Campo Santo*, the earth which covers it, having been brought from the Holy Land; and this is ſurrounded with a cloyſter, adorned with admirable paintings. Adjoining to it is the leaning tower, in form of a cylinder, built with marble, and beautified with pillars on the outſide an hundred and eighty-eight feet in height, which, ſome travellers relate, was built on purpoſe leaning, to ſhew the ſkill of the architect; others, that it only deceives the ſight, and is really upright: but Mr MISSON aſſures us, the foundation is ſunk, which occaſions it's bending forward, as he diſcovered by a line and plummet let down from the top.

The palace of the Knights of St STEPHEN, an order inſtituted by COSMUS DE MEDICIS, in memory of a victory obtained over the Turks that day, with the church adjoining to it, adorned with the trophies taken from the infidels, are worth the viewing. And here is a famous aqueduct mentioned by travellers, conſiſting of five thouſand arches, that conveys the beſt water in Italy to this city, which is drank by the Great Duke and Court of Florence.

Piſa is an archbiſhoprick and univerſity, and was once the metropolis of a flouriſhing republick, maintaining powerful fleets upon the Mediterranean, and diſputing the ſovereignty of thoſe ſeas with the Genoeſe and Venetians. They made a conqueſt alſo of the iſlands of Sardinia and the Baleares, reduced the city of Carthage, and were of great ſervice to the Chriſtian Princes in their wars againſt the Infidels in the Holy Land: but being ſubdued by the Florentines, and the ſeat of the government removed, their river became unnavigable for large veſſels; their trade loſt, and carried to Leghorn; the town is almoſt deſerted; the buildings decayed; nor does it ſeem to be in the power of the Great Duke to reſtore it to it's former happy ſtate, though this has been attempted by ſometimes making it the reſidence of the Court, and granted extraordinary privileges to the citizens.

Leghorn.

Leghorn, *Livorno*, is ſituated in a low ground on the Tuſcan ſea, ſixteen miles to the ſouthward of Piſa, being one of the beſt harbours in Italy, and ſurrounded with a wall and other fortifications for it's defence. The town is not large, but the buildings are regular, and painted on the outſide; the ſtreets broad and ſtraight, and the great ſquare one of the largeſt and moſt beautiful in Tuſcany. Leghorn was an inconſiderable village, till Duke FERDINAND I. enlarged and beautified it; and granted ſuch privileges to the place, as invited foreign merchants from all countries hither. Mr Addison obſerves however, that they are at a conſtant expence in cleanſing the harbour, and keeping it from being choaked up; which is done by the help of engines, that are always at work, and employ many of the Great Duke's ſlaves, and with the ſoil and ſand taken out of the harbour, they fill and dry up the marſhy ground about the place, whereby it is become more healthful than formerly. It is not to be conceived what great profits the Duke reaps from this ſingle town, notwithſtanding it has the reputation of being a free port; and may very well be reckoned ſo, if compared with ſome others. 'Tis true, foreigners pay little or no duties directly, but out of every thing they purchaſe, there goes a large gabel, or tax, to the government. The very ice-merchant here pays above a thouſand pounds per annum to the government, for his privilege of ſelling it; and the tobacco-merchant ten thouſand. The ground alſo is ſold at a prodigious high rate by the Great Duke, on which new houſes are erected every day. All merchandize which is ſent up into the country, of which there are great quantities, are clogged with impoſitions, as ſoon as they leave Leghorn. And all the wines, oils, and ſilks, which come from the fruitful vallies above-mentioned, muſt make their way through a variety of duties, before they reach the port; and though this muſt enhanſe the price of them to the foreign merchant, yet the labouring oar lies altogether on the natives. Here is none of the trouble of entring their goods, either upon importation, or exportation, which is the plague and vexation of other ports, and ſometimes a great hinderance to the voyage. The canal, which runs from the ſea to the Arno, affords a mighty convenient carriage, for all goods imported, or exported: and becauſe the Great Duke reaps ſuch advantages from this free port, ſeveral Princes and States of Italy, have been upon the ſame project; particularly the Pope, who was about to enlarge the harbour of Civita Vecchia, and grant it the ſame privileges, but was diverted from this project, by the management of the Great Duke. The Genoeſe are attempting the ſame thing, but their road is too dangerous, to invite foreign merchants from Leghorn thither; and they will not make any of their other ports free, for fear of drawing the trade from their capital. After what has been obſerved already of Leghorn, the reader will naturally conclude it to be a place of good trade, and very populous in proportion to the extent, as it really is; particularly the Jews, who never fail to frequent ſuch towns, are computed to amount to no leſs than ten thouſand; and, as the Engliſh factors complain, have in a manner engroſſed the trade of our country. Beſides the trade we have directly with Leghorn the ſhips of England, France, and Holland, touch here frequently in their voyage to, or from Turkey, bartering the goods of one country for another; and in this port, there are frequently ſmall barks loaden with wine from Languedoc, Sardinia, and Corſica, which ſell their liquor on board by retale, making taverns of their veſſels, becauſe they are not allowed to land it, without paying cuſtom.

The marble ſtatue of Ferdinand I, on the quay, with four brazen figures at his feet, repreſenting ſo many Turkiſh ſlaves, who endeavoured to run away with a galley, and were executed in this place, are reckoned an extraordinary piece of workmanſhip. The galley-ſlaves here are uſed with much more humanity than in other places, of which there are two ſorts; the one called *Forzatti*, who are either Turks or Moors, who are taken at ſea, or natives condemned to the gallies for their crimes: the other are called *Bona Voglia*, a raſcally ſort of people, who make themſelves ſlaves for money, and have their liberty, when the time bargained for is expired. The Turks and Moors are allowed to go abroad with a ſingle iron on their leg, and ſome without any, becauſe they are eaſily known, and it is difficult for them to eſcape; but thoſe who are condemned for any criminal matter, go coupled together with a long chain, and have always a guard following them; and for the greater ſecurity, they ſometimes chain a Turk and a Chriſtian together. Great part of theſe ſlaves, when the gallies are laid up, follow their reſpective trades and buſineſs, and thoſe who have none, ſell wine and other proviſions; inſomuch, that there have been found Turkiſh ſlaves here worth a thouſand crowns a man, who would not have their liberty if it was offered them; for, it ſeems, they have little moſques allowed them, to worſhip God in their own way, and if they have any money to preſent their Captain, he will excuſe their going to ſea, and provide others in their room.

Volterra city.

Volterra is an antient city, built upon a hill near the river Cecinna, ſituate in a fruitful country, in which are ſeveral fine ſtone-quarries, and ſprings of mineral waters. It is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Rome, but travellers have not thought it worth a particular deſcription. About ſixteen miles to the weſtward of this city, are the *Aquæ Volaterranæ*, now called, *Il Bagno al Morbo*, which are ſmall lakes of a prodigious depth, from which, 'tis ſaid, the water perpetually bubbles up like a copper of boiling liquor, and ſends forth ſuch ſulphureous ſteams, that they kill the birds which fly over them, and are ſo exceſſive hot, that they boil a piece of fleſh ſooner than water heated by culinary fires.

The Florentin.

The Florentin, or duchy of Florence, properly ſo called, is bounded by the Bolognois and Romania towards the north; the duchy of Urbin and Ancona towards the eaſt; by the Sienneſe on the ſouth; and by the Piſan and the republick of Luca towards the weſt. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Florence. 2. Fieſoli. 3. Pratolino. 4. San Martino. 5. Scarperia. 6. Fiorenzola. 7. Pietra Mala. 8. Piſtoia. 9. Prato. 10. Poggio Imperiale. 11. Empoli. 12. St Miniato al Todeſca. 13. Barbarino. 14. Colle. 15. Pongibond. 16. Monte Pulciano. 17. Marciano. 18. Cortona. 19. Arezzo. 20. Burgo San Sepulchro. 21. Val Ombroſa. And, 22. Anciſa.

Chief towns.

Florence city.

The city of Florence lies in a fruitful valley on the river Arno, in forty-three degrees forty minutes north latitude, thirty-ſix miles to the eaſtward of Piſa, and about as many to the northward of Sienna, and an hundred and twenty north of Rome; in a moſt deſirable ſituation, encompaſſed with beautiful hills on three ſides, full of villages, country-ſeats, gardens, groves, and woods of olives riſing gradually, till they join the higheſt mountains of the Apennine. And towards the weſt, lies that rich valley watered by the river Arno, which extends as far as Piſa, abounding in corn, wine, and oil, and all manner of delicious fruits. The town is of a round form, about ſix miles in circumference, encompaſſed with walls and other fortifications, and defended by three citadels. The river Arno divides it in two parts, which have a communication by four bridges, of which two, the old and the new, are admired for their ſtructure. The ſtreets are ſtrait and well paved, in imitation of the old Roman high-ways, with great flat ſtones, larger than our common pavement-ſtones, but much thicker, which are ſo hollowed in their joinings, that the horſes find faſtening for their feet. There are a great many ſtatues and fountains in the ſtreets, and we meet with agreeable objects, which way ſoever we turn our eyes. Their private buildings are tall and fair, their palaces numerous and exquiſitely contrived, their churches but little inferior to thoſe of Rome, and there are no leſs than ſeventeen ſpacious ſquares; inſomuch that this city has obtained the title of *Florence the Fair*, which all travellers agree it well deſerves. In two things only they think it defective; the firſt, that they have no glaſs in their windows, but their fineſt palaces are often diſgraced with tattered paper; and in the ſecond place, the ſtreets and courts in their palaces, are too narrow for the loftineſs of their buildings: which are objections made to many other towns of Italy; and the only anſwer we meet with is, that neither glaſs nor wide ſtreets are convenient in ſo warm a climate: as it is, one ſide of the ſtreets always caſts a ſhade upon the other; and by their paper windows, they avoid the ſcorching heat of the ſun, whoſe rays would be contracted and heightened by the crown glaſs uſed here, as by a burning-glaſs.

As Tuſcan pillars and ruſtick work, owe their original to this country, ſays Mr ADDISON, the architect always takes care to give them a place in the great edifices that are raiſed in Tuſcany; though the Dorick, the Ionick, and Corinthian orders are not excluded. The Duke's new palace, called the palace of Pitti, according to the ſame gentleman, is a noble pile, built after this manner, which makes it look extremely ſolid and majeſtick. [This architecture *a la maniera ruſtica*, as the Italians call it, is where great rough ſtones are ſet jutting out beyond the plain ſuperficies; which has been imitated by ſeveral Engliſh noblemen, particularly by the preſent Duke of Newcaſtle, in the pillars before his houſe in Great Lincolns-Inn-Fields.] This palace is in the form of a Roman H, with double rooms on all ſides. From the ſtreet there is an eaſy aſcent to it, on which front is a range of two and twenty large windows in each ſtory, with fine ſtone pillars on the ſides of them; but the ſmallneſs of the court in the middle of the palace, is by ſome travellers eſteemed an unpardonable fault: for though the height of the building to the cornice of the third order is an hundred and twenty-two feet, the court is but an hundred and ſixty feet long, and an hundred and forty broad; inſomuch that there is no part of it where we can ſtand to view the building, without lifting up one's head in a very troubleſome manner. From the back court we aſcend to a large plot of ground, encompaſſed with a ſemicircle of ſtone-ſeats ſix rows deep, in form of an amphitheatre, on which people ſit to ſee the ſports that are ſtill exhibited to them. The gardens are beautified with a multitude of pleaſant walks, fountains, grotto's, and ſtatues of an ineſtimable value. The furniture of the Grand Duke's apartments is rich beyond expreſſion, and the paintings exquiſite. In one room we ſee deſcribed the hiſtory of SELEUCUS, giving his beloved wife STRATONICE to his only ſon SELEUCUS, who languiſhed for her. In another, a collection of pictures, all originals, done by the beſt hands, as TITIAN's, RAPHAEL's, MICHAEL ANGELO's, &c. one of the beſt of which is RAPHAEL's, drawn by his own hand. But it would be endleſs to enumerate all the beauties of theſe apartments; I ſhall only obſerve further, that upon ſetting open the doors, you ſee through ſixteen large rooms at once, all upon a floor. Let us paſs on from hence through the long cloſe gallery, which runs from the new palace to the old, over the river and over the tops of the houſes, with many turnings and windings for the ſpace of half a mile: being arrived at the old palace, the firſt thing ſhewn to travellers is that famous gallery, ſo repleniſhed with ſtatues and pictures by the beſt hands, that it is the admiration of all that ſee it; on the left is one continued window, and on the other a ſet of pictures of the Medicean family. Under the window, and alſo under the pictures on each ſide, are a range of marble ſtatues of the Roman Emperors and other antient heroes: above the window is another range of pictures of the moſt famous men for learning; and on the right ſide over the pictures already mentioned, are thoſe of the moſt celebrated Generals and military men. The number of the ſtatues are near an hundred: among the buſts of the Emperors and Empreſſes that are moſt ſcarce, and ſome of them almoſt ſingular in their kind, Mr ADDISON obſerves, are thoſe of CALIGULA, OTHO, NERVA, ÆLIUS VERUS, PERTINAX, GETA, DIDIUS JULIANUS, ALBINUS, and AGRIPPA, extremely well wrought, and, what is very uncommon, in alabaſter. He places AGRIPPA among the Emperors, becauſe he is generally ranged ſo in ſets of medals; as he does ſome of the other ſex of an inferior rank among the Empreſſes, becauſe they are uſually found in their company, viz. DOMITIA, AGRIPPINA wife of GERMANICUS, ANTONIA MATIDIA, PLOTINA, MALLIA, and SCANTILLA. Among the buſts of ſuch Emperors as are common, the following ought to be taken notice of for the excellence of the ſculpture, viz. thoſe of AUGUSTUS, VESPASIAN, ADRIAN, MARCUS AURELIUS, LUCIUS VERUS, SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS, CARACALLA, and GETA. In the ſame gallery there is a beautiful buſt of ALEXANDER the Great, caſting up his face to heaven with a noble air of grief or diſcontent, whereby my author conceives the ſculptor intended to expreſs the conqueror's concern for want of new worlds. There is alſo in porphyry the head of a Faun, and of the god PAN; and among the entire figures, a veſtal virgin with the fire burning before her, and her hair full grown and gathered under her veil; which my author thinks may determine that notable controverſy among antiquaries, whether the veſtals after the firſt tonſure ſuffered their hair to grow again. There is in the ſame gallery the Gladiator, the NARCISSUS, the CUPID and PSYCHE, and FLORA; and one of MORPHEUS, lying with his head upon a pillow of touch-ſtone; which god is uſually repreſented by antient ſtatuaries under the figure of a boy aſleep, with a bundle of poppies in his hand. The ſame gentleman obſerves, that he ſcarce ever ſaw any figure of ſleep, which was not of black marble, having probably ſome relation to night, the proper ſeaſon for reſt. But to return to the gallery: Thoſe that ſhew it, deſire you to take particular notice of a brazen one, cloathed in an antique dreſs,

The Great Duke's gallery.

ſuppoſed to be SCIPIO's; of LEDA receiving JUPITER's embraces, expreſſing pleaſure mixed with ſhame; the antique BACCHUS, with a copy of it by MICHAEL ANGELO; the JULIA, daughter of AUGUSTUS; the VENUS, the DIANA, the APOLLO, and the Peaſant ſtriking a boar. Among the pictures of celebrated Generals are thoſe of HANNIBAL, the terror of Rome, of SCIPIO, who took Carthage, of PYRRHUS, of ALEXANDER FARNESE, who never loſt a battle, &c. And among the men of learning, PETRARCH, ARIOSTO, MACHIAVEL, GUICCIARDIN, PAULO JOVIO, BOCCACIO, MICHAEL ANGELO, RAPHAEL URBIN, GALILEO, &c.

After the traveller has ſurveyed the gallery, he is led into ſeven or eight chambers of curioſities which ſtand on the ſide of it. In the firſt is a cabinet of antiquities, conſiſting chiefly of idols, taliſmans, ſepulchral lamps, hieroglyphicks, medals, ſtones, and minerals. The ſecond has nothing but paintings. The third, called the chamber of the mathematicks, has a globe and ſphere each of them ſeven feet in diameter. The fourth is hung with an excellent collection of pictures; and in it is an ebony cabinet, containing many curioſities in amber, ivory, and precious ſtones; a great rough emerald, rooted in it's rock; and the ground-plot of Leghorn, deſcribed on a table of lapis lazuli. In the fifth chamber are pictures of ſeveral Generals and other men of figure in the laſt age, particularly OLIVER CROMWELL and General MONK. The ſixth contains the pictures of the moſt famous painters, drawn by themſelves. But the moſt valuable things are in an octogonal room, twenty foot in diameter, covered with an arched dome, lined with mother of pearl, the floor inlaid with marble of various colours, and the ſides hung with pictures, done by the greateſt maſters. Here is kept the great diamond, weighing an hundred and thirty-nine carats and an half, of a very fine form, but the water a little upon the citron colour. Here alſo is the head of JULIUS CÆSAR, of one entire turquoiſe ſtone of the old rock, as big as a hen's egg; a cabinet full of veſſels of agate, lapis lazuli, cornelian, and cryſtal of the rock; a large table of inlaid work, compoſed of oriental jaſper, chalcedony, rubies, topazes, and other precious ſtones admirably wrought; ſix Grecian ſtatues of extraordinary beauty; the two wreſtlers; the Roman ſlave, whetting his knife, and liſtning to CATILINE's conſpiracy; a FAUNUS; a ſleeping CUPID; and laſtly, the celebrated VENUS of MEDICIS, which, as Mr ADDISON obſerves, ſeems much leſs than the life, being perfectly naked, and in company with others of a larger make; but is however five feet high, as big as the ordinary ſize of a woman, as is evident from the meaſure he took of her wriſt: for from the ſize of any one part, ſays my author, it is eaſy to gueſs at all the reſt, in a figure of ſuch nice proportions. The ſoftneſs of the fleſh, the delicacy of the ſhape, the air and poſture, and correctneſs of deſign in this ſtatue, is inexpreſſible: thus far Mr ADDISON. Another traveller inform us, that this is the moſt charming body, and the fineſt piece of workmanſhip in the world: the head is turned a little towards the left ſhoulder, and ſhe holds her right hand before her breaſt at ſome diſtance, the other hand ſhe holds before what all the ſex conceal; and bowing down a little, advances her right knee, as if ſhe would hide herſelf better if ſhe could: that decent baſhfulneſs, which is ſo becoming an ornament in the fair, as imprinted on her face, accompanied with that ſweetneſs, beauty, delicacy, and bloom of youth, which are beyond deſcription. This figure of VENUS, ſays Mr ADDISON, puts me in mind of a ſpeech ſhe makes in one of the Greek Epigrams, which he thus renders into Engliſh:

> ANCHISES, PARIS, and ADONIS too,
> Have ſeen me naked and expos'd to view:
> All theſe I frankly own without denying?
> But where has this PRAXITELES been prying?

The cathedral of Florence.

I proceed now to the deſcription of the ſacred buildings; of which the domo or cathedral, called Santa Maria Florida, is one of the moſt magnificent in Europe, being covered on the outſide, as well as paved with marble of various colours. The architecture is *a la ruſtica*, and admirable in it's kind: the pillars which ſupport the church are ſo ſlender, and ſtand at ſuch a diſtance, that one has a view of the whole church at once, which is four hundred and eighty feet long, and three hundred and eighty feet high to the top of the croſs, covered with a cupola, the deſign of BRUNELLESCHI, being the firſt of the kind, and the pattern of St PETER's in Rome, and all other cupola's of a later date. The painting of it, which repreſents the reſurrection, is much admired by ſome; but criticks find fault with it, becauſe the riſing bodies are cloathed, and of different ages. The ſtatues of God the father, of a dead Chriſt, and an Angel ſupporting him, on the ſame altar, done by BANDINELLO, are admirable pieces, as are the ADAM and EVE behind the altar. The choir is round, and perpendicularly under the cupola, being of the ſame dimenſions. The ſteeple, or ſquare tower where the bells hang, is a little diſtance from the church: it is an hundred and eighty foot high, and overlaid with ſquare pieces of white, red, and black marble, and adorned with ſtatues. The baptiſtery ſtands before the dome, and is of an octogonal figure, covered with marble, as the church is; the three brazen gates, containing pieces of ſacred hiſtory in bas-relief, one of which is ſo exquiſitely wrought, that MICHAEL ANGELO uſed to ſay it would ſerve for one of the gates of paradiſe. The body of the baptiſtery was antiently an heathen temple dedicated to MARS.

The fine chapel of St Laurence.

The collegiate church of St LAURENCE, the deſign of BRUNELLESCHI, is an admirable ſtructure, adorned with excellent ſtatues, paintings, and other rich ornaments; but our countryman, Dr BURNET, it ſeems, was much ſcandalized, that ſome of the ſtatues appeared with nudities, which he had never obſerved in any other church. The chapel of St LAURENCE adjoining to it, the mauſolæum of the Medicean family, is univerſally allowed to be the fineſt edifice of the kind in the world. It is of an octogonal figure, [MISSON ſays a hexagon] vaulted on the top in form of a cupola, the walls incruſted and covered with porphyry, jaſper, agate, touch-ſtone, lapis lazuli, oriental alabaſter, and other rich materials, that can be equalled by nothing but the workmanſhip, which ſets it beyond all parallel. Round the chapel are the tombs of the Great Dukes, compoſed of porphyry, oriental granite, and the moſt precious kinds of marble; on each tomb is a great pillar of jaſper, enriched with various ſorts of jewels, and on each pillar a ducal crown, which is

CHAP. XI. Tuſcany.

is ſtill a great deal richer. In the middle of each face of the octogon riſes a double pilaſter of jaſper, with a double chapiter of braſs gilt, the baſe being of the ſame metal. On the pedeſtal of each pilaſter, are ſeveral emblematical figures, compoſed of precious ſtones, joined together with all the art imaginable: over the tombs are the ſtatues of the Great Dukes at full length, all of braſs gilt, and placed in niches round the chapel. In a word, ſays a late traveller, on which ſide ſoever we caſt our eyes we were amazed; if we looked down, we ſaw the pavement of the choiceſt marble; if we viewed the walls, our eyes were even dazzled with the piercing luſtre of the precious ſtones; if we looked up, we were raviſhed with the beauty of the roof, vaulted with lapis lazuli, the brighteſt blue, and intermixed with ſtars and veins of gold, which repreſented the face of heaven very naturally. This work has been already above an hundred years begun, wherein a great many millions ſterling have been expended, and ſtill it remains unfiniſhed. The great altar, whoſe riches and workmanſhip is equal to ſuch a chapel, is not yet ſet up, as I can learn, but kept ſtill in the Great Duke's jewel-office. The cryſtal pillars of this altar, according to one that ſaw it, are a full ell long, and finely wrought, having chapiters of pure gold; the pictures compoſed of inlaid precious ſtones, which form the antependium of the altar: the neat contexture of others of different colours and luſtre, with the variety of rich cameo's, which are ſet here and there, render the beauty of it inexpreſſible. And among the ſtatues deſigned to adorn this chapel, ſays Dr Burnet, there is one of the virgin, made by Michael Angelo, which repreſents her grief at the paſſion of her bleſſed ſon, that hath the moſt life in it of all the ſtatues I ever ſaw. But the famous library, which belongs to the convent of St Laurence, we are to believe, took up more of our author's time, than all the other curioſities in Florence; for here is a collection of many manuſcripts, moſt of them Greek, which were gathered together by Pope Clement VII, and given to his country: there are but few printed books mixed with them, and thoſe ſo rare, that they are almoſt as valuable as the manuſcripts; and here alſo he ſaw ſome of Virgil's poems in old capitals. Mr Addison viewed the ſame, and obſerves that they want the *Ille ego qui quondam*, &c. and the two and twenty lines in the ſecond Æneid, beginning at *Jamque adeo ſuper unus eram*, which he always thought left out with a great deal of judgment by Tucca and Varius, as it contradicts a part of the ſixth Æneid, and repreſents the hero in a paſſion not becoming his character.

The churches of the Annunciata, St Mark's, the Holy-Croſs, and St Maria Novella, are all buildings of exquiſite beauty and immenſe riches; but the curioſities of Florence, have already had their ſhare in a work of this nature, and forbids my enlarging further upon them: I ſhall only obſerve in general, that the town is ſuppoſed to contain eight thouſand houſes, which at ſeven to a houſe, makes the number of inhabitants to amount to fifty-ſix thouſand; an hundred and fifty collegiate and parochial churches, ninety monaſteries and nunneries, two and twenty hoſpitals, of which that for orphans maintains nine hundred perſons; eighteen halls belonging to merchants and tradeſmen, and an hundred and ſixty publick ſtatues, beſides what are found in palaces.

CHAP. XI. Tuſcany.

Trade.

The principal trade of this city, beſides wine, oil, fruits, and other produce of the country, conſiſts in wrought ſilks, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and ſome ſay they have a woollen manufacture: (but this laſt muſt be inconſiderable.) The nobility and gentry do not think it beneath them to apply themſelves to trade; and the Great Duke himſelf is ſaid to be one of the moſt conſiderable merchants in Europe: Nay, the gentry ſell their own wines by retale out of doors, though not in their houſes, and even hang out a broken flaſk for a ſign at their court-gates. Their cuſtomers come no further than the cellar-window however, where they take and return the flaſks to the butler, without diſturbing the houſe; at the ſame time they look upon it as a great diſparagement, to educate their children in the profeſſion of phyſick: ſo various are the notions of honour in different countries, phyſick being eſteemed with us one of the moſt creditable profeſſions, and on the contrary, a retale trade of liquors the moſt ignominious.

Diverſions.

The women, we are told by moſt travellers, are in no part of Italy, more confined than they are at Florence; and yet Lassel aſſures us, the quality invite one another to play at cards on winters evenings at their houſes, whither the married ladies come richly dreſſed, and are attended by an equal number of cavaliers; that they find the rooms all open, and well lighted with candles, where the ladies and gentlemen ſit down at the ſame tables promiſcuouſly, having wine and other liquors prepared for them, and uſually in a great room below; at the entrance of the palace is a long table, where gameſters reſort, who play deep, the reſt coming purely for diverſion. In the time of the carnival, maſquerading and all manner of liberties are taken, ſo that methinks the reſtraint of the married women in Italy, is not ſo terrible as it is uſually repreſented (as to virgins indeed, they are ſent to nunneries for education, at eight or ten years of age, and ſeldom come out till they are married). There are alſo frequently balls at court, opera's and plays, where the ladies are not excluded; but what many of our travellers are offended at, is, that the women are not ſeen commonly in the ſtreets, or ever ride in coaches with the gentlemen: and 'tis true, a woman would not be looked upon much better than a proſtitute, that ſhould ſuffer herſelf to be placed among fellows in a coach, tho' with us it is eſteemed no reflection upon their modeſty. Another diverſion at Florence, as I have hinted already, is the combat of wild beaſts, which the court exhibits to the people, as thoſe of lions, leopards, tygers, wild boars, bears, and wolves, which are let out of their dens into a ſpacious court ſurrounded by high walls, above which the ſpectators ſit on benches gradually riſing as in a theatre; and when the ſport is over, they drive the fierce animals back into their dens by a terrible wooden machine, made in the form of a great green dragon, which a perſon within rolls upon wheels, holding two lighted torches through the eyes to terrify the creatures, who ſeldom dare ſtand the ſhock of this monſtrous engine. Another of their ſports is horſe-racing, without riders in the long ſtreet, which from hence is called the *Curſo.* They throw a broad piece of leather over each horſe, in which they faſten ſharp-pointed irons like the rowels of a ſpur, that ſtrike againſt the horſe's ſides as he moves; and four or five of them ſtarting at the ſame time, they run with all the ſpeed they can make to the end of the courſe. But beſides theſe races, on the 24th of June annually, the antient Roman races are imitated in the piazza *di Santa Maria novella*, with magnificent open chariots drawn by a pair of horſes each, at which the Great Duke aſſiſts. There being two fine marble obeliſks erected in the ſquare, they drive four times round them with all the ſpeed imaginable, and ſometimes overturn each other; and he that performs the courſe ſooneſt, gains the victory. The reward is uſually a fine piece of brocade. In this ſquare alſo during the carnival is performed another diverſion, called the *Calcio*, which our travellers reſemble to foot-ball, only it is performed by perſons of quality: the two parties each of them chuſe their Prince, who keeps his court like a real ſovereign, and is always one of the firſt rank, who is able to make a figure. The two parties magnificently dreſſed, but with marks of diſtinction, with each of them their Prince at their head, are ranged in order of battle between the barriers, when the ball being thrown into the middle, they uſe their utmoſt endeavours to receive it at the firſt rebound, and after a great deal of ſtruggling, they that kick it beyound the barrier of the oppoſite party, gain the prize.

In the ſquare called *Loggia de Piſani*, on the 23d of June annually (where is erected the ſtatue of JUDITH in braſs, and the rape of the Sabines is repreſented) the Grand Duke comes in his robes of ſtate, attended by all his court, to receive the homage of his officers and vaſſals under his juriſdiction, each of them paſſing before his throne on horſeback with their heads uncovered, and bowing their bodies, make ſome preſent, as a tribute or mark of their ſubmiſſion.

Fieſoli city.

2. The city of Fieſoli, to which Florence owes it's original, is ſituated on a hill, three miles to the northward of it, and was one of the twelve great cities of the Hetrurians, and the reſidence of their augurs; but is remarkable for little at preſent but the cathedral, being ſtill the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Florence.

Pratolino.

3. Pratolino, two miles north of Fieſoli, conſiderable for a palace of the Great Duke's ſituated here. It is a majeſtick ſquare ſtructure, encompaſſed with mountains, and the gardens ſuitable to the magnificence of the palace. The fountains, caſcades, and grotto's, all admirable in their kind; and what are moſt taken notice of by travellers, are certain ſtatues playing upon muſical inſtruments, others working at a forge, water-organs, birds chirping, frogs croaking, ſtatues walking, and all put in motion by water. As for the concealed ſpouts, or fountains as they are called, with which they take the liberty of half drowning the common people who come to ſee the gardens, they ſcarce deſerve the mentioning: we find ſome of our quality imitating them in this piece of ill-nature.

Fiorenzola.

4. Fiorenzola, is a large town, ſituate in a valley, about thirty miles to the northward of Florence, conſiderable on account of it's trade.

Pietra Mala.

5. Pietra Mala, twenty-five miles north of Florence; is a village much talked of by travellers, on account of a light which is ſeen in the fields near it, like a globe of pure fire, almoſt every evening.

Piſtoia.

6. Piſtoia, ſtands twenty miles north-weſt of Florence, and as many ſouth-eaſt of Luca, and is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Florence, a very poor town at preſent, though ſituate in the richeſt part of Tuſcany. It was antiently a flouriſhing commonwealth, and ſubmitted to the Great Duke upon the taking of Piſa.

Poggio Imperiale.

7. Poggio Imperiale, is conſiderable for another of the Great Duke's palaces, about a mile from Florence, adorned with a collection of ſome of the fineſt pictures in Italy. The gardens alſo are very artificially diſpoſed, and furniſhed with exotick as well as domeſtick plants. Among the ſtatues, that of ADONIS, done by MICHAEL ANGELO, is moſt admired.

Empoli.

8. Empoli, eighteen miles miles ſouth-weſt of Florence, the See of a Biſhop.

St Miniato al Todeſco.

9. St Miniato al Todeſco alſo is a Biſhop's See, but conſiderable for little elſe.

Colle.

10. Colle, ſituate on a mountain, twenty-five miles ſouth of Florence, is only mentioned as a Biſhop's See.

Pongibond.

11. Pongibond, or Poggio Bonzi, two and twenty miles ſouth of Florence, is a town of ſome trade.

Monte Pulciano.

12. Monte Pulciano is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Rome, and lies twenty ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Sienna.

Cortona.

13. Cortona, fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Florence, is pleaſantly ſituated on a mountain, planted with vines and fruit-trees, ſaid to be more antient than Rome, and is at preſent the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Florence.

Arezzo.

14. Arezzo, is ſituated on a hill, about forty miles to the eaſtward of Florence, a well-built town, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Florence, but thinly inhabited at preſent.

Borgo San Sepulchro.

15. Borgo San Sepulchro, lies near the Tiber, forty-five miles to the eaſtward of Florence, and is the See of a Biſhop, but no otherwiſe conſiderable.

The Sienneſe.

The Sienneſe, or duchy of Sienna, is bounded by Florence Proper towards the north; by the territories of the Pope on the ſouth and eaſt; and by the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt, being about ſixty miles in length, and as many in breadth. The chief towns are, 1. Sienna. 2. Maſſa. 3. Caſtiglione. 4. Buriano. 5. Groſſetto. 6. Monte Alcino. 7. Pienza. 8. Sanquirico. 9. Savona. 10. Radicofani. And, 11. Chiuſi.

Sienna city.

The city of Sienna ſtands in a healthful air, thirty-ſix miles to the ſouthward of Florence, pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence in an exceeding fruitful country, being about four miles in circumference, and of a triangular figure, encompaſſed with a ruinous wall, and commanded by a citadel, intended more to awe the natives than for it's defence: in it are ſtill remaining ſeveral ſquare towers, the moſt of them are fallen to decay, which were built heretofore, as 'tis ſaid, to commemorate the great actions of particular citizens when it was a republick. The ſtreets are neatly paved with bricks, the great ſquare in the middle of the city is ſurrounded with a piazza, where they run races annually on the 2d of July. Fourteen horſes are brought from as many pariſhes by riders richly dreſſed in different colours, with the arms of the pariſh each of them belong to on their reſpective habits: the horſes ſplendidly accoutred, and their very hoofs gilt. When they are all ready, they ſtart at the ſound of ſeveral inſtruments, and having run four times about the ſquare, the horſe that comes firſt in gains the prize, which conſiſts of a rich brocade, to which every pariſh contributes: they run alſo with machines in the form of triumphal chariots drawn each by a pair of horſes, and driven by perſons of quality with incredible ſwiftneſs, as at

Florence, where the honour of the victory is paſſionately contended for with no ſmall hazard to the drivers, who are ſometimes overturned by their competitors, and come off with broken limbs. The town is thinly peopled, vineyards and gardens lie here and there interſperſed within the walls. The publick buildings are magnificent, and the private houſes have many of them an air of grandeur, but every thing ſeems to be upon the decline.

The domo, or cathedral, however, is ſtill one of the proudeſt ſtructures in Italy of the Gothick architecture: the walls are covered within and without with marble of different colours; the roof is azure intermixed with ſtars of gold; the heads of an hundred and ſeventy Popes in alabaſter adorn the walls; the frontiſpiece is finely carved and ſet thick with excellent ſtatues; the floor is inlaid with marble of various colours, forming lights and ſhades, and compoſing all together a kind of Moſaick work, repreſenting the hiſtory of ABRAHAM ſacrificing his ſon, the paſſage of the Iſraelites through the Red-Sea, MOSES ſtriking the rock, and many other parts of ſacred hiſtory. This beautiful pavement is covered with a boarded floor, part of which is removed to ſatiſfy the curioſity of ſtrangers when they come to view it. The principal ſtatues are thoſe of Pope ALEXANDER III, PIUS II, and ALEXANDER VII, who were natives of this city. The painting of the library belonging to this church, repreſenting the great actions of PIUS II, is much admired by the moſt judicious travellers, which remains as freſh and lively as at firſt, though done near three hundred years ago. The other curioſities uſually ſhewn to foreigners, are, the great hoſpital, the houſe of PIUS II, the pillar with a brazen wolf upon it, ſuppoſed, erroneouſly, to be the arms of the city; probably firſt ſet up by the Romans, who erected ſuch pillars in many of their colonies, perhaps in memory of the wolf, which, according to tradition, ſuckled ROMULUS and REMUS, the founders of their city; which is not however more incredible than ſome later traditions concerning St CATHERINE, the Saint of the town: they ſtill ſhew ſeveral places here made famous by her devotions; as the room where ſhe received the five wounds, now converted into a chapel; the apartment where ſhe lived in the church of the Dominicans; here they have preſerved her head and one of her fingers, but her body, it ſeems, is removed to the church of the Dominicans at Rome. They relate, that ſhe was not only viſited by our Saviour in perſon at Sienna, but formally married to him; and that the bleſſed Virgin, St PETER, St JOHN and St DOMINICK, were at the wedding: but the great uſe her friends make of her, is, a revelation which they pretend ſhe received, that the Virgin was conceived in ſin as well as other mortals; which was introduced in oppoſition to a contrary revelation of St BRIDGET's, confirming the immaculate conception. Thus do theſe bigotted people make ſport for thoſe who are atheiſtically inclined, and by their counterfeit viſions and revelations, render thoſe that are real, ſuſpected. Sienna is an Archbiſhop's See and Univerſity, where young gentlemen are inſtructed in all manly exerciſes, as well as the ſciences. Here alſo is an academy of Wits, as in other Italian cities. The purity of their language is much commended, being equal in that reſpect to Florence, and their pronunciation as good as at Rome; which, with the other advantages of the place above-mentioned, in point of air and ſituation, make it frequently the reſidence of foreigners who intend to learn Italian. The magiſtracy of this city conſiſts of a Governour and Senate compoſed of twelve of the principal inhabitants; the ſovereignty being lodged in the Great Duke, under whoſe dominion they have been ever ſince the year 1555; before which time they were a flouriſhing republick, and often diſputed with the Florentines for Empire.

Maſſa. 2. Maſſa, ſituated on the ſide of a hill near the coaſt of Tuſcany, about thirty-five miles to the weſtward of Sienna, to whom it's Biſhop is ſuffragan.

Groſſetto. 3. Groſſetto, a ſmall town, about forty miles ſouth-weſt of Sienna, near a bay of the Tuſcan Sea, defended by a caſtle, whoſe Biſhop alſo is ſuffragan to Sienna.

Monte Alcino. 4. Monte Alcino, famous for it's wine, lies twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Sienna, and is the See of a Biſhop.

Pienza. 5. Pienza, twenty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Sienna, which has the honour of being a biſhoprick.

Savona. 6. Savona, a Biſhop's See, fifty miles ſouth of Sienna.

Chiuſi. 7. Chiſiu, a Biſhop's See, thirty-ſix miles ſouth of Sienna; but travellers have not thought any of them deſerve a particular deſcription.

Radicofani. 8. Radicofani, a little town, defended by a caſtle upon a hill, formerly looked upon as impregnable, lies upon the Pope's frontiers, about forty miles from Sienna in the road to Rome.

Caſtiglione. 9. Caſtiglione, a ſmall town, ſituate on the frontiers of the Pope's territories, on a lake to which it communicates it's name, forty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Sienna.

Abſtract of the hiſtory. This country which now goes under the name of Tuſcany, was antiently called by the ſeveral names of Ombria, Tyrrhenia, and Hetruria, and divided into twelve ſmall principalities, each of them governed by their reſpective ſovereigns, till it fell under the dominion of the Romans with the reſt of Italy, and afterwards followed the fortune of that Empire, being over-run and pillaged by the Goths and other northern people: Florence, the capital city, particularly was deſtroyed by thoſe barbarians, and rebuilt by CHARLES the Great about two hundred and fifty years after. It remained under the power of the Emperors of the weſt for ſome time; but during the ſtruggles for dominion between them and the Pope of Rome, the principal cities of Italy, ſuch as Florence, Piſa, and Sienna, withdrew themſelves from the ſubjection of both, and erected ſuch governments in their reſpective territories as they ſaw fit, ſeldom remaining long under any one form, but altering their ſeveral conſtitutions as the people or the nobility prevailed, till ſome of the moſt popular noblemen in Florence aſſumed the government of that city, and reduced it to the form of a monarchy. Theſe were frequently depoſed by other aſpiring citizens, but at length the houſe of Medicis had the good fortune to fix the government in their family, and now remain Sovereigns of the greateſt part of Tuſcany, having reduced the republicks of Piſa and Sienna under their dominion. It was JOHN DE MEDICIS, who by flattering the populace, and pretending to defend them againſt the oppreſſions of the nobility, about the year 1410, firſt procured the ſovereign power to be put into his hands; but his deſcendants did not become abſolute as they are at preſent till many

The Grand Duke.

years after; this was obtained by ſlow degrees, and by the moſt refined policy. Pope Pius V, firſt conferred the title of Great Duke on Cosmo de Medicis, in the year 1570, crowned him with his own hands at Rome; and the Pontiffs have ever ſince looked upon theſe Princes as their vaſſals; while the Emperor on the other hand claims Tuſcany as a fief of the Empire, with a power of diſpoſing of it whenever male iſſue ſhall be wanting of the Medicean family; which was the occaſion of the treaties above-mentioned in the deſcription of Parma, for the preventing a war in Italy. The Pope ſeemed highly to reſent this proceeding of the powers of Europe, in taking upon them to diſpoſe of the territories of Tuſcany, exclaiming againſt it at the courts of Vienna, Madrid, &c. But they ſtill ſeem determined that Don Carlos, ſon of the Queen of Spain, ſhall ſucceed if he dies without iſſue. The preſent Grand Duke is John Gaston de Medicis, the ſon of Cosmo III, and Margareta Louisa, daughter of Gaston John Baptist Duke of Orleans. He ſucceeded his father in the year 1723, having been married to Anne Mary Frances of Sax-Lawenburg, widow to Philip William Count Palatine of the Rhine, by whom he has had no iſſue, and probably deſpairs of having any now: however, as there are ſome branches of the family of Medicis left in Naples, particularly the Princes of Ottajono and Sarne, whom the Great Duke has acknowledged to be of the ſame blood, neither the Florentines or the Pope will contentedly acquieſce in the determination of the Empire and Spain for the ſucceſſion of Don Carlos; nor will France and England, who were parties to the quadruple alliance, probably inſiſt on this diſpoſition, ſince the miſunderſtanding which hath happened between the allies of Hanover and Vienna, unleſs this matter be farther confirmed at the congreſs of Soiſſons.

Government.

Revenues and forces.

The Great Duke, as hath been intimated already, is arbitrary in his dominions, nor hath he ſo much as a privy council, in whoſe name proclamations and other acts of ſtate are iſſued, as is practiſed in the courts of other monarchs, but all things of this nature are executed as the ſole effect of his will and pleaſure. The Florentines indeed retain the ſhadow of their antient government, having a ſenate compoſed of forty of the nobility and great officers, who ſerve to record the decrees of the Prince. There are alſo a great variety of courts of Juſtice, a council called the *Rota*, who determine appeals from them, with many other councils which ſuperintend the treaſure, forces, publick buildings, &c. Governors and other officers are appointed by the Great Duke throughout his territories, and preferred and diſplaced as he ſees fit. His annual revenues are computed to amount to five hundred thouſand pounds, ariſing from the tenths of the yearly value of every houſe, the tenth of all lands and houſes that are ſold, the ground-rents of the houſes in Leghorn and other places, where he ſells the land to the builders; eight *per cent.* on the portions of all women who are married; two *per cent.* on law-ſuits; five ſhillings for every heifer that is ſold; an exciſe upon bread, tobacco, eggs, and almoſt all manner of proviſions; beſides which, theſe Princes have a prodigious treaſure in bank, with part of which they traffick as merchants: and were they only to lay up the ſurplus of their expences, which do not amount to half their income, it is not to be conceived what immenſe ſums they muſt have heaped together ſince this family have had the government in their hands, there being no Court in Europe which lives ſo frugally as this, keeping the ſervants at board-wages, and being at a ſet rate with their cooks, bakers, &c. They are only extravagant in their buildings, furniture, gardens, collections of antiquities, and other curioſities of art and nature, which are the amuſements of the Italian nobility in general.

As to their forces, this Prince has only ſome gallies at ſea, and two or three troops of guards; but 'tis ſaid he has ſome thouſands of Militia enrolled, who are ſuffered to live at their reſpective dwellings, and follow their trades; I do not find they have been brought into actual ſervice of late years. The Italian Princes chuſe to employ Swiſs and other mercenaries in their ſervice, rather than national troops; and of theſe few Princes are able to maintain more, whoſe dominions are of ſo ſmall an extent as the Duke of Tuſcany's. But the genius of theſe petty Sovereigns does not ſeem to lie this way at preſent; in which they differ pretty much from their anceſtors, who carried their arms into every part of the habitable world: as they do from the Germans, who ſtill impoveriſh themſelves and their ſubjects by keeping three times as many forces on foot as they can maintain. I ſhall only add, that beſides the territories of the Duke of Tuſcany already mentioned, he is poſſeſſed of part of the iſland of Elba, the marquiſate of Scanzano, the Citta del Sole in Romania, and ſome other ſmall places, which will be deſcribed in treating of the countries where they are ſituated. I proceed now to the deſcription of the reſt of Tuſcany which belongs to other Princes and States, namely, 1. The territories poſſeſſed by the republick of Luca. 2. The State delli Preſidii, poſſeſſed by the Spaniards. 3. The Principality of Piombino. 4. The domain of the houſe of Cibo. And laſtly, the marquiſate De Fos di Novo.

The territories of Luca.

Situation and extent.

Chief towns.

The territories of the republick of Luca are bounded by Modena on the north; Piſtoia on the eaſt, the Piſan on the ſouth; and by the Tuſcan Sea and the republick of Genoa towards the weſt; being about five and twenty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty in breadth from north to ſouth; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Luca. 2. Via Reggio. 3. Coreglia. And, 4. Caſtiglione.

Luca city.

The city of Luca is ſituated in the middle of a fruitful plain, about fifteen miles over, near the river Secchia, ten miles to the northward of Piſa, and twelve miles to the eaſtward of the Tuſcan Sea, being of an oblong form, three miles in circumference, and encompaſſed with a wall, defended by eleven baſtions, and other fortifications. The walls are very wide, and faced with brick, and ſo well planted with trees, that they cover the whole town, except the ſteeple of the cathedral, which only can be ſeen as we approach the place. The ſtreets are moderately wide and ſtraight, the ſquares large, the private houſes equal to thoſe of other Italian cities; and among their publick buildings is the cathedral dedicated to St Martin, a large handſome fabrick, moſt remarkable for a crucifix of our Bleſſed Saviour, according to tradition, begun by Nicodemus, and finiſhed by a divine hand. This crucifix is of cedar, and as others are uſually naked, this is richly cloathed, with a crown upon it's head, adorned with precious ſtones. In the church of St Freidan is a tomb, which they called St Richard's, a quondam King of England, but our hiſtories do not furniſh us with an account of any King of England of that name who died in Italy. The palace of the republick might make a noble figure in another country, but there are ſo many finer in Italy, that it is not thought worth a particular deſcription. This republick is of about three hundred years ſtanding.

Government.

The legiſlative authority is lodged in the ſenate compoſed of about two hundred and twenty noblemen, as they are called, or thereabouts, but theſe are generally noblemen without titles, or any honours to diſtinguiſh them from gentlemen, and moſt of theſe apply themſelves to trade and merchandize: which inclines me to think that we have many citizens of London who much better deſerve the character of noblemen than thoſe who go under that denomination in ſome Italian republicks. This ſenate is divided in two equal parts, who ſit alternately every ſix months. The executive power is lodged in the Gonfalonier, or ſtandard-bearer, the chief officer of the ſtate and a council conſiſting of nine members, called the Signoria, who with the Gonfalonier are changed every two months, and incapable of ſerving in the ſame poſts for ſix years afterwards, to prevent their having any ambitious views. The Signoria while they are in office live in the palace, where their expences are borne by the ſtate, but this is all the reward they receive from the ſtate for their trouble. The Gonfalonier is no more in effect than Preſident of the Council, unleſs it be that he wears a robe of crimſon velvet, and has the title of His Excellence, and a guard of ſixty Switzers. All elections of officers are made by balloting in the ſenate, of which the Signoria compoſe a part. They have a Podeſta, or Judge of criminal matters, and four other judges for civil cauſes, from whence the parties may appeal to the Gonfalonier and Signoria, who are the laſt reſort.

Revenues.

The revenues of this republick are computed at about thirty thouſand pounds per annum, and 'tis ſaid, they can raiſe ten or twelve thouſand men upon occaſion; but their greateſt ſecurity from their more potent neighbours is in the Emperor's protection, eſpecially now he is maſter of the beſt part of Italy. They keep guard conſtantly at their gates as in time of war, and admit no travellers but at one particular port, taking their arms from them before they enter the city, not ſo much as ſuffering any man to wear a ſword in their ſtreets. This city is the See of a Biſhop, ſubject immediately to the Pope, who officiates in the veſtments of an Archbiſhop, and the canons in the choir are habited like Cardinals. Here are as many eccleſiaſticks in proportion, as in any other town of Italy, unleſs Jeſuits; and 'tis ſaid, they will not admit any of this order amongſt them.

Trade.

The diligence of the people of this place has given it the name of *Luca the induſtrious*: their manufactures conſiſt chiefly in ſilk, and gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The olives and oil produced in their territories are very much eſteemed: they have alſo plenty of wine, but not corn ſufficient for their ſubſiſtence; the common people eat cheſnuts frequently inſtead of bread, as they do in many other parts of Italy. Of the reſt of the towns of this republick I meet with no particular deſcription, unleſs it be, that Viareggio is a little port which preſerves their communication with the Tuſcan ſea, and lies about ten or twelve miles to the weſtward of the city of Luca.

Viareggio.

The Spaniſh towns on the coaſt of Tuſcany.

The ſtate delli Preſidii, ſubject to the Spaniard, is extended about thirty miles along the coaſt of Tuſcany, having the Sienneſe on the eaſt, and is about fifteen miles broad. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Orbitello. 2. Porto Hercole. 3. Porto Sancti Stephani. 4. Talamone Vecchio. And, 5. Talamene.

Orbitello.

Orbitello is ſituated on the Tuſcan ſhore, at the foot of mount Argenatro, thirty miles north-weſt of Civita Vecchia, and about as many to the eaſtward of the iſland of Elba, and fifty to the ſouthward of Sienna; a well-fortified town, and belonged to the republick of Sienna, till that ſtate was brought under the dominion of the Florentines; for about the ſame time the Spaniards made themſelves maſters of Orbitello, Porto Hercole, and the other towns in this diſtrict, putting garriſons into all of them, which occaſiond the adjoining country to be called Il Stato delli Preſidii, or the country of garriſons.

Porto Hercole.

Porto Hercole is a large town and harbour on the Tuſcan ſea, ſix miles to the ſouthward of Orbitello, defended by a ſtrong caſtle. The other places do not require a particular deſcription.

Piombino Principality and town.

The principality of Piombino lies along the coaſt of the Tuſcan Sea, between the Sienneſe and the Piſan, being about twenty miles long, and ten broad: the chief town whereof is Piombino, about thirty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Leghorn, a ſtrong fortreſs and harbour, ſubject to the Spaniard.

The Domain of Cibo.

The Domain of the houſe of Cibo lies between the territories of Genoa on the weſt; and Val de Main on the eaſt, being ten miles in length, and about as much in breadth; formerly governed by it's own Prince, but now ſubject to Tuſcany. The chief towns are, 1. Maſſa. And, 2. Carara.

Maſſa city.

Maſſa is ſituated on the little river Lavenza, about four miles from the Tuſcan Sea, and twenty north-weſt of Luca; a little well-built town, formerly the reſidence of the Prince.

Carara.

Carara is ſituated five miles north-weſt of Maſſa, near which is dug that fine white marble, eſteemed the beſt in Europe; but I meet with no farther deſcription of the town.

Fos di Novo town and territory.

The marquiſate De Fos di Novo is a ſmall territory north-weſt of Maſſa, belonging to the family of Maleſpina, the only conſiderable town being of the ſame name, and ſituate about eight miles to the northward of Carara.

VENICE.

CHAP. XII.

Treats of the ſituation and extent of the territories of the republick of Venice in Italy, of the air and climate, ſeas, rivers, ſoil and produce.

Situation and extent.

THE Venetian dominions in Italy, are bounded by the country of the Griſons, Trent, and Tyrol, towards the north; by Carniola and the gulph of Venice on the eaſt; by Mantua and Ferrara on the ſouth; and the duchy of Milan on the weſt; being about an hundred and eighty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and an hundred in breadth towards the eaſt end, but ſcarce half ſo broad

The air. Sea. Rivers. Lakes.

broad on the weſt part of it, and of a very irregular figure, which makes it neceſſary to refer my reader to the map of Italy in this volume, for the form of it. As the territories of Venice in Italy are a part of the antient Lombardy, I have already obſerved, there cannot be a happier climate or a better air, if we except the coaſts. The only ſea which belongs to it is the Adriatick, now generally known by the name of the Gulph of Venice, that city lying at the bottom of it. The tide flows regularly twice in four and twenty hours, and ebbs as often, riſing about four feet at high water, and is governed by the moon as with us: Nor are they at all apprehenſive of the ſea's abandoning their ſhores, if we may credit Mr ADDISON, who enquired particularly after this matter at Venice; tho' Dr BURNET and ſome other travellers inſinuate, that Venice is in danger of being joined to the continent in another age. Of all the ſeas about Italy, there are none that abound in fiſh like this gulph. The chief rivers are the Po, the Piava, the Adige, the Sila, the Livenza, the Tagliamento and the Brenta, all which fall into the Adriatick. This country is alſo well watered with lakes, of which the principal are the lake de Garda, being about thirty-five miles long, and twelve broad; and the Iſco, fifteen miles in length, and three in breadth.

Soil and produce. Cattle. Wool. Fiſh and fowl.

The country is generally level, and as fruitful as any in Italy, abounding in excellent arable and paſture, vineyards, and plantations of mulberries. The road between Verona and Padua is extremely pleaſant, being planted thick with white mulberry-trees in ſquares, which do not only furniſh food for great quantities of ſilk-worms with their leaves, and feed their ſwine and poultry with their fruit, but ſerve as ſo many ſtays for the vines, which hang all along like garlands from tree to tree; and within the ſeveral ſquares are fields of corn, which in theſe hot countries ripens much better in the ſhade of the mulberry-trees, than if it were expoſed to the ſun: On the other hand, it is too cold for their oranges and citrons in the winter, when they are forced to cover them; whereas to the ſouthward of the Apennine they have no occaſion to uſe ſuch precautions. There is alſo plenty of cattle of all kinds in the Venetian territories, which travellers obſerve are either grey or white, but that their hogs are uſually black, and their fleſh much better than in France or England; which is ſuppoſed to proceed from their food, living much upon truffles, (a delicious root) the huſks of the preſſed grapes, cheſnuts, mulberries, &c. The ſheep of the Paduan afford a good ſort of wool, little inferior to that of England; and there is no where a greater plenty of fiſh and fowl, and all manner of game, than in the territories of Venice; and yet travellers complain much of their ill diet, which I preſume proceeds from the manner of ordering and dreſſing it: but this is different in almoſt every country, and ſeldom approved by ſtrangers. No wonder alſo if at inns upon the road, they do not ſtudy the palate of their gueſts any more than in other countries; but in all great towns people may have their food dreſſed after their own way: therefore when travellers complain ſo much of bad diet, where there is plenty of every thing that a man can deſire to eat or drink, they are not to be much regarded. Huſbandmen and poor people eat a coarſe ſort of bread in Italy, as they do in moſt countries of Europe; but people of condition may have fine flour, and cooks to order it as they ſee fit, if the manner of making bread and baking it here be not ſuitable to their palates, as Dr BURNET ſeems to complain very ſenſibly; tho' 'tis poſſible he might have ſeen as bad in his own country.

CHAP. XIII.

Contains a deſcription of the provinces and chief towns ſubject to the Venetians in Italy.

The Venetian provinces in Italy.

THE territories of the Venetians in Italy are are uſually divided into thirteen provinces, viz. 1. The Dogado, or duchy of Venice Proper. 2. The Padouano. 3. The Poleſino de Rovigo. 4. The Veroneſe. 5. The Breſcian. 6. The Bergamaſco. 7. The Cremaſco. 8. The Vicentin. 9. The Treviſana. 10. The Feltrino. 11. The Belluneſe. 12. The Cadorino. And, 13. Part of Friuli.

The duchy of Venice Proper. The chief towns and iſlands.

The Dogado, or duchy of Venice, properly ſo called, contains almoſt all the Venetian ſea-coaſt in Italy, with the iſlands, lakes, and marſhes, of Venice, extending in length from the mouth of the Adige in the ſouth, to the province of Friuli in the north, about fourſcore miles in length, but is not in any place above eight or ten miles in breadth, being bounded by the Adriatick on the eaſt, and the Padouan and Treviſin on the weſt: the chief places whereof are, 1. The city of Venice. 2. Murano. 3. Torcello. 4. Caorle. 5. Grado. 6. Malamocco. 7. Chioggia. 8. Brondolo. 9. Loredo. 10. Fuſine. 11. Marghera. And, 12. Meſtre.

Venice city. Situation. The Lagunes.

Venice, the capital city of this State, is ſituated in 45 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, in the Lagunes, as they are called, five miles from the continent. Theſe Lagunes are ſuppoſed to have been originally marſhy grounds, which the ſea encroached upon, leaving here and there ſome little iſlands, or ſpots of ground uncovered, on which the fiſhermen of Padua built their huts, and firſt inhabited them; and that in the fifth century, when the Goths and Vandals over-run Italy, ſeveral conſiderable families of Padua, Aquileia, and other neighbouring cities, obſerving the advantagious ſituation of theſe iſlands, that they could neither be approched by ſea or land by an enemy, retired hither with their effects, and laid the foundation of this great city. But my deſign being to deſcribe the ſituation, and not to enter upon the hiſtory of Venice in this place, I ſhall only obſerve further, that the water of theſe Lagunes is ſo very ſhallow, that it will not admit of veſſels but in certain channels, which are marked out with ſtakes, and which the government are at great charges in keeping clear by mills and other engines. On the ſide towards the Adriatick there is a long bank of earth, called the Lido, extending forty or fifty miles in length, which breaks the fury of the ſea, and makes theſe waters calmer in blowing weather than they would otherwiſe be: nor are there more than two or three paſſages by which the city can be approached that way; and theſe ſo difficult, that if the buoys and other ſea-marks were removed, their own pilots would find a difficulty in entring them. But were it otherwiſe, the iſlands which command thoſe ſtreights might eaſily be put into ſuch a poſture of defence, as to bid defiance to the greateſt naval powers. And in fact it appears, that no enemy has ever been able to bring a fleet of men of war before the city ſince it was founded, and thoſe who have endeavoured it, have periſhed in the attempt. They have this farther advantage againſt a land-army, that their waters are never frozen hard enough in winter to bear a conſiderable weight; ſo that if any place in Europe may be ſtiled impregnable, it is this: and if we ſhould ſuppoſe an enemy ſtrong enough, to block them up by ſea and land, it would be difficult to ſtarve them, there being ſhoals of fiſh continually paſſing through their very ſtreets. Nor is Venice more admired for it's ſtrength than beauty: To ſee one of the fineſt towns in the univerſe riſing out of the waters, it's magnificent palaces and lofty towers appearing in full view, on which ſide ſoever you approach it; no trees, or even walls, to interrupt the ſight, but the houſes on the outſide of the town, waſhed with the flood at leaſt four feet deep, affords a moſt delightful and amazing proſpect. As for the city's ſtanding upon ſeventy-two iſlands, which is the received opinion, whether there were at firſt that number of ſmall iſlands, confederated together for their common defence, which might give occaſion to this ſurmize, or whatever other foundation it might have, it is evident, that at preſent there are not leſs than two hundred iſlands in Venice, if every part of the town is eſteemed ſuch, which is divided from the reſt by canals. The town is of an irregular figure, rather long than broad, and divided in two parts by the grand canal, which runs the whole length of it, in the form of an S. The circumference is by ſome ſaid to be five, and by others about eight miles, and both of them poſſibly in the right; for it may be eight miles, if we take in all the windings of the buildings, though I am ſatisfied it is but five, if we leave them out. The number of the people is no leſs controverted, than the dimenſions of the place; ſome making them 130,000, and others 300,000; the firſt ſeem to come neareſt the truth.

Canals and bridges.

The canals are ſo numerous, that one may go to almoſt any part of the city by water, as well as by land; and there are no leſs than four hundred and fifty bridges, all of them built of ſtone, by which the ſeveral parts of the town have an eaſy communication.

The Rialto.

The principal bridge, called the Rialto, lies over the middle of the grand canal, and is compoſed of one arch, which makes one third of a circle, there being ninety feet from one extremity of the arch to the other, and conſequently the arch is near twenty-four feet in height. It is very ſolidly built of large ſquare ſtones, being a coarſe ſort of white marble, and has rails on each ſide: there are two rows of ſhops in the middle, which divide it into three ſtreets, the broadeſt in the middle, and the other two between the rails and the back-ſides of the ſhops. The reſt of the bridges have no rails, and being built with a white ſtone, hard and ſlippery, makes the paſſage of them very unſafe; at leaſt, ſays Mr ADDISON, it would be ſo to a people leſs ſober than the Italians. There are not keys on each ſide of every canal where people may walk, but frequently the canal takes up all the ſpace from one ſide of the ſtreet to the other.

Streets.

The ſtreets which have no canals in them are very narrow and crooked, which makes it extremely difficult for a ſtranger to find his way to any part of the town by land.

The piazza of St MARK.

The piazza of St MARK is eſteemed the glory of Venice, as well for it's extent, as for the magnificence of the buildings about it. The fine church of St MARK fronts one part of it, and that of St GEMIMAN the other; and the procuraties, where the lawyers reſide, being uniform ſtately fabricks, adorned with large marble portico's and baſs-reliefs, run on each ſide of it. The length of this ſquare is two hundred and fourſcore paces, and the breadth an hundred and ten. And on the right hand, going up towards St MARK's, is another ſquare, extending as far as the ſea, two hundred and fifty paces long, and eighty broad; the palace of the Doge lies on one ſide of it, and the procuraties are continued on the other.

The Broglio.

This is called the Broglio, where the nobility and ſenators meet and walk every day, before they aſſemble in their reſpective councils. They ſometimes chuſe one ſide of the ſquare, and ſometimes the other, according as the weather ſerves; but which part ſoever they take up, none of an inferior rank are permitted to come on the ſame ſide. Theſe piazza's alſo ſerve as an Exchange, where the merchants of the ſeveral nations here tranſact their affairs.

Buildings.

The houſes which make the beſt appearance are upon the grand canal, as the palaces of Moroſini, Loredano, Grimani, Cornaro, Vandramino, &c. Theſe are noble lofty ſtructures, the fronts of marble, or other hewn ſtone, and adorned with pillars of the ſeveral orders of architecture. But notwithſtanding they have ſo beautiful an outſide, the nice Dr BURNET did not at all approve their contrivance; he ſays, they have nothing convenient, the architecture is almoſt all the ſame, one ſtair-caſe, a hall that runs along the body of the houſe, and chambers on both hands; but there are no apartments, no cloſets, or back ſtairs; ſo that in houſes of an exceſſive coſtlineſs, they have yet no ſort of convenience. The flooring, according to Mr ADDISON, is a kind of red plaiſter, made of brick ground to powder, and afterwards worked into mortar; it is rubbed with oil, and makes a ſmooth ſhining and beautiful ſurface.

Furniture.

The furniture is not commonly very rich, if we except the pictures, which are here in greater plenty than in any other place of Europe, done by the beſt maſters, ſuch as TITIAN, PAUL VERONESE, and TINTORET, the laſt of whom is of greater eſteem at Venice, than in other parts of Italy. The rooms are generally hung with gilt leather, which they cover with tapeſtry on extraordinary occaſions, or with other hangings of greater value. Their bedſteads are of iron, to prevent the vermin lodging in them, and the bottoms of boards, on which they lay ſo many mattreſſes, that it is a large ſtep up to them. The ſtreets are paved with brick or free ſtone, and kept very neat, there being no horſes or carriages, or ſo much as a chair that paſſes thro' them; they have almoſt every where the convenience of the water, and go by gondola's or boats from one place to another.

Gondola's

In the middle of the veſſel the paſſengers ſit covered, as in a coach, with glaſſes on every ſide: the gondolier rows ſtanding, with his face the ſame way he goes. All the gondola's are painted black, and the cabbin in the middle covered with black cloth or ſtuff, by an order of the State; except thoſe of foreigners, and particularly the gondola's of Ambaſſadors, which are very large, and finely painted, carved, and gilded; in theſe they make their publick entries, and they are eſteemed equal to ſo many coaches and ſix. The common gondola's may be hired by the hour, or from place to place, and a good one may be had for five or ſix ſhillings a day. It is computed there are not leſs than ten or twelve thouſand of them plying upon the canals of Venice; beſides which

Bad water.

which, all the nobility and people of condition have two or three a-piece of their own, every one of them large enough to hold five or ſix perſons at leaſt. This city is ſaid to contain ſeventy pariſhes, thirty monaſteries, and about as many nunneries; two hundred palaces fit for the entertainment of Princes, a great many ſtatues of braſs and marble, and ſeveral publick fountains; but their water is generally bad, they are furniſhed with what they drink, from the continent, or from their ciſterns of rain-water.

Publick buildings.

StMark's church.

Moſaick work deſcribed.

The publick buildings moſt admired are, firſt, the church of St Mark, which is properly the Doge's chapel: it is built after the Greek faſhion, almoſt ſquare, and covered by ſeveral domes or cupola's, of which the largeſt is in the middle, the whole ſupported by thirty-ſix marble pillars, three foot diameter each. The outſide and inſide alſo are of excellent marble, and the frontiſpiece adorned with pillars of porphyry and jaſper. There are four brazen horſes over the gate of exquiſite workmanſhip, ſaid to have belonged antiently to the chariot of the ſun, and an ornament to a triumphal arch, which the Senate of Rome erected for Nero, after his victory over the Parthians. This church is not lofty, and ſomething too dark; but the vaſt quantity of moſaick work, with which both the roof and pavement are adorned, render it one of the greateſt curioſities in Italy. This moſaick work conſiſts of pictures formed with little inlaid pieces of wood, ſtone, ivory, enamel, or any other matter, in which they will imitate nature to a miracle. They ſhew here a red ſtone, on which the Emperor Frederick Barbaroſſa laid his head, when Pope Alexander III, trod on his neck, with this inſcription, viz. *Super Aſpidem & Baſiliſcum ambulabis.* A late writer obſerves, that the moſaick work on the walls has laſted more than ſix hundred years, without the leaſt diminution of it's beauty: and in the pavement ſeveral large pieces remain entire, which are compoſed of little pieces of jaſper, porphyry, ſerpentine, and marble of ſeveral colours.

The treaſury.

From this church ſtrangers are led into the treaſury belonging to it, which is never opened but in the preſence of one of the procurators of St Mark, who are the guardians of it. They are firſt ſhewn abundance of precious relicks; ſuch as pieces of the croſs, the hair and milk of the virgin, &c. And in another room abundance of real treaſure, great part of which was brought from Conſtantinople, when the Venetians were maſters of that city: as the crowns of Candia and Cyprus, ſet thick with precious ſtones; armour of beaten gold, enriched with jewels of a prodigious value; veſſels of agate, cryſtal, and entire emeralds; four carbuncles, the leaſt weighing ſix ounces, and a ſapphire of ten ounces; a picture of St Jerome in fine moſaick; a mitre with a great carbuncle on the top of it, which belonged to Conſtantine, and innumerable other valuable curioſities; inſomuch that Dr Burnet ſays, he never ſaw ſo great a treaſure amaſſed together in any other place.

The Doge's palace.

After this, foreigners are ſhewn the duke's palace, which has a very magnificent front, beautified with a multitude of marble pillars of the ſeveral orders; and if the other three ſides were anſwerable to it, 'tis ſaid, there would not be a finer fabrick in Europe; but theſe have a mean appearance. In the chamber of the college there is admirably painted on the roof, Jupiter darting thunderbolts, by Paul Veroneſe. In another room, a deſcription of all the cities the Venetians poſſeſs on Terra firma, and eleven fine ſtatues of Emperors. In the great council chamber, which is an hundred and fifty foot long, and ſeventy-three broad, Paul Veroneſe and Tintoret have exerciſed their utmoſt ſkill. The principal pieces are, the battles of the Venetians; the ſiege of Conſtantinople; their wars with the State of Genoa; the hiſtory of Pope Alexander III, treading on the neck of the Emperor Frederick Barbaroſſa, and a repreſentation of Paradiſe, eſteemed the beſt picture in Venice.

The cathedral and other churches.

The patriarchal church is dedicated to St Peter di Caſtello; but travellers have not thought fit to give us a particular deſcription of it any further than to acquaint us, that it is large, and the front deſerves to be taken notice of for it's beautiful ſimplicity; that the great altar was erected by the Senate, in purſuance of a vow they made, during a war with the Turks, anno 1649, and is dedicated to the bleſſed Lorenzo, whoſe body lies near it, in a noble marble tomb, ſupported by angels and apoſtles. What ſeems particular to the city of Venice, is, their dedicating their churches to ſaints who lived before the Chriſtian diſpenſation; as to St Job, St Moſes, Samuel, Jeremy, and Daniel. The churches moſt admired for their architecture, are, thoſe of St George and Della Salute, which far exceed St Mark's, as well as the cathedral, in this reſpect.

The arſenal.

The arſenal of Venice is another curioſity, which travellers ſeem to think can never be ſufficiently admired: they relate, that there are arms for an hundred thouſand foot, and twenty-five thouſand horſe, with other neceſſary accoutrements for them, two thouſand four hundred pieces of cannon, &c. which I find far exceeds the truth. Mr Addiſon gives another account of it: he ſays, the arſenal is an iſland of three miles in circumference, which contains all the ſtores and proviſions of war, which are not actually employed; and here are the docks for their gallies and men of war, moſt of them full, as well as work-houſes for all land and naval preparations: that the magazine of arms makes a great ſhow, and was indeed very extraordinary about an hundred years ago; but at preſent a great part of it's furniture is grown uſeleſs. There ſeem to be almoſt as many ſuits of armour as there are guns; the ſwords are old-faſhioned and unwieldy in a very great number; and the fire arms fitted with locks of little convenience, in compariſon of thoſe that are now in uſe. The Venetians pretend they can ſet out, in caſe of great neceſſity, thirty men of war, a hundred gallies, and ten galeaſſes; but he could not conceive how they could man a fleet of half that number.

Perſons and habits of the men.

The Venetian nobility and gentry are admired, as well for their perſons, as genteel behaviour. When I came from France to Venice, ſays a certain traveller, I came from boys to men: here I ſaw walking upon the piazza of St Mark every day, five hundred gentlemen at leaſt; proper handſome men, with gravity and wiſdom in their looks, any of them fit to act the part of an Ambaſſador. They wear a little light cap, turned up with a kind of black fringe, and a long black gown of Paduan cloth, as their laws require (tho' I am very well aſſured they procure Engliſh cloth if they can clandeſtinely) and under their gowns, which fly open in ſummer, they have handſome black ſilk ſuits; their ſhoes and ſtockings are extremely neat; they wear long perukes, and uſually carry their caps in their hands; they line their gowns with furs in the winter, and girt them cloſe about them.

Of the women.

The women are well-ſhaped and beautiful, witty, and of an agreeable converſation, and endeavour to improve their complexions with waſhes and paint. Thoſe of quality are ſo immoderately fond of being tall, that ſome of them wear ſhoes with the heels above a foot high; inſomuch that they are forced to have two people to ſupport them when they walk, and appear much taller than their huſbands, whenever they do appear, but that is mighty ſeldom, moſt commonly at church, where they are ſo veiled that very little of their faces are ſeen. In the gondola's they are ſhut up cloſe, and have always two old women to attend them. Thoſe of an inferior rank alſo are covered with a veil or ſcarf, when they go abroad, and open no more of it than to ſee their way: nor do theſe go out often, the men buying in all proviſions, and doing whatever is to be done without doors. As for virgins, they are ſent to nunneries in their infancy, and never come out till they are married, or take the veil. They ſeldom ſee the man they are to have till the hour they are married; and their friends concern themſelves about nothing more than the wealth and quality of the perſon they are to marry.

Concubinage allowed here.

The uſe of concubines is ſo much countenanced here, that the wife generally lives in a good correſpondence with them. The ladies are ſo indulgent to their ſons, that as ſoon as they obſerve in any of them an inclination for the fair ſex, they bargain with ſome of their poor neighbours for one of their daughters to be his bed-fellow: whereby they prevent his marrying to diſadvantage, or contracting a nauſeous diſtemper by cohabiting with common women. The friends and relations of the girl who is to be the young gentleman's miſtreſs, come frequently to wiſh her joy upon the occaſion, as if ſhe was really married to him. They contract for a month, a year, or more, as they can agree; and you ſhall hear a mother ſwear by God, and upon her ſalvation, that ſhe cannot afford to take leſs for her daughter than ſhe aſks. This commerce is taken to be ſo little criminal here, that they ſcarce ever mention it in confeſſion; and if they do, the prieſt tells them he will not be troubled with ſuch trifles. A late writer adds, that thoſe who cannot afford to keep a miſs for their particular uſe, join with two or three friends, and have one in common amongſt them. That there are whole ſtreets of wenches who receive all comers; and as the habits of other people are black and diſmal, theſe dreſs in the gayeſt colours, with their breaſts open, and their faces painted enough to mire a horſe, in the phraſe of a certain poet, ſtanding by dozens, at the doors and windows, to invite their cuſtomers.

As to the wives of Venice, if we are to credit Dr **Burnet**, they are bred up in ſo much ignorance, and converſe ſo little, that they know nothing but the dull ſuperſtition of holy-days, in which they ſtay in the churches as long as they can, and ſo prolong the little liberty they have of going abroad on thoſe days, as children do their hours of play. They are not employed in domeſtick affairs, and generally underſtand no ſort of work, but are the inſipideſt creatures imaginable: which does not ſeem to agree with what other travellers relate of the wit and ſprightly converſation of the Venetian women; unleſs we are to underſtand it wholly of common women, whom the Doctor perhaps would inſinuate, have ingroſſed all good ſenſe. But he ſurely does not ſpeak this from his own experience, any more than what follows, namely, That the married women do not wait the uſual forms of courtſhip, but deſcend at once to downright lewdneſs with their gallants; the firſt ſtep with them, without any preamble or preparative, is conſummation.

Diverſions.

As to the entertainments and diverſions of the men, Mr **Addison** obſerves, that though they live in a very moiſt air, drinking is not at all in faſhion with them; nor have they any ſuch amuſements as bowling, hunting, walking, riding, or other exerciſes to employ them without doors. At the carnival, a time devoted to pleaſure, the great diverſion of the place, as at all other times of rejoicing, is maſquerading: the Venetians, who are naturally grave, however give in to the follies and extravagancies of ſuch ſeaſons, diſguiſed in a falſe perſonage. They are indeed under a neceſſity of finding out diverſions that may agree with the nature of the place, and make amends for the loſs of ſeveral pleaſures which may be met with on the continent. Theſe diſguiſes give occaſion to abundance of love-adventures; for according to my author, there is ſomething more intriguing in the amours of Venice than in thoſe of other countries. Opera's are another principal entertainment at this ſeaſon; but the poetry of them is generally as bad as the muſick is exquiſitely good: the ſubject is generally ſome celebrated action of the antient Greeks or Romans, which often looks ridiculous enough, as when you hear one of the rough old Romans ſqueaking through the mouth of an eunuch. But the Italian poets, beſides the celebrated ſmoothneſs of their language, have a particular advantage above the writers of other nations, in the difference of their poetical and proſe language; for they have not only ſome phraſes and ſentences peculiar to poets, as in other countries, but a multitude of words never uſed in common diſcourſe: they have ſuch a different turn and poliſhing for poetical uſe, that they drop ſeveral of their letters, and appear in another form when they come to be ranged in verſe. For this reaſon the Italian opera ſeldom ſinks into a poorneſs of language; but amidſt all the meanneſs and familiarity of the thoughts, has ſomething beautiful and ſonorous in the expreſſion. Without this natural advantage of the tongue, their preſent poetry would appear wretchedly low and vulgar, notwithſtanding the many ſtrained allegories that are ſo much in uſe among the writers of this nation. The comedies my author ſaw at Venice, he tells us, were very indifferent, and more lewd than thoſe of other countries. Their poets have no notion of genteel comedy, and fall into the moſt filthy double meanings imaginable, when they would make the audience merry: four ſtanding characters enter into every piece that comes upon the ſtage; the Doctor, Harlequin, Pantaloon, and Coviello. The Doctor's character comprehends the whole extent of a pedant, that with a deep voice and a magiſterial air breaks in upon converſation, and bears down all before him; every thing he ſays is backed with quotations out of **Galen**, **Hippocrates**, **Plato**, **Virgil**, or any author that riſes uppermoſt, and all anſwers from his companions are looked upon as impertinencies and interruptions. Harlequin's part is made up of blunders, he miſtakes one name for another, forgets his errand, ſtumbles over Queens, runs his head againſt every poſt in his way, all which is attended with ſomething ſo comical in the voice and geſture, that a man who is ſenſible of the folly of the part, can hardly forbear being pleaſed with it. Pantaloon is generally an old cully, and Coviello a ſharper: all four of them appear in maſks; which cuſtom the Italians and French probably derived from the Romans; but as my author well obſerves, a maſk can never ſuit with the variety of paſſions that are incident to every ſingle perſon in the whole courſe of a play, where the turns and motions of the face are often as agreeable as any part of the action: the grimace may be proper on ſome occaſions, but is too ſteady to agree with all. The mob indeed are generally pleaſed at the firſt entry of a diſguiſe, but the jeſt grows cold even with them, when it comes on the ſtage in the ſecond ſcene. Among other ſhows exhibited to the Venetians, one is peculiar to them; where a ſet of artiſans, by the help of ſeveral poles, which they lay croſs each other's ſhoulders, build themſelves up into a kind of pyramid, ſo that you ſee a pile of men in the air of four or five ſtories riſing one above another: the weight is ſo equally diſtributed, that every man is able to bear his part of it, the ſtories growing leſs and leſs as they advance higher and higher; a little boy repreſents the point of the pyramid, who after a ſhort ſpace leaps off with a great deal of dexterity into the arms of one that catches him at bottom, and in the ſame manner the whole building falls to pieces.

Another diverſion during the carnival, is gaming in places, called the *Ridotti*, which are apartments in the noblemen's houſes, where none but noblemen keep the bank; they diſmiſs the gameſters when they pleaſe, and always come off winners. There are uſually ten or twelve chambers on a floor with gaming-tables in them, and very great crouds of people; a profound ſilence however is obſerved, and none are admitted without maſks; here you meet ladies of pleaſure, and married women of quality, who under the protection of a maſk enjoy all the diverſions of the carnival, but are uſually attended by the huſband, or his ſpies. Beſides theſe gaming-rooms, there are others for converſation, where wine, lemonade, and ſweatmeats are ſold: here the gentlemen are at liberty to rally and addreſs the ladies, but muſt take care to keep within the bounds of decency, or they may meet with a ſevere reſentment from the injured huſbands, who too often employ bravoes or aſſaſſins to procure them ſatisfaction, as 'tis called, for affronts of this kind; but theſe practices are not ſo common as formerly, the State having in a manner extirpated this race of villains. The croud of maſqueraders is often ſo great in the piazza of St MARK, that there is no paſſing; a man may take upon himſelf what character he pleaſes, ſo he be qualified to act the part he aſſumes. The Harlequins frequently meet, and are exceedingly witty upon one another; the Doctors diſpute; and thus every man endeavours to ſupport the character he has taken upon him. Thoſe who only deſire to be ſpectators, take the habit af Noblemen. The common people divert themſelves chiefly with the rope-dancers, juglers, fortune-tellers, &c. who have their ſeveral ſtages in the ſquare; there are alſo bull-baitings, races of gondola's, and a multitude of other diverſions, too tedious to enumerate.

Inconveniencies of Venice.

Among the inconveniencies of Venice, the want of good cellars for their wine is one, which occaſions it's turning ſour; the badneſs of their water is a ſecond; and the ſtench of ſome of their canals in the heat of ſummer a third; from whence it is eaſy to conclude the air is none of the beſt. Firing alſo is ſcarce; and they have hardly earth enough to bury their dead; conſequently they have few fine gardens, courts, or ſquares, which are ſo great an ornament to other cities.

The iſland and town of Murano.

The iſland of Murano is ſituated about two miles north-eaſt of Venice, and is one of the largeſt and pleaſanteſt iſlands in the Lagunes; the chief town is of the ſame name. Here was the famous manufacture of Venice glaſs, which brought in a conſiderable profit to the republick, before other nations learnt the art; but they are now equalled, if not excelled, by the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, who uſed to take it off their hands.

Malamocco town and iſland.

Malamocco is an iſland two miles from Venice, conſiderable for it's harbour, and for lying upon one of the narrow channels, which leads from the Adriatick ſea to Venice; it has a town of the ſame name, formerly the See of a Biſhop, but having been removed by earthquakes and inundations, the See was removed to Chiozza.

Chiozza city and iſland.

Chiozza, or Chioggia, is ſituated in a little iſland on the coaſt of the Dogado, about fourteen miles ſouth of Venice, remarkable for little but it's being a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Venice, and for a battle fought near it between the Genoeſe and Venetians.

Torcello city and iſland.

Torcello is a ſmall city, on an iſland of the ſame name, ſix or ſeven miles north of Venice, conſiderable for little elſe but the being a Biſhop's See.

Caorle city and iſland.

Caorle, olim *Caprulæ*, is a little city, in an iſland of the ſame name, the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Venice, in a very bad air, as moſt of theſe iſlands are upon this coaſt.

Grado city and iſland.

The city of Grado ſtands upon an iſland of the ſame name, about forty-five miles north-eaſt of Venice, and ten miles ſouth of Aquileia, called *New Aquileia*, on the deſtruction of that city by the goths, and was for a conſiderable time the ſeat of the Patriarch of Aquileia, but the Biſhop of this See is now ſuffragan to Venice.

Fuſine.

Fuſine is a little town on the continent, five miles to the weſtward of Venice, where people take water to go to that city.

The Paduan.

The ſecond province I propoſed to deſcribe was the Paduan, antiently inhabited by the *Veneti*, being bounded by the Treviſan on the north; by the Dogado or duchy of Venice towards the eaſt; by the Poleſin on the ſouth; and by the Vicentin towards the weſt; being about thirty-five miles in length and thirty in breadth. This country, on account of it's fertility, and delightful ſituation, has obtained the name of the garden of Italy, and the terreſtrical paradiſe.

Chief towns, &c.

It's chief towns are, 1. Padua. 2. Abano. 3. Arqua. 4. Montſelice. 5. Eſte. 6. Anguilura. 7. Campo St Pietro. And, 8. Citadella.

Padua city.

The city of Padua, olim *Patavium*, ſtands in a pleaſant plain, watered by the rivers Brent and Bachilio, about two and twenty miles to the weſtward of Venice; the form almoſt circular, held to be a town of great antiquity, and according to tradition, built above four hundred years before the city of Rome: it has been one of the moſt flouriſhing cities of Italy, but at preſent half the ground within the walls is not built upon, and great part of the houſes that are left are uninhabited; though the walls, 'tis true, take up the ſame ground they did in the time of the

Romans, when, as their hiſtorians relate, this city was able to raiſe an hundred thouſand men; at this day all the ſouls in the place ſcarce amount to thirty thouſand. The air is good, and there is plenty of every thing; and the falling palaces are ſufficient indications of it's antient grandeur. What does Dr Burnet, and other travellers mean, therefore, in crying up the mild and happy government of the Venetians, when under all the natural advantages imaginable, the people ſubject to them are reduced to the extremeſt poverty, and the fineſt cities in their territories are fallen to decay, during a long uninterrupted peace; when no general calamity, either war, plague, or famine, has afflicted them for many years? Theſe writers do to a man lament the miſeries of theſe unhappy people, and yet are perpetually commending the wiſdom and lenity of the adminiſtration they live under, which to me ſeems a manifeſt contradiction; nor can I aſſign any other reaſon for it, but that having laid it down as an inconteſtable maxim, that a republican form of government is much the happieſt, and moſt beneficial to mankind; and the Venetian being a republick, if they ſhould acknowledge the tyranny and oppreſſion of that State, it would bear hard upon their favourite maxim, and induce people to have better thoughts of monarchy: for they themſelves can't but acknowledge that at Turin, at Milan, and even at Rome itſelf, where the government is monarchical, there is a much greater appearance of wealth and proſperity. But to be a little more particular in the deſcription of Padua; the ſtreets are narrow, and the buildings being lofty, the lower rooms are conſequently dark: a double piazza runs along moſt of the ſtreets, and there are abundance of magnificent palaces, inhabited by a numerous, but half-ruined nobility; occaſioned, 'tis ſaid, in a great meaſure by purſuing their revenge againſt each other from generation to generation. For as there are continual quarrels and factions amongſt them, and ſometimes perſons killed in theſe unnatural diſputes, the government puniſhes thoſe who were concerned in them with the confiſcation of part of their eſtates, raiſing thereby conſiderable ſums; while they empoveriſh their unhappy ſubjects, without endeavouring to ſuppreſs theſe feuds entirely, as well on account of the profit which ariſes from them to the State, as becauſe they are leſs apprehenſive of a revolt, while the nobility of the conquered provinces remain at variance. But how wiſe ſoever this conduct may ſeem in the Venetians, it is ſurely very barbarous; nor am I perfectly convinced of the wiſdom of it, ſince theſe deſtructions have occaſioned many of the trading and moſt wealthy inhabitants to leave the place. For the like reaſons, 'tis ſaid, the Venetians encourage the ſcholars of the Univerſity to inſult and abuſe the townſmen here, and even to murder them in the ſtreets in the night-time. Theſe young gentlemen, to ſhew they are ſuperior to all laws and magiſtrates, arm themſelves every evening, attacking thoſe they meet with in the ſtreets, wounding ſome, and killing others; and ſometimes when two parties of them have met, they have fired at each other from piazza to piazza, till many of them have loſt their lives: and the Univerſity has in a manner loſt it's reputation by theſe diſorders; for of ten colleges that it conſiſted of, there is not now above one left, the other nine being appropriated to other uſes; which has had this one good effect however, that the ſtreets are not ſo dangerous in an evening as they were formerly: the *Qui va li*, or, Who goes there? in which words they uſed to challenge the townſmen, is very little dreaded at preſent.

The manufacture of cloth here brought in a great revenue to the State formerly, and is not inconſiderable at this time; but the Engliſh finding means to furniſh the quality of Venice with better cloth clandeſtinely, few of the nobility wear any thing elſe, notwithſtanding the magiſtrate of the pomps is obliged by his office to ſee that no body wears the cloth of a foreign country. The fields about Padua afford the beſt corn in Italy, and the neighbouring hills the beſt oil and wine, with a vaſt variety of delicious fruits; the air and water, as hath been obſerved, is equally good; and yet all this affluence cannot render the people happy: they are ſtill miſerable, through the tyranny of the government, which is here adminiſtered by a Podeſta and Capitaneo, the former having the civil, and the other the military power committed to him. The Biſhop has the eccleſiaſtical government, who is ſuffragan to the Patriarch of Aquileia.

The publick buildings beſt worth ſeeing at Padua are, 1. The town-hall, where their courts of juſtice are held, the dimenſions whereof are ſaid to be equal to thoſe of Weſtminſter-Hall, but with this advantage, that the roof is finely painted with aſtronomical figures: in it are ſeveral magnificent tombs, and among them one erected to the memory of the celebrated Livy the hiſtorian, who was a native of this place; but whether he was buried in this city is very uncertain; all the evidence they have for it, is an old leaden coffin, which was dug up in the year 1413, without any inſcription on it, the people were pleaſed to think it the remains of Livy, and in honour to him built the above-mentioned tomb. There is another monument in this hall taken notice of by travellers, as equally worth obſervation, and that is the tomb of the Marchioneſs of Obizzi, eſteemed a ſecond Lucretia. It ſeems a gentleman of Padua being paſſionately in love with her, found means to get into her chamber when ſhe was a-bed, and the Marquis her huſband abſent; and having, as 'tis preſumed, firſt tried what courtſhip would do before he proceeded to acts of violence, at length enraged at her refuſal to comply, ſtabbed the young lady to the heart. When ſhe was firſt ſurprized by the murtherer, her only ſon, of about five years old, was in bed with her, but the child was afterwards found in an adjoining chamber, whither 'tis ſuppoſed he carried him before he perpetrated this piece of villany. The lady being found dead, the gentleman was apprehended, it being known that he had an inclination for her, and one of the buttons of his ſleeve found in the bed, the Marchioneſs's young ſon alſo confirmed his having been in the room with his mother: upon which ſtrong preſumptions, he was put to the torture both ordinary and extraordinary; ſtill he perſiſted to deny the fact; and after fifteen years impriſonment his friends procured his liberty; but it was not many months after that the young Marquis (the child who was in the room when the murderer ſurprized his mother) ſhot him through the head with a piſtol, and then went into the Emperor's ſervice, where he continued ſo lately as the year 1712.

The church of St Anthony of Padua, (or rather of Liſbon, for he was a Franciſcan Monk of that city) is a very large ſtructure, adorned with ſeveral fine pieces of painting and ſculpture, and many beautiful monuments. The painting in Freſco in the chapel of St Fælix is inimitable, done by the famous Giotto, who excelled in that kind of work. But what is moſt remarkable in this church, is the the chapel of St Anthony, the protector of Padua, whom by way of eminence they ſtile *Il Santo*. His body lies under the altar, which is exceeding rich, and the whole chapel is lined with baſs-reliefs of white marble, repreſenting the principal miracles of St Anthony; and nine and thirty large ſilver lamps burn night and day round the altar. There are abundance of inſcriptions and pictures hung up by his votaries in the church, his aid being more implored in Lombardy than that of any other Saint in their diſtreſſes, and if they happen to eſcape the evil they dreaded, they hang up ſome inſcription or picture to commemorate the deliverance, eſteeming it to be miraculous. Thus the beauty of ſome Popiſh churches is ſpoiled, the walls being hung with wretched daubings and impertinent inſcriptions, or with legs and arms of wax, &c. reſembling the part affected and offered to the Saint. Among the ſtories we find in baſs-relief in the chapel of St Anthony, the moſt remarkable is his preaching to an aſſembly of fiſhes, which he had drawn together towards the ſea-ſhore to hear him, which is a very edifying diſcourſe, but a little too long to be inſerted in this place; I ſhall only obſerve, that at the concluſion of it the grateful fiſhes, as if they had been endowed with reaſon, bowed their heads with the moſt profound humility and devotion, ſeeming to approve the ſermon; which miracle occaſioned the converſion of many obſtinate hereticks, that nothing could prevail on before: whereupon the Saint gave his benediction to the fiſhes, and diſmiſſed them. This puts me in mind of the ſermon that was preached by one of our ſectaries to a flock of ſheep, for which he apprehended he had a ſufficient warrant from that command of our Saviour's, requiring his diſciples to preach to every creature.

The church of St Justina, deſigned by the celebrated Palladio, is, according to Mr Addison, the handſomeſt, the moſt luminous, and diſincumbred building on the inſide, that is to be met with, and eſteemed by artiſts one of the fineſt pieces of architecture in Italy. The long Nef conſiſts of a row of five cupola's, the croſs one has on each ſide a ſingle cupola, deeper and broader than the others. The martyrdom of St Justina, which hangs over the altar, was done by the famous Paul Veronese, and is an exquiſite piece of workmanſhip; and there are beſides, twenty-four other fine marble altars; but they will not ſuffer any monuments to be erected here, which might ſpoil the beauty of the whole. The baſſo-relievo in the choir is admirable, repreſenting the prophecies of the Old Teſtament relating to our Saviour, with their accompliſhment in the New. The monaſtery to which this church belongs is one of the fineſt in Italy, where they pretend to have an image of the virgin, which flew from Conſtantinople when it was taken by the Turks. The univerſity, to which phyſicians chiefly reſort, is very much upon the decline, as has been obſerved already. Here are two ſocieties of Virtuoſi, as in other Italian cities, who employ themſelves in the improvement of their language, and other ingenious ſtudies. There are the ruins of an amphitheatre here, which appears to have been larger than that of Verona. And it would be eſteemed an unpardonable fault by ſome, if I ſhould conclude the deſcription of Padua, without taking notice of the tradition, that this city was founded by Antenor and a colony of his Trojans.

Abano. Abano, is a village about five miles ſouth-weſt of Padua, famous for it's hot and medicinal waters, which are ſo hot that the natives ſcald their hogs in them. They are full of white ſalt, which coagulates upon the ſurface, and are uſed for bathing as well as drinking.

Eſte. Eſte is an antient town, at the foot of the mountains, about twelve miles ſouth of Padua, from whence the family of D'Este, now Dukes, of Modena, take their name. The reſt of the towns in the Paduan do not require a particular deſcription.

The Poleſin de Rovigo. The Poleſin de Rovigo is bounded by the Paduan on the north, the Dogado of Venice on the eaſt, the duchy of Ferrara on the ſouth, and the Veroneſe on the weſt; and is about fifty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty in breadth from north to ſouth; a country fruitful in corn and paſture, and watered by the rivers Po, Adige, and Adigeſto; the chief towns whereof are Rovigo and Adria. Chief towns.

Rovigo city. Rovigo is a well-built little town, ſituated on the Adigeſto; twenty miles to the ſouthward of Padua, the reſidence of the Biſhop of Adria; but not conſiderable, as I can learn, on any other account.

Adria. Adria, or Hadria, twelve miles to the eaſtward of Rovigo, and as much to the weſtward of the gulph of Venice, once a famous city, and a colony of the Tuſcans, and gave name, as 'tis ſaid, to the Adriatick Sea, being a commodious harbour when Pliny wrote, but now a miſerable village, almoſt under water, and inhabited only by fiſhermen.

The Veroneſe. The Veroneſe is bounded by the Trentin on the north; by the Paduan and Vicentin towards the eaſt; by the Mantuan on the ſouth; and by the Breſcian on the weſt; being about forty miles in length from north to ſouth, and thirty in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It is well watered by the Adige and the lake de Garda, which ſupply them with excellent fiſh; and the country abounds in corn, wine, oil, ſilk, wool, and cattle; and they have ſome quarries of marble, with an agreeable variety of hills and vallies, plains and encloſures. The air is healthful, but the neighbourhood of the mountains renders it very ſharp in the winter. The chief towns are, 1. Verona. 2. Peſchiera. And, 3. Garda.

Verona. Verona, the capital city, is pleaſantly ſituated, partly on a hill and partly in a plain, on the river Adige, which divides it in two parts, being fifty miles to the weſtward of Padua, and twenty-five to the northward of Mantua. It is fortified after the modern way, and defended by three forts, two upon the hill, and one by the river-ſide; and is about ſix miles in circumference, beſides the ſuburbs, which are very large. Both parts of the town have a communication by four ſtone bridges over the Adige, one of which is much admired for it's beauty. There are ſeveral noble palaces, publick buildings, and antiquities, which well deſerve a traveller's attention here; but the generality of the houſes are low, the ſtreets ſome of them unpaved, and not very cleanly; neither is the town rich or populous, having but an indifferent trade. The cathedral has little to

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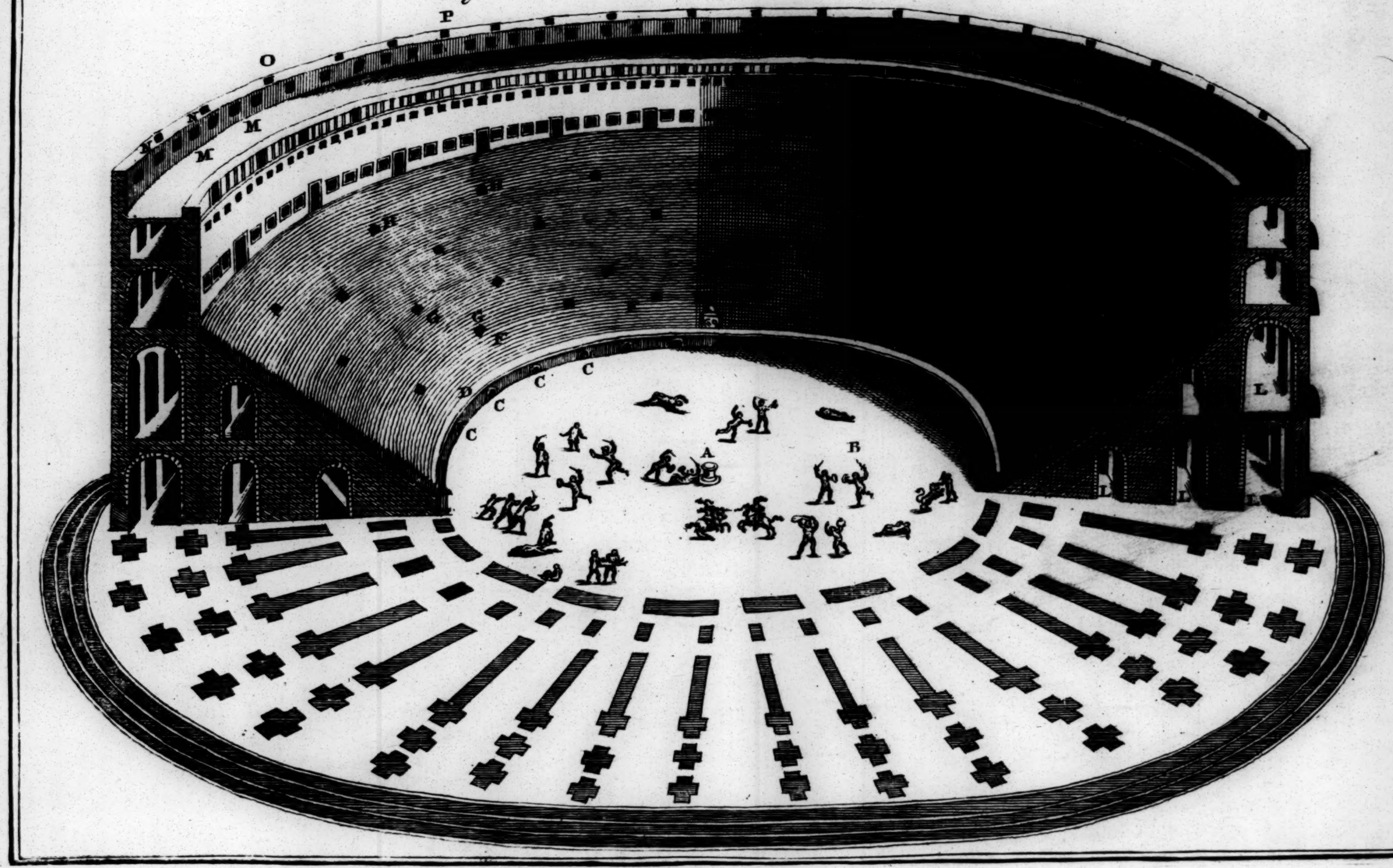
The Inside of the Amphitheatre at Verona.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to recommend it, unleſs the tomb of Pope LUCIUS III, whoſe epitaph is no more than this, *Oſſa Lucii* III. *Roma pulſus invidia.* For it ſeems he was driven from Rome, and died here in the year 1185. There are however ſeveral magnificent churches in the place, travellers acquaint us, but have not taken the pains to deſcribe them; particularly that famous piece of antiquity, the amphitheatre, ſeems to have ingroſſed their whole attention, all the ſeats whereof are ſtill entire, but the high wall and corridors that went round it, are almoſt ruined, and the area is quite filled up to the lower ſeat, which was formerly deep enough to let the ſpectators ſee in ſafety the combats of the wild beaſts and gladiators. There are in all four and forty benches, in the higheſt round of which, MISSON ſays, he counted five hundred and thirty of his paces, and in the loweſt two hundred and fifty; and it is generally agreed, that they would hold about four and twenty thouſand ſpectators. The longeſt diameter of the area, or arena, as 'tis called, is two hundred and thirty-three French feet, and the breadth or ſhorteſt diameter, an hundred and thirty-ſix feet eight Inches. Every ſtep or ſeat is near a foot and half high, and about twenty-ſix inches broad, of the ſame meaſure; tho' Dr BURNET, after his careleſs and curſory way of examining and recording things, makes every ſeat an Engliſh foot and half in breadth, and juſt as much in height, of which he pretends to have been an eye-witneſs, as he was no doubt of many facts in his poſthumous hiſtory, which are equally true. Dr BROWN obſerves, that when this fabrick was entire, the outſide was no leſs ſplendid than the inſide, being all of marble an hundred and twenty feet high, and conſiſted of three rows of pillars and arches, one above another, which opened into ſpacious walks and portico's within, quite round the building; and above theſe three rows of arches there was a handſome wall, with windows over each arch, and pilaſters over every pillar beneath: that each row conſiſted of ſeventy-two arches, and as many pillars of a great height, the upper row ſuppoſed to be adorned with ſtatues.

The amphitheatre.

Theſe magnificent ſtructures were raiſed by the Romans for the diverſion of the people, who were here entertained with combats, either between men and men, men and beaſts, or beaſts and beaſts. Thoſe between beaſts and beaſts are ſtill continued by the gentlemen of Verona in this amphitheatre; but theſe ſports were purſued with much more zeal by the antient Romans, who procured ſavage creatures from all parts of the known world to fight in theſe places. The engagements between men and beaſts were uſually performed by ſlaves, priſoners, or condemned criminals, though perſons of condition would ſometimes enter the liſts. The combats between men and men were of various kinds, ſometimes they fought on horſeback, ſometimes in chariots, and ſometimes in boats, when either the area was filled with water, or a building was provided for that purpoſe, called *Naumachia.* The naval engagement exhibited by the Emperor CLAUDIUS on the lake Fucinus is famous in hiſtory, where both fleets ſaluted the Emperor with an *Ave Cæſar, Morituri te ſalutant:* but the moſt uſual fights in the amphitheatres, were between the gladiators on foot; and theſe of various kinds, as, 1. The Retiarii, who fought with a trident in one hand and a net in the other, endeavouring to enſnare their enemies: if they failed in the attempt, they retreated ſuddenly, till they could recover themſelves and renew the engagement. Theſe gladiators fighting without any other armour than a ſhort coat of mail, and bare-faced, the people were much delighted in obſerving the convulſions in their limbs, and the alteration of their colour and features in their dying agonies. Theſe Retiarii, who acknowledged NEPTUNE for their patron, uſually engaged the Secutores, who were followers of VULCAN, and guarded themſelves with a ſhield, which they carried high to defend their heads againſt the enemies nets, and were armed alſo with a ſpear and a long ſword. Five Retiarii having thrown down their arms, and yielded to as many Secutores, the Emperor CALIGULA commanded the Secutores to kill them, which they did to the laſt man, who out of deſpair taking up his trident, killed all the five Secutores. A third ſort of gladiators were the Thraces, who were armed with a little Thracian ſhield, and a ſtrong broad-ſword, bending back like a Turkiſh cymetar. Another ſort were the Myrmillones, who fought after the manner of the Gauls, covering themſelves with an oval ſhield, and armed with a helmet with a fiſh for their creſt, and pointed ſwords, with which they puſhed the enemy with great activity. Theſe frequently engaged the Thraces, and ſometimes the Retiarii, who coming up to them with their nets, would ſing, *Non te peto, piſcem peto, quid me fugis, Galle?* Another ſort of gladiators were the Samnites, armed with ſhields flat and broad, a breaſt-plate, a helmet with a feather on the creſt, and a boot on their left leg, with offenſive arms, as deſcribed by LIVY. The Dimacheri fought with two ſwords, and the Laquearii with ſword and halter. The Meridiani were deſperate fellows, who coming in about noon, when the ſpectators were diſmiſſed, fought without any order, art, or armour. Nor were the fair ſex exempted from theſe rough encounters: they made choice of the handſomeſt young women they could find, who were taught to fight by the gladiators; and when one of theſe girls fought in the arena, with her golden ſhield and plume of feathers in her creſt, the Emperor himſelf would ſometimes cry out, *Well played, fair lady.* The Emperor DOMITIAN made the gladiators fight in the night-time, and would command even his dwarfs to engage each other. Thus far from Dr BROWN. And I am ſo far from begging the reader's pardon for this digreſſion on amphitheatres, if it be one, that I am of opinion he will be infinitely pleaſed with the relation, as I was when I met with it; and intend in this volume to give the plan of an amphitheatre, and deſcribe every particular part of it.

There is ſtill at Verona alſo the remains of a triumphal arch, which was erected in honour of MARIUS, on his victory over the Cimbri, in the territories of Verona; and the ruins of a magnificent temple dedicated to JUPITER, with abundance of other valuable antiquities: But nothing ſeems to be more admired than the cabinet of the Count DE MOSCARDO, conſiſting of a gallery and ſix other rooms, all filled with antiquities, and the greateſt curioſities in art and nature; as Pagan idols, inſtruments and utenſils for their ſacrifices, ſepulchral urns, buſts, lamps, inſcriptions, the barks of ſeveral trees which the antients uſed to write on before paper came up, two trees of black coral, pearls, amethyſts, ſapphires, and a great variety of other precious ſtones; foſſils, plants, fruits, minerals, and monſtrous productions, with numberleſs medals, and antient coins: here is alſo a vaſt collection of the fineſt paintings by the beſt hands.

Verona underwent the fate of the reſt of the cities of Italy on the decline of the Roman Empire, having been taken by the Goths and Lombards. It afterwards fell under the dominion of the emperors of the weſt, and ſince that was ſubject to the family of the SCALIGERS, ſeveral tombs of theſe Princes being ſtill to be ſeen here. The Venetians made themſelves maſters of it about the year 1403, but it was taken from them by the Imperialiſts in 1509. The Venetians recovered it again in 1516, and have ever ſince kept the poſſeſſion it, governing it by a Podeſta and Capitaneo, aſſiſted by three Councils, and other ſubordinate magiſtrates; and in eccleſiaſtical affairs it is ſubject to the Biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the Patriarch of Aquileia. Beſides PLINY the hiſtorian, already mentioned, the Poet CATULLUS, and PLINY the Naturaliſt, were born here; as were CORNELIUS NEPOS, and VITRUVIUS the famous architect.

Peſchiera.

2. Peſchiera, *olim Piſcaria*, and *Ardelica*, a little fortified town, ſituate on a little iſland formed by the river Menzo, which flows out of the lake de Garda, and is about fourteen miles north of Verona, taken from the Duke of Mantua by the Venetians about the year 1441.

Garda.

3. Garda, a ſmall city, lying on the eaſt-ſide of the lake de Garda, fifteen miles to the eaſtward of Verona. The neighbouring lake is as rough as the ſea itſelf when a ſtorm happens upon it, which is very frequently occaſioned by the guſts which come from the adjoining mountains.

Breſcia Province.

Chief towns.

The next province I am to deſcribe is the Breſcian, bounded by the country of the Griſons towards the north; by the Veroneſe on the eaſt; by the Cremoneſe on the ſouth; and by the Bergamaſco on the weſt: extending about ſixty miles in length from north to ſouth, and thirty in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The country has plenty of corn, wine, and oil, but is moſt remarkable for it's iron mines and works, it's plantations of flax, and linnen manufacture. It extends to the ſides of the Alps, and conſiſts of hills and vallies, not being ſo level as the reſt of Lombardy. The chief towns are, 1. Breſcia. 2. Deſenzano. 3. Salo. 4. Guagnano. 5. Idro. 6. Sabio. 7. Tavernola. 8. Gardone. 9. Iſco. 10. Palazuolo. 11. Chiari. 12. Pontevico. 13. Menerbio. And, 14. Calcinato.

Breſcia city.

The city of Breſcia, or Brixia, is ſituated in a plain at the foot of a mountain, on the rivers Mela and Garzo, whoſe branches run through moſt of the ſtreets, being about thirty miles to the weſtward of Verona, and thirty-five north-weſt of Mantua. It is a populous trading town, defended by a wall and other fortifications, three miles in circumference; and has alſo a citadel built upon a rock, which commands it. The ſtreets are neat, the buildings good, and amongſt them ſeveral beautiful palaces and churches. Their trade conſiſts in linnen, cheeſe, and iron-work, particularly ſwords and fire-arms, which employ abundance of armourers, held to be the beſt artiſts in Italy. It is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Milan, who has the title of Duke, Marquis, and Viſcount. The women have more liberty here than in the neighbouring cities, appearing frequently in the ſtreets and ſhops. The people of this town and province are better uſed by the Venetians than the reſt of their ſubjects; for having been once a part of the Milaneſe, and a frontier province, they might think of returning to their old maſters if they were hardly dealt with. The Governor here is both Podeſta and Captain-General, but in other Venetian cities the civil and military power is uſually lodged in different hands.

Iſco.

2. The Iſco, ſituate on a lake to which it communicates it's name, a conſiderable town of great antiquity: The neighbouring lake is about fifteen miles in length and three in breadth, the river Oglio running through it. The reſt of the towns of this province do not merit a particular deſcription.

Bergamaſco.

The Bergamaſco is bounded by the territories of the Griſons on the north; by the Breſcian on the eaſt; and by Cremaſco and the Milaneſe on the ſouth and weſt; being about forty-five miles in length from north to ſouth, and thirty in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It is for the moſt part a mountainous rocky country, but lying on the ſouth-ſide of the Alps moderately warm, and being watered with a multitude of little rivulets which fall from thence, the country is fruitful in many places. The chief towns are, 1. Bergamo. 2. Caleppio. And, 3. Cluſon.

Bergamo city.

Bergamo is a large city, ſtrongly ſituated on a hill, and defended by a caſtle, lying thirty miles to the weſtward of Breſcia, and as many to the northward of Milan, and is the See of a Biſhop ſuffragan to Milan. The town is populous and a place of good trade, the merchants of Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, reſorting thither to their annual fair with the product of their ſeveral countries. The natives are the moſt clowniſh in the Venetian dominions, and their dialect the worſt; but frequently make clever fellows when they meet with good education. This town has often changed it's maſters: It was a republick till the year 1300, about which time ſome of their leading men aſſumed the government, and it became monarchical. In 1419 it was taken by PHILIP Duke of Milan, and in 1447 they put themſelves under the protection of the Venetians, who have been in poſſeſſion of this town and province ever ſince, except that the French had it in their hands ſeven years in the reign of LEWIS XII. Here, as in all other mountainous countries upon and near the Alps, the natives are troubled with great wens or ſwellings on their throats, occaſioned, as 'tis ſaid, by their drinking ſnow-water.

The Cremaſco.

Crema.

The Cremaſco is bounded by the Breſcian on the north; by the Cremoneſe on the eaſt; and by other parts of the Milaneſe on the ſouth and weſt: extending about fifteen miles in length from north to ſouth, and ſeven in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It is a well-watered fruitful country: The only town of any note is Crema, from whence this little territory takes it's name, ſituate on the river Serio, in a pleaſant fruitful plain, about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Breſcia, and twenty north-weſt of Cremona. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, well-built, and populous, and the See of a Biſhop ſuffragan to Bologna. Their principal manufacture is that of fine linnen. It formerly belonged to the duchy of Milan.

The Vicentin.

The Vincentin is bounded by the country of Trent on the north; by the Treviſin and Paduan towards the eaſt and ſouth; and by the Cremoneſe on the ſouth-weſt; being about forty miles in length from north to ſouth, and thirty in breadth from eaſt to weſt. As this province is contiguous to the Paduan, it is equally fruitful and pleaſant; the ſoil and face of the country much the ſame, and therefore needs no further deſcription here. The chief towns are Vicenza, and Maraſtica.

Vicenza city.

The city of Vicenza, or Vincenza, is pleaſantly ſituated at the confluence of ſeveral ſmall rivers, of which the chief are the Bacchiglione and the Rerone, about twenty miles north-weſt of Padua; a populous trading city, about four miles in circumference, and conſiſting of fifteen pariſhes; the buildings beautiful, the ſquares and piazzas ſpacious; there is particularly a modern theatre built in imitation of the Roman theatres, by the famous PALLADIO, and a triumphal arch by the ſame artiſt; a magnificent town-hall, the ruins of an antient theatre, and ſome other antiquities which demonſtrate it's antient grandeur. This town coming voluntarily under the protection of the Venetians about three hundred years ago, and not by conqueſt, enjoys greater privileges than many other cities; having three councils conſiſting of the natives, who have ſome ſhare in the adminiſtration; tho' here alſo is a Podeſta and Captain-General, as in the reſt of the Venetian governments. The chief manufacture of the place is ſilk. The gardens of Count VALARANO, according to Dr BURNET, are as well worth ſeeing as any thing in the town, wherein he ſeems to be mightily pleaſed with a noble alley of oranges and citrons, ſome as big as a man's body, but affords us no further deſcription of them. It is a Biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Aquileia.

Treviſana marquiſate.

I come now to the marquiſate of Treviſana or Trevigiano, bounded by the Feltrin and Belluneſe on the north; by Friuli and the duchy of Venice on the eaſt; by the Paduan on the ſouth; and the Vicentin on the weſt. The chief towns are, 1. Treviſo. 2. Caſtel Franco. 3. Coalto. 4. Conegliano. 5. Cenada. And, 6. Saravalle.

Treviſo city.

Treviſo, or Trevigno, is ſituated on a riſing ground, in a large plain near the river Sile, fifteen miles north-weſt of Venice; a well-built populous place; and formerly the reſidence of the Marquiſſes of Lombardy, from whence it obtained the name of the Marquiſate.

The Feltrin.

The Feltrin is ſometimes reckoned part of the marquiſate, and lies to the northward of Treviſana Proper. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Feltri. 2. Romegno. And, 3. Vedana.

Feltri city.

Feltri, or Feltro, is ſituated on the river Aſo, twenty-five miles north-weſt of Treviſo; and is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Aquileia. The Venetians have been in the poſſeſſion of it above three hundred years.

The Belluneſe.

Belluno city.

The Belluneſe is alſo frequently deemed part of the marquiſate, being a little diſtrict to the northward of the Feltrin, and conquered about the ſame time by the Venetians: The chief town whereof is Belluno, or Bellano, a ſmall city, fifteen miles north-eaſt of Feltri, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Aquileia. Theſe three laſt diſtricts of the Treviſin, Feltrin, and Belluneſe, have a ſufficient quantity of corn and wine for their uſe; but what they are moſt remarkable for is their timber, fire-wood, and iron mines, which are of great advantage to the republick of Venice.

The Cadorin.

Pieve de Cadore.

The Cadorin is a ſmall province, bounded by the biſhoprick of Brixen on the north; by Friuli on the eaſt; the Belluneſe on the ſouth; and by the Trentin on the weſt. The chief town is Pieve de Cadore, about twenty miles north of Belluna.

Friuli province.

The province of Friuli is bounded by the Alps, which ſeparate it from Carinthia on the north; by Carniola, another province of Germany, on the eaſt; by the gulph of Venice on the ſouth; and the marquiſate of Treviſana, and another part of the Alps, upon the weſt; being about fifty miles in length, and as many in breadth; ſome part whereof is ſubject to the Emperor, on which account it is frequently made a part of Germany, and the reſt to the Venetians, as will appear in the deſcription of the ſeveral towns; which are, 1. Aquileia. 2. Palma Nova. 3. Udene. 4. Cividad de Friuli. 5. Goritia. 6. Gradiſca. 7. Idria. And, 8. Pontafel.

Aquileia city.

Aquileia is ſituated on a ſmall river near the Adriatick ſea, about fifty miles north-eaſt of Venice, antiently a city of great ſtrength and fame, made the metropolis of Italy by the weſtern Emperors, and ſtill gives a title to the Patriarch of Aquileia, to whom moſt of the neighbouring Biſhops are ſubject; but the town is dwindled to a a poor village, inhabited by fiſhermen, and there remain ſcarce any footſteps of it's antient grandeur. It is at preſent under the dominion of the houſe of Auſtria.

Palma Nova.

Palma Nova is a large fortified town, twelve miles north-weſt of Aquileia, built by the Venetians as a frontier againſt Germany in the year 1594, and has a communication with the Adriatick ſea by a canal cut from thence, and is ſtill under the dominion of Venice.

Udene.

Udene, or Udina, is a large populous town, above four miles in circumference, twelve miles north-weſt of Palma Nova, and ſubject to the Venetians.

Goritia.

Goritz, or Goritia, the capital of a county of the ſame name, ſituate about ten miles north-eaſt of Palma Nova, ſubject to the Emperor; but this town has already been deſcribed in Germany. The natives uſe a barbarous dialect, neither Italian or German, and are ſcarce underſtood by either.

Cividad de Friuli.

Cividad de Friuli, lies about ten miles north of Palma Nova, and is ſubject to the Venetians.

Idria city.

Idria is ſituated in the mountains, about twenty miles north-eaſt of Goritia; remarkable for it's mines of quick-ſilver. It is ſubject to the Emperor.

Pontafel.

Pontafel ſtands about twenty miles north-weſt of Cividad de Friuli, a frontier town between the Empire and the Venetian territories, but now ſubject to the latter.

CHAP. XIV.

Treats of the Venetian dominions in Iſtria, Morlachia, and Dalmatia.

Iſtria.

ISTRIA is frequently deſcribed among their Italian provinces, but as it lies on the eaſtern ſide of the Adriatick Sea, it ſeems more properly to belong to Germany. It is a peninſula, bounded by Carniola on the north, and encompaſſed by the Adriatick Sea on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt; being about ſixty miles in length, and fifty in breadth; a woody mountainous country, and chiefly valuable to the Venetians on account of the ſtone and timber which they bring from hence. The chief towns are, 1. Capo d'Iſtria. 2. Pirano. 3. Cita Novo. 4. Parenzo. 5. Oſero. 6. Pola. And, 7. St Veit en Flaum.

Capo d'Iſtria.

Capo d'Iſtria is ſituated on a ſmall iſland in the gulph of Trieſte, having a communication with the continent by a bridge, and ſtands about ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Trieſte: It is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Aquileia, and the ſeat of the Venetian Governor, antiently called *Ægida* and *Juſtinopolis*, having been built by the Emperor JUSTIN.

Cita Novo.

Cita Novo, antiently *Æmonia*, ſtands at the mouth of the river Quitto, twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Capo d'Iſtria; in a very bad air, and thinly inhabited, tho' it hath an harbour, and is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to the Patriarch of Aquileia.

Parenzo.

Parenzo is ſituated on the Adriatick, ſix miles to the ſouthward of Cita Novo, and hath a good harbour: It is the See of a Biſhop, alſo ſuffragan to Aquileia; but lying in a very bad air, does not abound with people any more than the former.

Pola.

Pola, *olim Pata*, forty-five miles ſouthward of Capo d'Iſtria, a ſtrong town, ſituate on a mountain near the ſea, under which there is a good harbour.

St Veit.

The town of St Veit, ſituate at the mouth of the river Flaum, belonging to the Emperor, has already been deſcribed in Germany.

Treiſte.

The Port of Trieſte, thirty miles eaſt of Aquileia, belonging to the Emperor, has alſo been already deſcribed in this volume.

Morlachia.

Morlachia is bounded by Croatia and Boſnia towards the north; by Dalmatia on the eaſt; by the gulph of Venice towards the ſouth; and by Iſtria towards the weſt; being about eighty miles in length, and five and twenty in breadth; a part of the antient *Liburnia*. The Turks laid claim to it as a dependant on Hungary, whereupon they put themſelves under the Emperor's protection, as it remains at preſent, only ſome towns on the coaſt are ſubject to the Venetians, the chief whereof are Zeny and Novigrad.

Segna.

Zeny, or Segna, is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, about forty miles ſouth-eaſt of St Veit, a pretty town, with a caſtle and harbour; being a Biſhop's See, ſubject to the Arcbiſhop of Spalatto.

Novigrad.

Novigrad ſtands near a bay of the ſea, above ſixty miles ſouth-eaſt of Segna, of which I meet with no further deſcription.

Dalmatia.

Dalmatia, the eaſtern part of the antient *Illyricum*, ſtretches along the coaſt of the Adriatick Sea, near two hundred miles in length, and is generally about thirty miles in breadth; bounded by Boſnia and Servia towards the north; by Albania on the eaſt; by the gulph of Venice on the ſouth-weſt; and by Morlachia on the north-weſt; the ſea-coaſt, except the territories of Raguſa, belonging to the Venetians, and the inland part of it to the Turks. The Venetian Dalmatia is divided into the continent and iſlands; the chief towns on the continent are, 1. Zara. 2. Nona. 3. Scardone. 4. Sebenico. 5. St Nicholas. 6. Salona. 7. Trau. 8. Spalatto. 9. Cliſſa. 10. Cielut. 11. Riſano. 12. Caſtel Novo. 13. Cataro. And, 14. Budua.

Zara city and diſtrict.

Zara, *olim Jadera*, is ſituated on the coaſt of the Adriatick ſea near two hundred miles ſouth-eaſt of Venice, and an hundred and thirty ſouth-eaſt of Treiſto, formerly the capital of Liburnia, a province of Illyricum. It was purchaſed together with Novigrad by the Venetians of LADISLAUS King of Hungary, about the year 1409, and is now the capital of the Venetian Dalmatia, and of a diſtrict to which it communicates it's name; and is an Archbiſhop's See. The ſea ſurrounds the place, which is joined to the continent by a bridge, and defended by a caſtle.

Nona.

Nona, *olim Ænona*, ſituate about eighteen miles north-weſt of Zara, upon a promontory almoſt encompaſſed with the ſea. It is a fortified town, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Zara.

Scardone.

Scardone ſtands at the mouth of the river Kirka, thirty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Zara; and is defended by a caſtle, and other fortifications, frequently taken and retaken in the wars between the Venetians and the Turks. It is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Spalatto.

Sebenico.

Sebenico is a fortreſs, ſituate on the ſame coaſt, about forty miles ſouth-eaſt of Zara; the caſtle ſtands on a ſteep rock, near the mouth of the Kirka. The Biſhop is ſuffragan to Zara.

Trau.

Trau, the antient *Tragurium*, a little town and harbour, about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Sebenico, encompaſſed with the ſea, and joined to the continent by a bridge, a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Spalatto.

Spalatto.

Spalatto ſtands on the ſame coaſt, about ſixty miles ſouth-eaſt of Zara, and ten to the eaſt-ward of Trau: It is a place of ſtrength, a large and populous town; and hath one of the beſt harbours upon the coaſt, and is an Archbiſhop's See; hither the Emperor DIOCLESIAN retired when he was driven from his throne.

Caſtel Novo.

Caſtel Novo is ſituated on a bay of the ſea, a little to the eaſtward of the territories of Raguſa, defended by a ſtrong caſtle, among inacceſſible rocks.

Cataro.

Cataro, ſituate on the ſame bay, about thirty miles to the eaſtward of Raguſa, defended by a ſtrong caſtle, and is a Biſhop's See.

Budua.

Budua, a little town, the See of a Biſhop, twenty miles to the ſouthward of Cataro, almoſt ſurrounded by the Turkiſh territories. The chief towns in Dalmatia belonging to the Turks, are Trebigna, Narenza, and Antivari.

Narenza.

Narenza, or Narenta, *olim Naro*, and *Narona*, ſtands on the river Naro, about ſixty miles to the eaſtward of Spalatto, and forty to the northward of Raguſa; antiently a large and flouriſhing city, but has little to recommend it at preſent.

Trebigna.

Trebigna is ſituated forty miles ſouth-eaſt of Narenza, which is all the deſcription I meet with of it.

Antivari.

Antivari ſtands on the confines of Albania, between Budua and Dulcigno, and was an Archiepiſcopal See, till taken by the Turks.

Raguſa republick.

As for that part of Dalmatia which belongs to the republick of Raguſa, tributary to the Turk, this has been deſcribed already in Turkey (in Vol. I.);

Chief towns.

the chief towns whereof are Raguſa, Stagno, and Sabioncello.

Venetian iſlands.

The Venetian iſlands on the coaſt of Morlachia and Dalmatia, are, 1. Cherſo. 2. Oſera. 3. Veglia. 4. Pago. 5. Arbe. 6. Groſſa. 7 La Coronata. 8. La Liſſa. 9. Lezina. And, 10. Corzola.

Cherſo.

Cherſo, *olim Crexa*, lies on the coaſt of Iſtria and Morlachia, ten miles to the ſouthward of St Veit, an hundred and twenty miles in circumference; the capital city is of the ſame name, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Zara.

Oſera.

Oſera is joined to Cherſo by a bridge, the chief town being of the ſame name, a Biſhop's See, and Suffragan to Zara.

Veglia.

Veglia, or Curitta, lies between Cherſo and the coaſt of Morlachia, being about ſixty miles in circumference; it's capital alſo is of the ſame name, and a Biſhop's See ſuffragan of Zara.

Pago.

Pago, or Gliſſa, is about fifty miles in circumference, and lies within two miles of the coaſt of Morlachia; it's chief town is of the ſame name, and has a tolerable good harbour.

Arbe.

Arbe lies between Pago and Veglia, it's chief town of the ſame name, and a Biſhop's See ſuffragan of Zara.

Groſſa, or Longa.

Groſſa, or Longa, about thirty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Oſera, and ten from the coaſt of Dalmatia, is about thirty miles in length, and ſix in breadth. It's chief town is of the ſame name, defended by a caſtle.

Lezina.

Lezina lies near the ſouth coaſt of Dalmatia, being about fifty miles in length, and ten in breadth; it's capital is of the ſame name, and lies towards the north-weſt end of the iſland, and is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan of Spalatto.

Corzola.

Corzola lies about ſix miles to the weſtward of the territories of Raguſa, and is the beſt peopled of the Dalmatian iſlands; it's chief town is of the ſame name, being a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan of Raguſa.

The leſſer Venetian iſlands on this coaſt do not require a particular deſcription, but are laid down in the maps bound up with this work.

The Venetian iſlands which lie without the Adriatick ſea upon the coaſt of Epirus and Morea, are, 1. Corfu. 2. St Moura. 3. Cephalonia. And, 4. Zante.

Corfu.

Corfu, *olim Corcyra*, lies near the coaſt of Epirus, being about fifty miles in length, and twelve in breadth; it is a populous iſland, containing two cities, and near a hundred villages; and produces oil, honey, wax, oranges, lemons, and a great variety of other fruits. The chief towns are Corfu and Caſſiope.

Corfu city.

Corfu lies about the middle of the eaſt ſide of the iſland, in a peninſula, ſtrongly fortified, and hath a good harbour: It is the See of a Latin Archbiſhop, though the Greeks have alſo their churches here.

Caſſiope.

Caſſiope is ſituated on the ſame ſide of the iſland, fifteen miles north-weſt of Corfu; a little trading town, with a good harbour, about ſix miles from the coaſt of Epirus.

St Maura iſland and city.

The iſland of St Maura, *olim Leucadia*, is almoſt of a circular figure, and lies about forty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Corfu, being ſeparated from the coaſt of Achaia by a channel not more than half a league broad: It is about twenty miles over either way; the chief town of the ſame name, which ſtands on the north-eaſt part of the iſland, being ſtrongly fortified, and the See of an Archbiſhop.

Cephalonia.

Cephalonia lies ſeven or eight miles to the ſouthward of St Maura; about twenty miles to the weſtward of the gulph of Lepanto; being fifty miles in length, and five and twenty in breadth, being a mountainous uneven ſoil; but produces however wine, oil, ſilk, wool, honey, and wax; with which the natives carry on a tolerable trade. It has a town of the ſame name, ſituate near a bay on the weſt ſide of the iſland, being a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Corfu. And there are three other towns mentioned by geographers, viz. St Nicholas, Catano, and Aſſo; but I meet with no particular deſcription of them.

St Nicholas, &c.

Zante iſland and city.

The iſland of Zante, *olim Zacynthus* and *Ilyra*, lies about twelve miles to the ſouthward of Cephalonia, and as much to the weſtward of the Morea, being twenty-four miles in length, and twelve in breadth, moſt conſiderable for the little grapes called currants, or corinths, from their being firſt cultivated about the city of Corinth, where there are now ſcarce any; France and England, and the reſt of the countries of Europe, being ſupplied with this kind of fruit from hence, and conſequently this iſland hath a very great trade. The natives of Cephalonia and Zante are generally Greeks, but the Venetians have alſo introduced the Roman Catholick religion. The chief town is Zante, ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, fortified and defended by a caſtle, being of the laſt importance to the Venetians. It is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Corfu, and the reſidence of the Governor, who is always a noble Venetian of the firſt rank. There are ſome other ſmall iſlands belonging to the Venetians in theſe ſeas, but of no great conſequence.

Morea.

The Morea was taken from them by the Turks in one campaign, anno 1715, to compenſate which loſs they made themſelves maſters of the towns of Previſa and Voſnia in Epirus; but theſe are far from being an equivalent for that fine country: They bid fair indeed for taking Dulcigno in Albania, anno 1718, but the peace which was concluded while they lay before it, put an end to that enterprize.

Previſa. Voſnia.

CHAP. XV.

Treats of the Venetian government.

Venetian government.

THE Venetians boaſt that their government has laſted upwards of thirteen hundred years; but then it muſt be remembered that their State has undergone various changes and revolutions during that time. The iſlands on which Venice ſtands, and thoſe in the neighbourhood of it, were antiently ſubject to Padua, and received a Governor from thence, but were then only inhabited by fiſhermen, mariners, and other poor people. About the year 420, the Goths and other barbarous nations over-running Italy, and deſtroying the cities of Parma, Aquileia, and many more upon the continent, the inhabitants fled with their effects to theſe iſlands, and laid the foundation of the city of Venice. They were at firſt under the government of the conſuls or magiſtrates of Padua, to whom the ſoil belonged; but when they began to increaſe in wealth and numbers, and Refugees from all parts of Italy flocked in to them, a deputy or repreſentative from every iſland was elected, in whom the legiſlative power was lodged. Whether this was brought about by force, or the conſent of the Paduans, at this diſtance of time does not appear: But this form did not endure long, ſome of the moſt powerful and popular men of the republick procured the ſovereign power to be conferred on him, with the title of Duke, or Doge; making the repreſentatives of the people only his council, whoſe advice he took or refuſed as he ſaw fit. No Princes were more abſolute than theſe Doges for a conſiderable time, till at length the leading men of the republick encroached upon the perogatives of their Doges, as the antient Doges had on the liberties of the people, and the ſovereign power became veſted in the moſt ſubſtantial citizens; the Doge retained no more than the ſhadow of his antient authority. About the year 1325, the great council, which was then compoſed of the chief citizens, paſſed an act for reducing their number, and veſting the ſovereign authority in certain families and their male iſſue, who at the age of five and twenty, and proof of their legitimacy, without any previous election, were to be introduced into this aſſembly; and this body of men have long ſince aſſumed the title of *Noble Venetians*, who, according to Mr ADDISON, look

The ſovereign power veſted in the nobility.

upon themſelves to be equal at leaſt to the Electors of the Empire, and but one degree below Kings; for which reaſon they ſeldom travel into foreign countries, where they muſt undergo the mortification of being treated like private gentlemen. It is obſerved, that they diſcharge themſelves with a great deal of dexterity in ſuch embaſſies and treaties as they are concerned in, for their whole lives are employed in intrigues of ſtate, and they naturally give themſelves airs of Kings and Princes, of which the Miniſters of other nations are only the repreſentatives. About three or fourſcore years ago, it was computed there were about five and twenty hundred of theſe noble Venetians who had voices in the Great Council; but there are not at preſent more than fifteen hundred, notwithſtanding the addition of many new families: for during the war with the Turks in Candia, when their treaſury began to be exhauſted, and on other exigencies of the State, they have permitted merchants and overgrown citizens, and even ſome foreigners, to purchaſe this honour, and conſequently a ſeat in the Great Council of the republick for them and their heirs. And tho' there be but one order of nobles at Venice, yet they look upon themſelves to be more or leſs honourable, according to the antiquity of their families. They are generally divided into four claſſes by our voyage-writers: 1. Thoſe twelve families which were really noble before the conſtitution of their commonwealth. 2. Such as were regiſtered when the members of the Great Council were limited to certain families. 3. Such as have purchaſed their nobility of the State. And, 4. Thoſe who have been created noble Venetians on account of their merit. But to be a little more particular in deſcribing the conſtitution of their preſent government; it conſiſts, 1. Of the Doge, or Duke. 2. The Great Council. 3. The Council of Ten, or Seignory. 4. The Senate, or Council of Pregadi. 5. The Council of the Savi, or Sages. And, 6. The Council called the College.

The Doge, if he be not in reality a monarch, yet he repreſents one in his habit and ſtate. He is clothed in a purple robe, and his head covered with a cap reſembling a mitre, which he never takes off but when the Hoſt is elevated. All ſubjects appear bare-headed and ſtanding before him, and he riſes up to none. His name is on the coin, publick letters and inſtruments of State; and all laws and decrees are publiſhed in his name; and the letters of foreign Princes are directed to him, tho' he delivers them unopened to the Council. Ambaſſadors addreſs themſelves to him, but he delivers no other anſwer than what is agreed on in council. He cannot go out of the city without the leave of the State; and whenever he ſets his foot on the continent his authority ceaſes, and he is conſidered only as a noble Venetian. When he is elected, all his relations leave their poſts, though they continue members of the Great Council: he is as ſubject to the laws as the meaneſt perſon; and the State-inquiſition is levelled chiefly againſt his power. He has a double voice in the Great Council, and the appointment of the ſervants and officers of the palace, and the nominating of the Dean and Canons of St MARK, and is called His Serenity. He continues in his office for life, unleſs he commits ſome offence againſt the State, or happens to be ſuperannuated, or otherwiſe rendered incapable of diſcharging his truſt. He preſides in the Great Council, and other courts; and ſees that the magiſtrates perform their duty, and ſummons them before the college on their neglect. He is elected in the Great Council by balloting, after a manner too tedious to relate here; only I ſhall obſerve, that ſuch precautions are uſed, that 'tis impoſſible the Electors ſhould be biaſſed or over-awed in their choice by any great man; and in the ſame manner their Admirals, Governors of towns and provinces, and all other officers of ſtate are appointed.

The Great Council.

The Great Council is compoſed of the Doge and all the noble Venetians who are in town; but more than half of them being abſent on their governments, or at their country-ſeats on the continent, this aſſembly ſeldom conſiſts of more than five or ſix hundred: nor is the Great Duke's preſence abſolutely neceſſary, it being frequently held without him. In this Council the legiſlative authority is lodged, as well as the choice of the Doge, and of moſt of the great officers of ſtate, as hath been obſerved already, for which purpoſe they meet on Sundays and ſome other holy-days.

The Seignory, or Council of Ten.

The Seignory conſiſts of the Duke, ſix other members choſen by the Great Council, and the three chief judges of their principal courts of judicature, making ten in all, from whence they are uſually called the Council of Ten. In theſe the executive power ſeems to be lodged, and this Council elect three of their own number every three months, who may be called Inquiſitors of State. Theſe receive all accuſations and informations againſt perſons ſuſpected to have any deſigns againſt the government; impriſon, and even proceed capitally againſt them, without allowing them to make any defence, either in perſon or by their advocates, if they all agree; if not, the matter is laid before the Council of Ten.

The Senate or Pregadi.

The Senate, or Pregadi, conſiſts of an hundred and twenty of the members of the Great Council, choſen annually by that Council, aſſiſted by a like number of other counſellors, magiſtrates, and officers, who have not a power of voting, but only of propoſing matters in this Council. All laws are laſt debated in this Council, and brought by them to the Great Council for their ſanction, who have no power of altering any act propounded to them, but only of aſſenting to it or rejecting it. The making peace and war, the ſending and receiving Ambaſſadors, and all other matters of ſtate, (except ſuch as require ſecrecy, and are referred to the Council of Ten on that account) are, after they have been prepared and debated by the college, brought hither for their approbation. In the Senate alſo is the choice of many of the inferior officers of ſtate, and commanders by ſea and land.

The Savi.

The Council called the Savi, or Sages, conſiſts of ſixteen perſons; ſix called the Savi Grande, who have both the ſea and land under their care; five others, who conſult and debate only of land-affairs; and five more, who take only the tranſactions at ſea under their deliberation.

The College.

The College is eſteemed the moſt uſeful Council of State, conſiſting of the Seignory and Savi in conjunction, twenty-ſix in number. They meet ſeverally every morning at a certain hour in their reſpective council-rooms; where having ſpent ſome time in debating the ſeveral buſineſſes appropriated to each, the Savi go to the room where the Seignory ſits, and joining with them form that Council called the College. From whence it appears that matters of State (except what requires an extraordinary ſecrecy) are debated, 1. By the Savi and Seignory in their ſeveral rooms diſtinctly. 2. By theſe two jointly, who conſtitute the college. 3. By the Senate, who when they have conſidered and altered the matters propoſed as they ſee fit, bring all to the Great Council, who have a power of affirming or rejecting, but none of debating or altering the laws propoſed.

From hence it appears, ſays my author, that Venice is one of the beſt conſtituted republicks that ever was eſtabliſhed. But methinks their State-inquiſition, which they ſtile the baſis of their government, has a terrible aſpect, notwithſtanding it may have fruſtrated ſome conſpiracies and attempts againſt the ſtate: for ſurely nothing can reconcile people to ſuch an arbitrary bloody tribunal, who have ever known what liberty and property means; a tribunal that muſt make every ſubject and every ſenator tremble. How can the greateſt amongſt them enjoy his fortune with any tolerable tranquillity, while he is liable every day to be thrown into a dungeon, to be tortured, condemned, and executed upon the crafty ſuggeſtions and inſinuations of his enemies, without being ſuffered to know either his accuſers or his accuſation, or to offer any thing in vindication of his innocence? And in fact, we find ſeveral perſons have ſuffered by this accurſed court, who have afterwards appeared innocent. It would amaze one therefore to ſee ſome men, who cannot bear to live under even a limited monarchy, ever crying up this part of the Venetian conſtitution. In ſome inſtances indeed, the ſubjects of Venice enjoy an unbounded liberty; they may be as leud and wicked as they pleaſe, ſo their crimes do not affect the State; and in this the republicks in Holland perfectly agree with them. There they have their muſick-houſes, whether the votaries of VENUS reſort by publick authority; and here are whole ſtreets aſſigned to the ſame purpoſes, though the carnival is the time when they indulge this humour moſt; then a croud of cavaliers reſort hither from the neighbouring countries, where they meet an equal number of the other ſex, that come to make their fortunes upon theſe occaſions. Another inſtance of Dutch and Venetian liberty, is, that they ſuffer all manner of ſects and perſuaſions in religion, provided there is no tendency in them to diſturb the State. Neither the clergy of Holland or Venice are ſuffered to hold ſynods or eccleſiaſtical courts, or to frame laws for the government of the church, without the approbation of the State; and every man has an unlimited freedom to believe and practiſe as he ſees fit; neither the laws of religion or mortality are inforced by the government; every one may do what is right in his own eyes, ſo he lets the adminiſtration alone. Theſe are ſome of the glorious liberties that the ſubject enjoys under moſt republicks; but in other reſpects they are as great ſlaves to their Sovereigns as the people are in France or Turkey. Should a man complain of the oppreſſions of the nobility, or preſume to cenſure the conduct of the miniſtry; nay, if any thing of this kind ſhould be ſuggeſted againſt him by his enemies, though never ſo falſely, he ſhall be firſt racked and tortured into a confeſſion, and afterwards executed as a malefactor, his eſtate confiſcated, and his family reduced to beggary. And if theſe are the charms of a republican form of government, who would not make it part of his litany to be delivered from it? But to proceed: The nobility themſelves, though they have the legiſlative authority in their hands, ſtand ſo much in awe of this State-Inquiſition which they have eſtabliſhed, that they dare not enter into any familiar converſation with foreigners, or even with their own order, for fear of being charged with deſigns againſt the State: nay, 'tis held criminal to talk of publick affairs, when they are not aſſembled in the Broglio, or in their Councils. And now I am ſpeaking of the nobility, I ſhall take an opportunity of mentioning ſome other rules they are ſubject to: they are not permitted to carry any arms about them, or to wear ſilver or gold lace, or fringe on their clothes, except the Procurators of St MARK, and ſome few others, or to keep above a certain number of ſervants; even the Doge himſelf is under the government of his ſix Counſellors, who may viſit his cloſet, and all his retirements at any hour of the night or day, and he is not at liberty to go abroad without them.

The moſt honourable among the nobility are the Procurators of St MARK, who are appointed by the Great Council, and have the guardianſhip and adminiſtration of the revenues, treaſure, gifts, and legacies belonging to the church of St MARK, with very handſome annual penſions for life. They are five and twenty in number; and formerly conſiſted only of thoſe who had been concerned in foreign embaſſies, or had otherwiſe highly merited of the State; but ſome have been allowed to purchaſe this honour of late years, when the State wanted money. It is out of theſe that the Doge, and his Council of ten, are generally choſen.

Knights.

Beſides the nobility, there are three orders of knighthood; 1. That of the Golden Star, which is conferred only on thoſe of the firſt quality, who have merited of the government; they wear a ſtar bordered with gold-lace. 2. The Knights of St MARK, which honour is uſually conferred on the officers in the ſea or land ſervice, who have behaved well, to which is annexed a penſion of a thouſand ducats per annum. They wear a medal with the figure of St MARK on one ſide, and ſome other device of the Senate's appointing upon the reverſe. 3. The Doge's Knights, as they are called, on account of their being created by him, which is beſtowed on foreign officers in their ſervice.

Nobility of the conquered countries.

There are ſtill ſeveral orders of nobility, as Counts, Marquiſſes, &c. on the Terra Firma in the Venetian territories, who are not at all eſteemed for their titles at Venice; and theſe are the heirs and deſcendants of ſuch noblemen as were created by foreign Princes before theſe provinces were conquered by the republick, who have loſt their privileges, and now enjoy no more than the titles of their anceſtors. Theſe the Venetians endeavour to humble and diſtreſs by all the ways imaginable, that they may render them incapable of carrying on any deſigns againſt their government. They create other noblemen with the like titles, of whoſe fidelity they are aſſured, in order to balance their power; and are perpetually fomenting and encouraging their private quarrels, that they may be diverted from any practices againſt the State. Another piece of their accurſed policy, is to diſcountenance all that are eminent and remarkable for their virtues of any kind whatever: a brave man is ſure to be brow-beaten; and if a perſon is a little more hoſpitable or charitable than his neighbours, he is in danger of the State-Inquiſition, leſt theſe virtues, or the appearance of them,

them, ſhould render him popular, and the government be endanger'd thereby. But among the liberties of Venice, there is one I had paſs'd over when I was upon that ſubject, which ought not to be forgot. This, ſays my author, is perhaps the only city in Europe, where young painters may beſt ſtudy the beauties of nature; for there are two academies, where there are always naked people of both ſexes to be drawn, who are often upon the ſtage together, in what poſture they pleaſe to put them; and any man for the value of ſix-pence or a ſhilling may come in and take a view of them: nor is it to be conceiv'd with what aſſurance theſe young creatures will ſuffer themſelves to be gaz'd on by all the world.

Eccleſiaſtical government and religion.

I ſhall conclude this head with ſome account of their eccleſiaſtical government and clergy. The Patriarchs of Aquileia and Venice ſhare the government of this church between them; if that may be called a government, which can only be exerciſed at the pleaſure of another, namely, the temporal power. The republick of Venice is as ſupreme and arbitrary in all cauſes, and over all perſons eccleſiaſtical and civil in their territories, as the States of Holland are in theirs. The Pope is look'd upon as little more than a temporal Prince at Venice, and the Patriarch a cypher: the Patriarch of Aquileia, whoſe province is upon the Terra Firma, ſeems ſomething more independent of the State, and is better ſupported in his ſpiritual authority by the Pope. He is alſo the eldeſt Patriarch, and has the largeſt extent of juriſdiction: for his province comprehends Friuli, Iſtria, and ſeveral other hereditary provinces of the Empire, with the Venetian territories in Lombardy, except Bergamo, Crema, and Breſcia, whoſe Biſhops are ſuffragans to Milan. The Patriarch of Aquileia is nominated by the republick, who oblige him to chuſe a noble Venetian for his coadjutor, leſt the nomination ſhould return to the Emperor; who, on the other hand, detains the temporal revenues of the Patriarch in his dominions, and will not ſuffer him to reſide at Aquileia, and therefore his ſeat is at preſent at Udina.

The Patriarch of Venice is always a noble Venetian, nominated by the State, and confirm'd by the Pope, and has a limited juriſdiction over the Archbiſhop of Candia, the Archbiſhop of Corfu, and the Biſhops of Chiogga, Torcello, and Caorle. The church of St Mark at Venice is a peculiar; the Premicerio, or Dean, has no ſuperior, and is always a noble Venetian; to which church there belongs twenty-ſix Canons, and a ſeminary of young lads, beſides an adjoining abbey. There is alſo at Venice a court of Inquiſition, conſiſting of the Nuntio, the Patriarch, the Father Inquiſitor, and two Senators, without whoſe aſſent they can tranſact nothing, or put any ſentence in execution, being as much ſubject to the Senate as any other tribunal. The pariſhes elect their own curates, or pariſh-prieſts, in which they are generally influenced by the nobility, whom they dread above all things, and conſequently love them very little; not ſo much, 'tis ſaid, on account of the oppreſſions they ſuffer, as that lofty ſupercilious behaviour, which the quality of Venice are diſtinguiſh'd for, and which indeed the State requires of them: for ſhould they give themſelves any familiar popular airs, and ſeem to court the vulgar, the State-Inquiſition would look upon them as dangerous perſons. But to return to the clergy: the Venetians, ſays my author, ſuffer themſelves to be govern'd neither by Prieſts nor Monks: men of this profeſſion may wear maſks during the carnival, keep their concubines, ſing on the ſtages, and take what other liberties they pleaſe, ſo as they do not meddle with the government. And notwithſtanding the worſhipping of images and relicks is encouraged here, as well as in other Popiſh countries, among the vulgar, the wits of Venice trouble themſelves very little about theſe matters. But the Italians of all degrees are infinitely fond of muſick in their churches; and perhaps there are the beſt entertainments of this kind in Italy, that are to be met with in the world. Vocal muſick is uſually perform'd by eunuchs: a good voice is a proviſion for a ſon; upon which account the poor people frequently caſtrate a boy or two of the family, who are notwithſtanding admitted afterwards into prieſts orders. 'Tis true, this religion, as well as that of the Jews, requires a perfect man to adminiſter in holy things; and it is neceſſary for the eunuch to produce theſe teſtimonials of his manhood, before they will permit him to officiate as a Prieſt in any church, (for a eunuch is known by his complexion;) but then if he have them dried in his pocket, it is deem'd ſufficient to ſatiſfy the intent of the Canon in this particular; and thus a happy expedient is found out in favour of vocal muſick. Inſtrumental muſick alſo is very much encouraged; inſomuch, that if a ſtrange violin comes and performs to the ſatiſfaction of the audience in any of their great churches, they will immediately collect him a handſome gratuity.

Church-muſick.

Nuns.

The nuns of Venice have not a much better reputation than the clergy, particularly thoſe of St Zachary and St Laurence, where only noble Venetians are admitted, and where they do not ſo much as pretend to retire for devotion; but the nobility ſend their daughters thither to ſave their eſtates, it being the eaſieſt proviſion they can make for them. Theſe, according to Dr Burnet, are not veil'd, neither do they cover their necks or breaſts, and receive variety of company; though he acknowledges, that thoſe he ſaw uſed the ſame precautions they do in other nunneries, and had grates in their parlours, beyond which their male friends were not admitted to come. They talk'd much, he obſerv'd, loud and very ungracefully, and allow'd themſelves a liberty in rallying, that other places could not bear. The Patriarch intended to have reſtrain'd the liberties of theſe houſes, and begun with the nuns of St Laurence; but they told him plainly, they were noble Venetians, who had choſen that way of life as moſt convenient for them, but would not be ſubject to his regulations; and upon his attempting to ſhut up their houſe, they were about to ſet fire to it; whereupon the Senate interpoſed, and required the Patriarch to deſiſt. Mr Addiſon relates alſo, that the Venetian nuns are famous for their liberties; that they have opera's within their own walls, and often go out of their bounds to meet their admirers, (if they are not miſrepreſented) and their lovers converſe with them daily at the grate of their parlour.

CHAP. XVI.

Treats of their revenues, forces, views, and intereſts; with ſome account of their trade and manufactures.

Revenues and forces.

THE publick revenues of this State are computed to amount to above twelve hundred thouſand pounds ſterling per annum, and as the government is arbitrary, may be advanc'd in time of war, according to the exigency of their affairs. Their forces by ſea and land may amount to four and twenty thouſand; and in caſe of neceſſity, as has been intimated already, it is pretended they can man and equip out thirty men of war, an hundred gallies, and ten galeaſſes; but this calculation ſeems to be of the largeſt. A noble Venetian is always Generaliſſimo at ſea, who has the command of the iſlands, ports, and maritime places ſubject to them, as well as of the fleet; and there is conſtantly a Proveditor-General of the ſea, who commands the fleet when there is no Generaliſſimo; he is chang'd every two years, and during his office is always attended by two noble Venetians, without whoſe concurrence he can undertake no enterprize. There is alſo a General of the Gulph, that commands the galeaſſes and gallies, clears that ſea of pyrates, and takes care that the cuſtoms be duly paid. For the land-ſervice they uſually make choice of a foreign General, who is attended by ſome few Senators, whoſe advice he is obliged to take upon all occaſions. The inferior Generals and Officers are alſo foreigners; the noble Venetians, who look upon themſelves as Princes and Legiſlators, don't care to be commanded by thoſe they look upon as their inferiors. The common ſoldiers are uſually Sclavonians, Morlachians, and Albanians on the frontiers of Turkey; and in Italy they chuſe to hire Germans, Swiſs, or any other foreign troops, rather than put arms into the hands of their own ſubjects, on whoſe fidelity they cannot depend. Their fortifications are uſually in a ruinous condition, both on the ſide of Italy and Turkey; and the garriſons weak and ill paid, or the Turk could never have made himſelf maſter of the Morea in one campaign: though 'tis true, the diſaffection of their ſubjects in the conquer'd countries, whom they treat with intolerable inſolence, might contribute alſo to that revolution.

Their intereſt.

The intereſt of this republick is certainly to live at peace with all their neighbours, if poſſible; eſpecially with the Emperor and the Turk, who are either of them too powerful for this State to grapple with. 'Tis true, the Emperor, the Pope, and the reſt of the Italian Princes would infallibly join the Venetians if they were attack'd, ſo as to prevent the Infidels getting footing in Italy; but we ſee the Emperor ſuffer'd the Turks to wreſt the Morea from them in the laſt war, anno 1715; and if he aſſiſts them in a future war, poſſibly it will be on ſuch terms as are not very agreeable to them: he will either inſiſt on their ſurrendring ſome of the provinces diſmember'd from the Milaneſe, or their ſharing the dominion of the Adriatic Sea with him, which they have hitherto been ſo jealous of. And no doubt but the Venetians, and the reſt of the Italian Powers heartily wiſh that the Emperor, as well as the Infidels, were further remov'd from their frontiers. They ſeem to be in a very uneaſy and precarious ſituation at preſent: were it not the intereſt of France to prevent the Imperialiſts being entire maſters of Italy, thoſe little States would ſoon be ſwallow'd up; but if ever the Emperor ſhould attempt this, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty would infallibly make a powerful diverſion in their favour; they will certainly therefore cultivate a good underſtanding with the Court of France. As to the Spaniards, ſince they have been driven out of their Italian territories, they are neither capable of aſſiſting or annoying them, and were much leſs dangerous neighbours when they were in poſſeſſion of Naples and the Milaneſe than the Imperialiſts are. But, as Mr ADDISON obſerv'd on another occaſion, among all theſe difficulties this republick will maintain itſelf, if policy can prevail upon force: Were they as rich as formerly, they would find no great difficulty in ſupporting themſelves, at a time when every thing is carried in all the Courts of Europe by the force of money; but their trade is miſerably declin'd, and their treaſure exhauſted by their wars with the Turks.

Trade.

As the trade of Venice formerly conſiſted in tranſporting the merchandize of Aſia from Alexandria, and other ports of Turkey to the kingdoms of Europe, ſo it does ſtill, in a much lower degree, ſince the navigation about the Cape of Good Hope has been found out. Their manufactures and produce of their dominions alſo furniſh them with merchandize to traffick with other countries; as their raw and wrought ſilks of various kinds, brocades, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, damaſks, velvets, wine, oil, fruits, particularly currants or corinths, almoſt peculiar to the iſland of Zant, allum, ſulphur, Venetian-ſteel, iron, copper, woollen-cloth, glaſs, marble, ſoap, rice, eſſences, turpentine, cream-tartar, ſnuff, and many other ſmall articles. Great part of the goods they brought from Turkey uſed to be taken off by the Germans; but if the Emperor ſucceeds in his project of eſtabliſhing a trade in the gulph of Venice, this branch of buſineſs will be entirely loſt to the Venetians.

I muſt not conclude the deſcription of Venice without taking notice of the ceremony of the Doge's eſpouſing the ſea annually, every Aſcenſion-day, when he is attended by three or four hundred of the nobility, and embarks on board the Bucentaur, a noble galeaſſe finely carved and gilded, followed by a vaſt number of gallies, barges, and gondola's, magnificently adorn'd, with trumpets and muſick playing. The Captain of the Bucentaur always takes an oath on this occaſion, that he will bring her back ſafe and ſound, in ſpight of waves and tempeſts; and indeed he takes care to run as little hazard as poſſible, for he does not go above a mile or two out to ſea in the calmeſt ſeaſon of the year; and if the wind blow never ſo little, the ceremony is deferr'd. When they are come to a proper place, the Doge receives a gold-ring from the maſter of the ceremonies, which he throws into the ſea, over the ſtern, ſaying at the ſame time, *We eſpouſe thee, O Sea, as a mark of our true and perpetual dominion over thee.* It was about the year 1174, that Pope ALEXANDER III, conferred the dominion of the Adriatick ſea on the republick, inſtituting this annual ceremony of eſpouſing it by a ring; and this in gratitude for their aſſiſtance againſt his great enemy the Emperor FREDERICK BARBAROSSA, who had driven his Holineſs from Rome; but was afterwards compell'd to ſubmit to this haughty Pope, and ſuffer him to tread on his neck in the city of Venice, of which they ſtill retain the memory in ſome exquiſite paintings.

The POPE's Dominions.

CHAP. XVII.

Treats of the ſituation and extent of the Pope's dominions, particularly of the Campania of Rome, and the principal cities and towns comprehended in that province.

Their ſituation and extent.

THE Pope's dominions are bounded by the territories of Venice towards the north; by the Adriatick ſea, or gulph of Venice, on the north-eaſt; by the kingdom of Naples on the ſouth-eaſt; by the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt; and by the duchy of Tuſcany on the north-weſt; encompaſſes the duchy of Tuſcany on three ſides, and is of a very irregular figure: extending in length from north to ſouth about two hundred and forty miles, and in it's greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt an hundred and forty; though in ſome places, as between the duchy of Tuſcany and the gulph of Venice, it is ſcarce twenty miles broad. To give the reader a juſt idea of the form of it, I muſt refer him to the map of Italy bound up with this volume. The Pope's dominions are uſually divided into ſeven provinces. 1. The Campania of Rome. 2. The patrimony of St Peter, comprehending the duchy of Caſtro, the territory of Orvieto, and the county of Ronciglione. 3. The province of Sabina. 4. Ombria, or the duchy of Spoletto, in which are included the territories of Perugia, and the Contado di Citta de Caſtello. 5. The marquiſate of Ancona. 6. The duchy of Urbino. And, 7. Romania, or Romandiola, comprehending Romania Proper, the Bologneſe, and the duchy of Ferrara.

Provinces.

The Campania of Rome.

The Campania of Rome, containing the greateſt part of the antient Latium, inhabited by the Latini, Equi, Hernici, Rutuli, and Volſci, is bounded by the patrimony of St Peter and Sabina towards the north; by the provinces of Abruzzo, and Terra de Lavaro, in the kingdom of Naples on the ſouth-eaſt; and by the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt: being about ſeventy miles in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt; and forty-five in breadth from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Rome. 2. Tivoli. 3. Paliſtrina. 4. Zagarola. 5. Colonna. 6. Freſcati. 7. Marino. 8. Caſtel Gandolpho. 9. Albano. 10. Velitri. 11. Ciſternæ. 12. Sermoneta. 13. Paleano. 14. Anagni. 15. Ferentini. 16. Alatri. 17. Veroli. 18. Fraſilone. 19. Maenza. 20. Piperno. 21. Foſſa Nova. 22. Terracina. 23. Netuno. 24. Anzio. 25. Ardax. 26. Paterno. And, 27. Oſtia.

Chief towns.

Rome, it's name and antiquity.

Rome, the metropolis of the Pope's dominions, and antiently of the Roman Empire, derived it's name, according to ſome, from Roma, a Trojan Lady, and according to others, from Romulus the founder; there are thoſe alſo that affirm it was called Roma before the days of Romulus; and maintain that he only enlarged the town, and was called by it's name, as Princes and Great Men are at this day called by the names of their ſeats in ſome countries. Others again reject the ſtory of Romulus and Remus entirely as a fable: and indeed I meet with nothing ſatisfactory on this head, any more than I do as to the time of it's foundation; ſome affirming it was founded about the year of the world 3301, 753 years before the coming of Chriſt; and others again in the year of the world 3198.

Situation.

Rome is ſituated on the river Tiber, about ſixteen miles north-eaſt of the Tuſcan Sea, in forty-one degrees forty-five minuets north latitude, thirteen degrees odd minuets to the eaſtward of London. It ſtood antiently on ſeven mounts or eminencies of eaſy aſcent, and was of a ſquare figure, but now comprehends twelve little hills, viz. Monte Capitolino, Palatino, Aventino, Celio, Eſquilino, Viminale, Quirinale, or Monte Cavallo, Janiculo, Pincino, Vaticano, Citorio, and Giordano. It is of an irregular figure, and the walls, which take in the ſame ground with thoſe which Aurelian built, are about twelve miles in circumference, all the turnings and windings included; otherwiſe the compaſs is not, or ever was, more than ſix or ſeven miles, though ſome have made it fifty miles about. How far the ſuburbs antiently extended, is very uncertain; if the town, with all it's ſuburbs and adjacent villages, contained half the number of ſouls which ſome authors of very great reputation have aſſerted, and all theſe were looked upon as part of the city (as the villages within the weekly bills are ſometimes reckoned part of London) the circumference muſt have been very large: and there is room to believe that the villages towards the ſea were deemed part of Rome, becauſe 'tis ſaid, that ſome of the Roman Emperors had a deſign of extending the walls as far as the Tuſcan Sea; which is twelve or fifteen miles diſtant from the preſent city. Another way of accounting for that vaſt number of Roman citizens, which we find upon record in ſome writers, is by taking into the account all thoſe who had the privileges of Roman citizens in the Empire; and then the higheſt account we meet with will not appear incredible, for the citizens of a multitude of great cities had this privilege. But to return to modern Rome; there is not above a third part of the ground within the walls built upon, but taken up with, gardens and vineyards, and other void ſpaces; and conſequently is but thinly inhabited. The natives are uſually computed at 120,000. That part of the town which ſtands on the weſt ſide of the river, and is called Traſtevere, is not above a ſixth part of the whole; the courſe of the river through it is from north to ſouth; it riſes ſo high, and runs with ſuch an impetuous torrent, at the time of the melting of the ſnows, or on violent rains, that the lower part of the town frequently ſuffers very much by inundations. There are five bridges over the river, twenty gates in the walls, and three hundred towers ſtill remaining; the caſtle of St Angelo was deſigned rather as a bridle for the inhabitants, than for their defence. Rome is too large to be of any great ſtrength, and would hardly be able to ſuſtane a regular ſiege. Though the Italians excel in architecture, they apply themſelves very little to fortifications and engineering, unleſs the King of Sardinia, who lying next two ſuch potent neighbours as France and the Empire, is under a neceſſity of fortifying his towns after a better manner. It is computed that modern Rome ſtands fourteen or fifteen feet higher than the old city, being built upon the ruins of the former. The ingenious Mr Addison obſerves farther, that the violent rains, which have happened in ſo long a tract of time, muſt have waſhed down great part of the hills into the vallies, and very much altered the face of it, and that the town is much more upon a level therefore than it was formerly; what confirms this conjecture is, that the Tarpeian rock, which was once a terrible precipice, from whence malefactors were thrown, is not now above twenty feet high; but then as thoſe parts of the town are higher which are built in the vallies, conſequently thoſe which ſtand upon the hills are proportionably lower. The town is generally well built, the ſtreets ſtrait, and adorned with a vaſt number of palaces, monaſteries, and churches; of the laſt of which there are not leſs than three hundred. The triumphal arches, pillars, obeliſks, ſtatues, and fountains, all exquiſite in their kind, are no ſmall addition to it's beauty. On each hand, ſays Dr Burnet, as I entered Rome by the gate Del Popolo, I obſerved a long viſto of ſtreets; but there is not a town in theſe parts of the world, where the churches, convents, and palaces are ſo noble, and the other buildings ſo mean. Before I give a particular account of theſe, I ſhall enquire into the character of the modern inhabitants; and, according to the laſt mentioned author, there is an univerſal civility reigns among all ſorts of people at Rome, which he conceives flows in a great meaſure from the nature of their government, where every man being capable of all preferments, the meaneſt eccleſiaſtick may be a Cardinal, and even Pope; which makes every one behave himſelf towards all other perſons with an exactneſs of reſpect, no man knowing what another may arrive at: but this makes profeſſions of eſteem and kindneſs go ſo promiſcuouſly to all ſorts of perſons, that one ought not to build too much upon them.

The politeneſs, affability, and officious civility, ſays a more modern traveller, which I experienced among the Romans in two journies I made to Italy, ſeemed to me charms ſufficient to induce any, who have a taſte for what is valuable, to come thither from all parts of the world, to view the treaſures of curioſities contained in this city. I have here ſeen noblemen of the firſt rank, both ſecular and eccleſiaſtick, who upon hearing a traveller at their gate deſirous of ſeeing what was in their palaces, would themſelves take a pleaſure in ſhewing them; and if they were buſy, order their domeſticks to do it for them, and even leave their cabinets to give them the liberty to ſee what was worth ſeeing in them. But I found not at firſt all the Italians ſo civil, complaiſant, and polite, but more reſerved: they generally ſtudy a ſtranger's humour and temper before they admit him into their company and familiarity. As for the perſons of any conſideration, they are ambitious of paſſing for virtuoſo's, admirers of pictures, ſtatues, muſick, architecture, medals, and other pieces of antiquity; and no people have more command of their temper, or are more careful in avoiding to give offence, or bear more before they take it, eſpecially from a ſtranger, than the Italians in general. I ſhall conclude their character with a paſſage in Misson, where he ſays, the people of this country are not at all poſſeſſed with a ſpirit of hatred or perſecution againſt ſtrangers, of what religion ſoever: and I muſt do them the juſtice to acknowledge, that in our travels through Italy, and even at Rome and Loretto, we were never in the leaſt moleſted by thoſe adorers of relicks and images.

Rome, according to Mr Ray, is well ſupplied with proviſions, though not ſo cheap as at Florence or Naples, which may be occaſioned by the multitude of foreigners reſorting to this city, who ſeldom ſtudy frugality much in their travels. Their beef is not inferior to that in England, except the fleſh of the buffalo, which is only eaten by the poor Jews and common people, and they hunt or bait it all before they kill it. Their veal is the beſt in Europe, and their kid and pork are excellent, but the mutton is tough and dry. Tame fowls are plentiful and good, as turkeys, hens, capons, tame pigeons, &c. Geeſe indeed are ſcarce, but wild fowl is very cheap, and that of the beſt ſort, as partridges, woodcocks, ſnipes, duck, mallard, teal, quails, plover, larks, and all manner of ſmall birds; beſides which, they eat ſeveral ſorts that we never touch here, as kites, buzzards, ſparhawks, jays, magpies, and almoſt every fowl that flies. They are alſo pretty well ſupplied with ſea and river fiſh, but dearer than fleſh. The freſh-water fiſh are, pike, carp, tench, trout, eels, barbel, chevin, and dace. Their ſea-fiſh *mullus antiquorum*, now called *triglia*, and with us ſurmullet, mugil or mullets, ſole, plaiſe, and others of the flat kind, hake ſturgeon, dolphin, and the lupus marinus, not known in England. Wild boar and other veniſon is to be had every day in the market, but their deer are not comparable to the wild hog. Oranges and lemons are cheap, but apples and pears are dear, being ſold by weight; however, they are exceeding good. The bread is good and cheap, and very light, tho' made without yeaſt; what they uſe in the room of it, I can't learn. And they have greater variety of wines here than in any town in Italy, as the Greco, Lachryma Chriſti, Languedoc, wine of Syracuſa and Auguſta in Sicily, Orvietano, Jenſano, Monte Pulciano, Monte Fiaſcone, Caſtelli Romano, and Albano, the laſt of which is moſt uſually drank. Their wines are generally ſweet, and ſo ſtrong bodied that they will bear half water. Their rough wines are none of them ſo harſh as the French Claret, or Florence, which may alſo be had here, and are generally better liked by foreigners than the ſweet wines, which are not fit to ſit by. The Romans, who only take a ſingle glaſs now and then, or mix them with water, prefer their own wines to the French; and we find their antient poets very laviſh in the praiſes of them. Their olives are ſmall but very ſweet and good, as is the oil conſequently that is drawn from them, and eaten generally inſtead of butter all over Italy. The have plenty of peaches, apricots, walnuts, ſmall nuts, almonds, cheſnuts, and other fruits which grow in our climate in great perfection. The water of the Tyber is thick and muddy, and not fit to drink till it has ſtood a conſiderable time; but they are abundantly ſupplied with good water by their aqueducts, ſome of which bring the water from fountains thirty or forty miles diſtant from Rome, as will be obſerved more particularly hereafter.

Rome affords ſo vaſt a variety of agreeable objects, that one knows not where to begin, much leſs where to end, when we have entered upon the deſcription of them. The moſt valuable curioſities however may be reduced under the following heads, viz. 1. Theatres and amphitheatres. 2. Pagan temples. 3. Triumphal arches. 4. Columns. 5. Baths. 6. Aqueducts and fountains. 7. Catacombs. 8. Obeliſks. 9. Sepulchres. 10. Cirques or Circus's. 11. Bridges. 12. Churches.

13. Palaces, with the ſtatues and paintings which adorn them. 14. Piazza's and ſquares. 15. Colleges. And, 16. Hoſpitals.

Theatres and amphitheatres.

Of all the theatres and amphitheatres that were in old Rome, there are only the ruins of three now remaining, viz. ſome ſmall footſteps of the amphitheatre of STATILIUS TAURUS, near the church of St CROCE. Some part of the walls of the theatre of MARCELLUS, on which the palace of the Savelli ſtands. And part of the amphitheatre of TITUS, now called the Coliſeo, of which there are very large ruins. It appears to have been of a round form without, and of an oval figure within; and, as 'tis ſaid, was capable of holding eighty-five thouſand perſons. This ſtructure was famous antiently, as well for the beauty of it's architecture, as the martyrdom of many thouſand Chriſtians, who, like other condemned perſons, were frequently obliged to fight with wild beaſts here. The Romans do not ſeem to have had certain puniſhments fixed for every crime, but the Emperors, their Viceroys and Judges, ordered them to be put to Death often in what manner they ſaw fit; and upon their coming off victorious in their combates with men or beaſts, frequently granted the priſoner his pardon. This probably was St PAUL's caſe, who lived to tell us he had fought with beaſts at Epheſus.

Pagan temples.

The chief pagan temples remaining, are, 1. The Pantheon, or temple of the gods, uſually called the Rotunda, from it's circular figure, and now dedicated to the Virgin MARY and All Saints: it is an hundred and forty-four feet in height, and as many in breadth; the roof vaulted in form of a cupola, and receives all it's light from a hole in the top of it, nine feet diameter. It's portico conſiſted of ſixteen tall pillars of ſpeckled marble, called oriental granite, each pillar being but one ſtone, of which there are only now thirteen remaining: they are all of the Corinthian order, and about fifteen Engliſh feet in circumference, ſome a few inches more and ſome leſs. The door is forty feet high, and about twenty-five broad, the ſide-poſts and croſs-pieces compoſed of five pieces of granite, and not of one, as ſome have related. Upon the architrave of the portico are theſe words, inſcribed in large capitals, viz. *M. Agrippa L. F. Coſ. Tertium fecit.* This temple was covered with copper, till Pope URBAN VIII removed it; with which he made thoſe four admirable wreathed pillars, which ſupport the canopy of the high altar in St PETER's church; and with the *clavi trabales*, or nails which faſtened the copper plates of the portico, and weighed two thouſand eight hundred pounds, he caſt a great cannon, which ſtill remains in the caſtle of St ANGELO, with this inſcription, *Ex clavis trabalibus porticus Agrippæ*, and the form of one if the nails is engraven on it. The body of this temple remains entire, having only been deprived of it's ſtatues and ſome other ornaments, amongſt which was the famous MINERVA of PHIDIAS. Antiently this temple was aſcended by ſeven ſteps, which ſurrounded the whole building, and now there is a deſcent of eleven ſteps to go into it, which ſhows how far old Rome is buried in rubbiſh. In the church is the tomb of that exquiſite painter and architect RAPHAEL URBIN, with the following inſcription, viz.

Hic ſitus eſt Raphael, timuit quo ſoſpite Vinci,
Rerum magna parens, & moriente mori.

2. The temple of FORTUNE, was given by PIUS IV to the Armenians, where they ſtill celebrate divine worſhip. It is at preſent called St MARIA ÆGYPTIACA, and is an entire piece of antiquity, ſurrounded with pillars of the Ionick order, mixed with the Corinthian and Dorick, which ſerve for a model to the modern architects.

3. The temple of the SUN, or of VESTA, which ſtands not far from the former, on the banks of the Tyber near the broken bridge, and is now a Chriſtian church, called La Madonna del Sole; being a ſmall round ſtructure, with a gallery of ſtrait pillars round it, receiving the light in the ſame manner as the Pantheon, by a round hole in the top.

4. The temple of DIANA AVENTINE, now called St SABINA, a large building, ſupported by twelve pillars on each ſide, which divide the nave from the iſles.

5. The temple of HERCULES AVENTINE, now dedicated to St ALEXIS and BONIFACE, and ſtands on the top of Mount Aventine.

6. The temple of JANUS, in the market for beaſts, being a building exactly ſquare, with four fronts, reſembling a triumphal arch more than a temple: on each front are twelve niches for as many ſtatues, repreſenting the months of the year, which JANUS was held to govern.

7. The temple of CONCORD, or rather the remains of it, there being only the portico left, ſuſtained by eight great marble pillars of one ſtone each, and ſtanding on the aſcent from the Forum Romanum to the Capitol.

8. The temple of SATURN, now a Chriſtian church, dedicated to St ADRIAN; the frontiſpiece only whereof is part of the antient temple. Here the Romans kept the Tabulæ Elephantinæ which contained the names of the thirty-five tribes of the city: it ſtands at the foot of the Capitol near the arch of SEVERUS.

9. The temple of ANTONINE and FAUSTINA, which ſtands in the Forum Romanum, whereof are left good part of the walls, and the pillars of the portico, ſaid to conſiſt of a kind of marble, which will cleave like wood, the grain lying one way.

10. The temple of ROMULUS and REMUS, ſince dedicated to St COSMO and DAMIANO, but very little of the antient temple left.

11. The temple of ISIS and SERAPIS, or of the SUN and MOON, now New St MARY's: the ſmall ruins of the antient temple which remain are behind the cloyſter, the preſent church not ſtanding exactly on the ſame ground.

12. The temple of PEACE, in the Campo Vaccino, begun by CLAUDIUS, and finiſhed by VESPASIAN, in which were laid up the rich ſpoils found in SOLOMON's temple, on the taking of Jeruſalem, till this city was plundered in it's turn by ALARIC, King of the Goths. This exceeded all the other temples in Rome in it's dimenſions, as may ſtill be diſcerned by the vaſt ruins of the foundation. There is very little ſtanding of it at preſent, beſides part of three arches, the reſt having been burnt down in the reign of COMMODUS by a fire, which, 'tis ſaid, broke out with an earthquake; tho' there is a tradition which ſays it fell of itſelf, at the birth of our Saviour. The great marble pillar which ſtands before the church of St MARY MAGGIORE, and is the largeſt in Rome of one entire ſtone, was taken from hence, being one of the

eight which ſupported the nave or body of this temple.

13. The temple of Jupiter Stator, in the Campo Vaccino, of which there now remains no more than three marble pillars, was built under the Conſuls, as 'tis pretended, in compliance with a vow made by Romulus, who finding his troops give way in an engagement with the Sabins, promiſed to build a temple to the honour of Jupiter, if they ſtood their ground: and this temple was accordingly afterwards erected, and dedicated to Jupiter Stator, *à ſtando*, from the Romans ſtanding their ground.

14. The temple of Jupiter Tonans, or the thunderer, erected near the Capitol by Auguſtus, 'tis ſaid, on his being preſerved from a flaſh of lightning which fell on his litter and killed his ſervant, of which there remains no more at preſent than three pillars of the Dorick order, half buried in the ruins.

15. The temple of Faunus, now a Chriſtian church, called St Stephano Rotundo, from it's circular figure, ſituate on mount Celius: it is a large edifice, ſuſtained by two concentrical circles of pillars, the outermoſt, which are forty-four in number, are the leaſt, and the innermoſt are exactly half that number, and ſtand at the ſame diſtance from each other as thoſe of the outer circle.

16. The temple of Hercules Callaicus, now Galuzo, of a diagonal figure, the roof conſiſting of a cupola, little leſs than the Pantheon, having two doors directly oppoſite to each other.

17. The temple of Bacchus, now the church of St Conſtantia, without the walls, of a round figure, ſuſtained by twelve large pillars without, and a concentrical circle of twelve pillars of a leſs circumference within, containing an antient monument of porphyry, called the tomb of Bacchus, which reſembles a large cheſt finely engraved, with branches of trees, boys treading of grapes, birds, and other animals; ſeveral parts of the roof alſo is beautified with bunches of grapes, and other things belonging to a vintage in Moſaick work; but the freſhneſs of the colours, and the rudeneſs of the figures, have made ſome judicious travellers ſuſpect that it is not of Roman workmanſhip.

18. Another temple of Romulus and Remus, now dedicated to St Theodore, of a circular figure, into which there is a deſcent of ſeveral ſteps, as into the Pantheon.

Triumphal arches.

The triumphal arches ſtill remaining, are five; 1. That of Septimius Severus. 2. That of Conſtantine the Great. 3. That in the Via Sacra, erected to the honour of Veſpaſian, and his ſon Titus. 4. That of Galienus. And, 5. Another to the honour of Septimius Severus, and his ſon.

1. The triumphal arch of Septimius Severus ſtands at the foot of the Capitol, being of marble, and ſtill entire, tho' ſomething ſunk under the preſent ſurface of the ground. On each ſide are repreſented in bas-relief the victories of this Emperor; and on the inſide the vault is finely wrought with flowers, of which no two are of the ſame ſhape. It was erected to the honour of Severus, in memory of his Parthian conqueſts; but being under a great concern at the civil diſcords he met with on his return to Rome, he feigned himſelf ill of the gout, and deputed his ſon to triumph in his ſtead. The inſcription on the arch is as follows in large Roman characters, viz. IMP. CAES. LVCIO SEPTIMIO. M. FIL. SEVERO. PIO. PERTINACI AVG. PATRI PATRIAE. PARTHICO. ARABICO ET PARTHICO ADIABENICO. PONTIFICI MAXIMO TRIBUNIC. POTEST XI. COS III. PROCOS ET IMP. CAES. M. AURELIO. I. FIL. ANTONINO AVG. PIO. FELICI TRIBVNIC. POTEST VI. COS. PROCOS. P. P. OPTIMIS FORTVNATISSIMISQVE. PRINCIPIBVS. OB. REMP. RESTITVTAM. IMPERIVMQVE POPVLI ROMANI PROPAGATAM. INSIGNIBVS. VIRTVTIBVS EORVM DOMI FORISQVE. S. P. Q. R.

2 Conſtantine's arch, which is not only the nobleſt in Rome, but in the whole world, according to Mr Addiſon. It ſtands near the amphitheatre of Nero, and was erected by the Senate, as 'tis ſaid, in one day's time, while the armies of Conſtantine and Maxentius were engaged at Ponte Molle, with an intention to inſcribe it to him that ſhould come off victorious; and Conſtantine defeating his competitor, it was accordingly dedicated to him; being beautified with ſeveral excellent ſtatues and bas-reliefs, relating to the moſt remarkable actions of his life. The ſtatues have many of them loſt their heads; which, 'tis ſaid, the Duke of Tuſcany, Laurence de Medicis, ſtole and carried to Florence. The bas-reliefs on this arch are not equally fine, which makes it ſuppoſed that ſome of them were taken from more antient monuments to adorn this. Mr Addiſon ſays, he ſearched narrowly for ſome repreſentation of the apparition which is ſaid to have preceded the victory; but there are not the leaſt traces of it to be met with; the reaſon whereof, he conceives, is, that the greateſt part of the ornaments were taken from Trajan's arch, and ſet up to the new conqueror, in very great haſte, by the Senate and people of Rome, who were then moſt of them heathens. There is however, he obſerves, ſomething in the inſcription which is as old as the arch itſelf, which ſeems to hint at the Emperor's viſion, viz. IMPERATORI CAESARI FLAVIO CONSTANTINO MAXIMO AVGVSTO QVO INSTINCTV DIVINITATIS MENTIS MAGNITVDINE CVM EXERCITV SVO TAM DE TYRANNO QVAM DE OMNI EIVS FACTIONE uno tempore IVSTIS REMPVBLICAM VLTVS EST ARMIS ARCVM TRIVMPHIS INSIGNEM DICAVIT S. P. Q. R.

LIBERATORI VRBIS.
FVNDATORI QVIETIS.

3. The triumphal arch in the Via Sacra, erected in honour of Veſpaſian and his ſon Titus, on their conqueſt of Jeruſalem and Judea, is compoſed alſo of marble, on which is repreſented Veſpaſian riding in triumph with the ſpoils of Solomon's temple; namely, the table of ſhew-bread, the ſeven golden candleſticks, the tables of the commandments, the trumpets of the great Jubilee, and ſeveral veſſels uſed by the Jews in their ſacrifices. But Mr Addiſon ſays, he was much diſappointed in not finding the figure of the temple of Jeruſalem on it; tho' ſome are of opinion, that the compoſite pillars of this arch were made in imitation of the pillars of Solomon's temple, and obſerve that theſe are the moſt antient of any that are found of that order. The inſcription on it is as follows, SENATVS POPVLVSQVE

ROMANVS DIVO TITO, DIVO VESPASIANI F. VESPASIANO, AVGVSTO.

4. the arch of Galienus, uſually called the arch of St Vito, is of Tiburtine ſtone, and was erected in honour of the Emperor Galienus and Salonina, as appears by the following inſcription, viz. GALIENO CLEMENTISSIMO PRINCIPI CVIVS INVICTA VIRTVS SOLA PIETATE SVPERATA EST ET SALONINAE SANCTISSIMAE. AVG. M. AVRELIVS VICTOR DEDICATISSIMVS NVMINI MAIESTATIQVE EORVM.

5. Another arch erected to Septimius Severus by the goldſmiths and graziers of the city, the inſcription whereof differs but little from that on the other arch of Septimius.

Baths.

The *Thermæ*, or baths of antient Rome, were eſteemed ſome of the moſt magnificent buildings in the city, of which there are ſtill conſiderable ruins remaining, particularly of Antonine's bath, which lies at the foot of mount Aventine, and appears more like a great town than a ſingle fabrick. The walls are ſtill vaſtly thick and high; and it contained ſixteen hundred ſeats of poliſhed marble, for as many perſons to ſit and bathe in ſeparately; ſome of theſe bathing-places were floor'd with ſilver, and the pipes which brought in the water were of the ſame metal; the walls being adorned with ſtatues, pictures, and precious ſtones.

2. The baths of Dioclesian, which had ſeats for three thouſand people, who might bathe without ſeeing one another, the ruins whereof are ſeen at St Maria de Angelis, and the Carthuſian church is compoſed of part of this bath, particularly eight noble marble pillars of this church, with their cornices of compoſite work, exquiſitely wrought, which ſerve as a model of that order to the preſent architects.

3. The baths of Constantine, built before his converſion, which ſtood at the foot of Monte Cavallo, a third part whereof are ſtill remaining. There are alſo ſome ſmall ruins of thoſe of Nero, near the church of St Eustachius; of thoſe of Paulus Emilius near St Dominick's; and of Agrippa's near the Pantheon.

Columns.

Of columns, there are four remaining, beſides thoſe which belong to temples. 1. The column of Trajan. 2. The column of Antoninus. 3. The Columna Milliaria. And, 4. The Columna Roſtrata.

1. The Columna Trajana, an hundred and twenty foot high, beſides the pedeſtal, which is twelve: It is compoſed of twenty-four entire pieces of white marble, hollow within, and ſet one upon another, with little windows to let in the light, and is aſcended up an hundred and twenty-three ſteps. It is adorned with bas-reliefs, aſcending in a ſpiral line from the baſe to the chapiter, repreſenting the wars and memorable actions of this prince; and ſerved alſo as a mauſoleum for his aſhes, which were placed in a golden urn on the top of it, for Trajan never lived to ſee this pillar, dying of the flux as he returned from his Parthian expedition. The ſtatue of St Peter of braſs gilt, was afterwards placed on the top of this pillar in the room of the urn by Pope Sixtus V. The pedeſtal, which was buried in the ground, was laid open again by Pope Paul III, on which is the following inſcription, IMP. CAESARI DIVI NERVAE F. NERVAE TRAIANO AVGVSTO GERMANICO DACICO PONT. MAXIMO TRIB. POT. XVII. IMP. VI. COS. VI. P. P. AD DECLARANDVM QVANTAE ALTITVDINIS MONS ET LOCVS TANTIS OPERIBVS SIT EGESTVS.

2. The column of Antoninus Pius in the piazza Colonna, which is an hundred and forty-five feet in height, Engliſh meaſure, aſcended by two hundred and ſix ſteps; and compoſed of twenty-eight entire pieces of marble, having fifty ſix ſmall windows in it. The ſtatue of the Emperor was placed on the top, where that of St Paul's braſs gilt now ſtands: Among other hiſtorical pieces in bas-relief, is the figure of Jupiter Fluvius ſending down rain the on the fainting army of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, and thunderbolts on his enemies; which, as Mr Addison obſerves, is the greateſt confirmation imaginable of the ſtory of the Chriſtian legion. The army of Antoninus, it ſeems, being ſurrounded by the enemy, and ready to periſh for want of water, the Chriſtian legion by their prayers obtained a plentiful ſhower of rain, which wonderfully refreſhed their troops, while the other army was deſtroyed by a dreadful tempeſt of thunder and lightning; which extraordinary event the Pagan Romans aſcribed to Jupiter, and the Chriſtians to our Saviour. The inſcriptions are all modern, and three of them relate to the repairing the column, and dedicating it to St Paul by Sixtus V.

3. The Columna Roſtrata, which antiently ſtood in the Forum Romanum, and was erected to the memory of Caius Duillius on the victory he obtained over the Carthaginians at ſea, above two hundred and fifty years before the birth of our Saviour, is now placed in the wall at the foot of the ſtairs aſcending to the rooms of the Capitol, and is not more than twelve foot high; the antient inſcription not being legible, is ſupplied by antiquaries.

4. The Columna Milliaria, from whence 'tis ſaid the antient Romans reckoned their miles and diſtances from the city to all parts of Italy, is removed from the Forum Romanum in the center of the city to the Capitol. It is marked with the numeral letter I. as the ſecond ſtone at the firſt mile's end was with II. and ſo on; ſo that *ad ſecundum lapidem* ſignified one mile's diſtance from this pillar; *ad tertium* two, and ſo on upon all the great roads in Italy. This column is of white marble, eight foot and a half high, and on the chapiter there is a braſs globe, about two foot in diameter; but Mr Misson is of opinion, that this is not the pillar from whence they reckoned their miles, becauſe ſome antient writers ſay, it was braſs gilt, and the names of the great roads and the diſtances of towns were engraved upon it, which they are not on this; beſides, as the number I. is engraved upon it, he conceives it as rather one of thoſe which ſtood upon ſome road a mile diſtant from the city: but I don't think it worth the while to take up the reader's time longer in this controverſy, in which Mr Misson contradicts the notions of moſt of thoſe travellers who have gone before him.

A new pillar diſcovered of Antoninus Pius.

As to the column erected before the church of St Mary Maggiore, that has been taken notice of already; but it ſeems there is a new column diſcovered not many years ago, the body whereof between the baſis and the chapiter is ſixty-ſeven Roman palms, and the pedeſtal, which is one entire piece, eighteen Roman palms in height, (a Roman palm is about eight inches and a half Engliſh.) Upon one of the faces is the following inſcription: DIVO ANTONINO AVGVSTO PIO. ANTONINVS AVGVSTVS ET VERVS AVGVSTI FILII. And on the oppoſite ſide ſeveral bas-reliefs, among which there is a winged genius of Antoninus and Faustina deified.

Aqueducts and fountains.

There is nothing, ſays Dr Burnet, that delights a ſtranger more in Rome, than to ſee the great fountains of water that are in every corner of it. That old aqueduct which Paul V reſtored, comes from a collection of ſources five and thirty miles diſtant from Rome, which runs all the way thro' a vaulted channel, equal to a river, and breaks out in five ſeveral fountains, of which ſome give water above a foot ſquare. That of Sixtus V, the *aqua felice*, is brought twenty miles to Rome, and diſchargeth a prodigious quantity of water. The glorious fountain in the Piazza Navona hath an air of greatneſs that ſurprizeth one. The fountain in the piazza de Spagna, thoſe before St Peter's and the Palazzo Farneſe, with many others, furniſh Rome ſo plentifully, that almoſt every private houſe hath a fountain which runs continually. Among the antient aqueducts there are only four that have any thing remaining of them now, viz. the Aqua Martia, conducted thirty-ſeven miles; the Aqua Claudia, brought thirty-five; the Aqua Appia, and the Aqua Virginis, both brought eight miles; the laſt of which being repaired by Pope Nicholas V, is ſtill in uſe, and known by the name of Fonte de Trivio. There are inſcriptions on the Porta Maggiore, ſhewing who built and repaired the aqueduct called Aqua Claudia, in the following words, viz.

TIT. CLAVDIVS DRVSI. F. CAESAR. AVGVSTVS GERMANICVS. PONT. MAX. TRIBVNICIA POTESTATE. XII. COS. V. IMPERATOR XVII. PATER PATRIAE. AQVAM CLAVDIAM EX FONTIBVS QVI VOCABANTVR CAERVLEVS ET CVRTIVS, A MILLIARIO XXXV. ITEM ANIENEM NOVAM A MILLIARIO LXII. SVA IMPENSA IN VRBEM PERDVCENDAS CVRAVIT.

IMP. CAESAR VESPASIANVS AVGVST. PONT. MAX. TRIB. POT. II. IM. VI. COS. III. DESIG. IV. P. P. AQVAS CVRTIAM ET CAERVLEAM PERDVCTAS A DIVO CLAVDIO, ET POSTEA INTERMISSAS DILAPSASQVE PER ANNOS NOVEM SVA IMPENSA VRBI RESTITVIT.

IMP. TIT. CAES. DIVI. F. VESPASIANVS AVGVSTVS PONTIFEX MAXIMVS TRIBVN. POTESTATE X. IMPERATOR XVII. PATER PATRIAE. CENSOR. COS. VIII. AQVAS CVRTIAM ET CAERVLEAM PERDVCTAS A DIVO CLAVDIO. ET POSTEA A DIVO VESPASIANO PATRE SVO. VRBE. RESTITVTAS CVM A CAPITE AQVARVM. A SOLA VETVSTATE DILAPSAE ESSENT. NOVA FORMA REDVCENDAS SVA IMPENSA CVRAVIT.

Others relating to the Aqua Martia, are on the gate of St Lorenzo, as follow.

IMPERATOR CAESAR DIVI IVLII F. AVGVSTVS PONTIFEX. MAX. CONS. XII. TRIBVN. POTEST. XIX. IMP. XIIII. RIVOS AQVARVM OMNIVM REFECIT.

IMP. CAES. M. AVRELIVS ANTONINVS PIVS FAELIX AVG. PARTH. MAX. BRIT. MAXIMVS PONTIFEX MAXIMVS AQVAM MARCIAM VARIIS CASIBVS IMPEDITAM PVRGATO FONTE EXCISIS ET PERFORATIS MONTIBVS RESTITVTA FORMA ADQVISITO. ETIAM FONTE NOVO ANTONINIAN. IN SACRAM VRBEM SVAM PERDVCENDAM CVRAVIT.

IMP. TITVS CAESAR DIVI F. VFSPASIANVS AVG. PONTIF. MAX. TRIBVNIT. POTESTAT. IX. IMP. XV. CENS. COS. VII. DESIG. II. RIVVM AQVAE MARCIAE VETVSTATE DILAPSVM REFECIT ET AQVAM QVAE IN VSV ESSE DESIDERAT REDVXIT.

Catacombs.

Among the antiquities of Rome, thoſe which go under the name of Catacombs are not the leaſt ſurprizing. Theſe are narrow ſubterraneous vaults, with a variety of windings and turnings in the nature like a labyrinth, by which the ſuburbs of antient Rome were in a manner undermined. They are generally about five feet and a half high, and wide enough for two men to go a-breaſt, but in ſome places the dimenſions are larger. On each ſide of theſe paſſages are two or three rows of Loculi, or graves, cut out of the rock, or ſand (as the nature of the ground is) like troughs, each of them capable of receiving a body, and had a ſquare ſtone or tile ſet up before the mouth of them, with an inſcription ſhewing that ſome martyr or confeſſor, or other perſon, was interred there. In ſome of them are found bones, but moſt of them are empty, the bodies, or what remained of them, having been removed to ſeveral churches, and kept as reliques of martyrs; for it was generally believed in the laſt age, That theſe caverns were dug by Chriſtians, who in the times of perſecution performed divine ſervice in them: That theſe burying-places were peculiar to Chriſtians, and never uſed by Heathens; and that a great number of ſaints and martyrs were interred here. But Dr Burnet ſays, nothing ſeem'd more evident to him, than that theſe were the common burying-places of the antient Heathens; for one enters into them without the walls of the town, according to the laws of the twelve tables; though 'tis true, in ſome places they run under it, which they could not avoid before they had the uſe of the compaſs, when they were engaged far under ground: Nor is it to be conceived how the Chriſtians in the primitive times could be able to carry on ſuch a work without the notice of their governors, when ſuch mountains of rubbiſh muſt have been brought out, and ſuch a multitude of hands employed in it. My author alſo obſerves, that it is abſurd to think they could hold their aſſemblies amidſt the annoyance of ſo much corruption, for he found the ſtreams ſo ſtrong, that though he was as little ſubject to vapours as moſt men, yet he had all the day long after he was in them, which was not an hour, a confuſion, and as it were, a boiling in his head that diſordered him extremely; and if there is now ſo much ſtagnating air there, this muſt have been ſenſible in a more eminent and inſufferable manner, while there were vaſt numbers of bodies rotten in thoſe niches. Beſides,

ſides, according to his calculation, the number of Chriſtians in thoſe days at Rome could not amount to above fifty thouſand; of whom, excluding the women, old men, and children, there were not more than twelve thouſand fit for labour, and it is not credible that ſo vaſt a work could have been accompliſhed by them. My author acknowledges indeed, that it does not appear when theſe caverns were dug, but obſerves, that when the laws of the twelve tables were made, ſepulture was in uſe, and Rome being grown to a vaſt bigneſs, he takes it for granted that they had repoſitories for their dead; and none of the Roman authors mentioning any ſuch work, he thinks it not unreaſonable to imagine, that theſe vaults had been wrought and cut out from the firſt beginnings of the city, and therefore later authors had no occaſion to take notice of them. And though it is certain, that burning came to be in uſe among the Romans again, yet they returned back to their firſt cuſtom of burying bodies long before CONSTANTINE's time; ſo that it was not the Chriſtian religion that produced this change. Our modern writers ſeem to agree, that the change was made in the times of the ANTONINES; yet there being no law made concerning it, and no mention in an age ſo full of writers, of any orders that were given for burying-places, it is probable that the cuſtom of burning wore out by degrees: And ſince we are ſure that they once buried, it is more natural to think, ſays this writer, that the ſlaves and the meaner ſort of people were ſtill buried, that being a leſs expenſive and more ſimple way of diſpoſing of their bodies than burning, which was both pompous and chargeable; and if there were already burying-places prepared, it is much eaſier to imagine how the cuſtom of burying grew univerſal, without any law made concerning it. But to return to the catacombs: Though the inferior people among the Pagan Romans, and their ſlaves might be buried here, it is evident from the many genuine inſcriptions that have been found in the catacombs, which bear the dates of the conſuls, that theſe were alſo the common burying-places of the Chriſtians of the fourth and fifth century, but this reverend Divine does not remember any of an antienter date.

The Roman Catholicks, as has been obſerved already, do not only firmly believe that the catacombs were the works of the primitive Chriſtians, but adore the bones and aſhes that are found there. They aſſure us alſo, that ſeveral of the antient Roman Biſhops held their ſynods and reſided here, adminiſtered the ſacraments, preached, &c. that LIBERIUS baptized above four thouſand perſons in theſe regions of darkneſs on an Eaſter-Sunday, and that there are ſeveral large grotto's in theſe burial-places adorned with painting and Moſaic work, which might very well ſerve for chapels, but that they are generally in the remoteſt and moſt intricate parts of the labyrinth, and the rubbiſh in many places fallen in, that travellers ſeldom or never viſit them. While the Proteſtants univerſally maintain, that theſe are only the burying-places of the Roman ſlaves, which the Chriſtians might afterwards apply to the ſame uſes; but that it is impoſſible they could ever aſſemble and perform divine ſervice in theſe nauſeous ſubterranean vaults. Notwithſtanding both ſides ſeem to be very poſitive in their reſpective opinions, I believe all impartial men muſt ſay, the matter ſtill wants to be cleared up. If theſe catacombs are as old as the city, according as Dr BURNET, and ſome other Proteſtant writers affirm, or indeed if they were known publick burying-places for any number of years while Rome continued Pagan, it is very unaccountable that they ſhould never be particularly deſcribed by any Roman writer. As for a paſſage or two which theſe gentlemen have cited in relation to the burying of their ſlaves, they may relate to any other common burying-place as well as theſe, and do not ſeem at all concluſive. On the other hand, how the Chriſtians ſhould be able to undermine almoſt all the ſuburbs of Rome, diſpoſe of the earth that came out of theſe cells, conſtantly perform their worſhip in them, and bury their dead, without being diſcovered by one falſe brother, appears to me very incredible. How it came to paſs afterwards that the memory of theſe catacombs was perfectly loſt, and they ſhould lie undiſcovered for many hundred years, is equally ſurpriſing. Surely the ſlaughter of the Romans muſt be very great, when the barbarous nations deſtroyed this city, that there ſhould be none left alive that could tell what antient Rome was; one would think that there had been a general maſſacre, and Italy entirely new peopled by the northern nations, or ſuch a night of ignorance could never have over-ſpread the face of the country, as we find there did on the declenſion of the Roman Empire; which inclines me to believe, that however the modern inhabitants may have aſſumed the names of the antient Romans, they are really moſt of them of Gothic extraction; and when no other probable account could be given of the forming of theſe catacombs, it is no wonder to find them aſcribed by a politick court to the primitive Chriſtians, whereby they are furniſhed with an inexhauſtible fund of relicks.

Mauſolea.

Of the antient tombs, or Mauſolea in Rome, there are ſtill the traces of four, viz.

Moles Adriani, the caſtle of St Angelo.

1. Moles Adriani, now the caſtle of St Angelo, which was the mauſoleum of the Emperor ADRIAN, and beautified antiently with ſtatues and marble pillars, which were taken from it to adorn ſome of the modern churches and palaces, after it had been defaced by the Goths; but it ſtill retains the antient inſcription, viz. L. HAELIO. CAES. DIVI HADRIANI AVGVST. COS II. F.

Pope BONIFACE converted it into a fortreſs, and it has been improved by ſucceeding Popes; ALEXANDER VI built a long cloſe gallery from the palace of the Vatican to this caſtle, through which he might retire on any tumult or inſurrection in the city. It is ſaid to have taken the name of Angelo, from an angel that appeared at the top of it ſheathing a bloody ſword, while St GREGORY was conducting a proceſſion through the ſtreets, and praying againſt a raging peſtilence, which had taken off a multitude of the inhabitants, but ceaſed from the time of this proceſſion. In this caſtle is the magazine of arms, ammunition and ſtores of war, as well as the Pope's treaſury; and here alſo priſoners of ſtate are confined.

2. The Mauſoleum of AUGUSTUS, which was built of white marble, of a round figure, encompaſſed by three circular walls; the circumference of the outermoſt being the largeſt, and joined to that in the middle by a circular plain, and that to the innermoſt by another; ſo that the fabrick conſiſted of three ſtories, or walks, leſſening

CHAP. XVII. Pope's Dominions.

ſening gradually as they advanced in height, and planted with ever-greens, whoſe laſting verdure was ſuppoſed to repreſent eternal life: it was adorned alſo with many fine ſtatues, pillars, and obeliſks, and ſtood near the church of St Roch, whereof little more remains at preſent than the ruins; from which however the deſign of the antient ſtructure may ſtill be diſcerned.

3. The tomb of Caius Cestius, which ſtands in the wall near St Paul's gate; is a ſquare pyramid, ending in a ſharp point, being an hundred and twenty foot high, and ninety-four foot broad at the baſe; the body of it is of brick, but covered over with ſquare pieces of white marble; being repaired by Alexander VII, in the year 1673, and almoſt reſtored to it's original beauty. The entrance into this Mauſoleum is by a low narrow paſſage to the middle of the building, where there is a little arched room, nineteen foot long, thirteen broad, and fourteen foot high, plaiſtered over with a ſort of white poliſhed mortar, on which are ſtill ſeveral pieces of painting, repreſenting women, flowers, veſſels, and other ornaments. The inſcription on a pedeſtal near the pyramid, on which the ſtatue of Cestius is ſuppoſed to have ſtood, is as follows, viz. CAIVS. CESTIVS. L. PVB. F. EPVLO. TR. PL. VII. VIR. EPVLONVM———OPVS ABSOLVTVM EX TESTAMENTO. DIEBVS CXXX. ARBITRATV. PONTI. P. F. CLAMELAE. HEREDIS. ET PROTHI L. But tho' this be inſcribed to Cestius, the general opinion is, that it was the common ſepulchre of the Epulones, who were ſeven in number, and to whom belonged the management of all ſacrifices, feaſts, and banquets that were celebrated in honour of the gods.

4. The tomb of Metella, the wife of Crassus, ſtands in the Via Appia near St Sebastian, being vulgarly called the *Capo de bove*, from the heads of oxen carved on the walls. It is a round building, formed like an old tower, the walls whereof are twenty-four foot thick. At the funeral exequies of this lady were two great ſacrifices performed, conſiſting of an hundred oxen each.

Obeliſks. Of fifty obeliſks which were in antient Rome, there are not more than ten or eleven yet dug out of the rubbiſh. They were all of them brought from Egypt, and were of granite, being a red and white marble, ſo hard and durable, that it will even reſiſt the fire for a conſiderable time: They are of a quadrangular figure, broad at the baſe, and narrow towards the top, repreſenting the rays of the ſun, adored by the Egyptians under the name of Osiris, and deemed by them the reſidence of Beings, Genius's, and the Soul of the Univerſe. They do not terminate in a point, but are a kind of obtuſe pyramid.

1. The faireſt obeliſk now in Rome, ſtands in the piazza before St Peter's church, formerly dedicated to Augustus and Tiberius, and was brought hither from the Circus of Nero. It is one entire piece of granite, ſeventy-two foot high, twelve foot ſquare at the baſe, and eight at the top; and weighed nine hundred and fifty-ſix thouſand one hundred forty-eight pounds; and is now about four thouſand years old. It lay many years buried in the ruins of the aboveſaid Circus; and after it was found, it's immenſe weight deterred ſeveral architects from attempting to erect it, till Dominico Fontana, by the encouragement of Sixtus V, ſet it on a pedeſtal thirty-eight foot in height, to the aſtoniſhment of all that ſaw it. The Pope dedicated it to the Holy Croſs, as appears by the modern inſcriptions. There are no hieroglyphicks on it; but the antient Roman inſcription on the obeliſk is in the following words, viz. DIVO. CAESARI. DIVI. IVLII. F. AVGVSTO. TIBERIO CAESARI. DIVI AVGVSTI F. AVGVSTO SACRVM.

2. The obeliſk of St John de Lateran has three rows of hieroglyphicks on each face of it, and is the largeſt in Rome; being an hundred and eight feet in height, without the pedeſtal or croſs, nine feet and a half at the baſe one way, and eight the other. It was antiently conſecrated to the ſun in the city of Thebes, about twelve hundred years before our Saviour; ſent to Rome by the ſon of the Emperor Constantine, and ſet up in the Circus Maximus, where it was found not many years ſince, covered with rubbiſh, and broken in three pieces; cemented together and erected again before the church of St John de Lateran by the abovementioned Fontana.

3. The obeliſk in the piazza del Popolo, which was brought from Heliopolis in Egypt by Augustus, and dedicated to the ſun in the Circus Maximus, where it lay a long time broken in pieces, and was ſet together, and erected again in the place where it now ſtands by the aboveſaid Fontana, at the expence of Sixtus V, having the following antient inſcription, IMP. CAESAR DIVI F. AVGVSTVS PONTIFEX MAXIMVS IMP. XII. COS. XI. TRIB POT XIV AEGYPTO IN POTESTATEM POPVLI ROMANI REDACT. SOLI DONVM DEDIT.

4. The obeliſk near the church of St Maria Maggiore was ſet up in the mauſoleum of Augustus by the Emperor Claudius. It is leſs than any of the three former, and is without hieroglyphicks.

5. That in the Piazza Navona was taken from the Circus of Caracalla, and ſet up here, with four marble ſtatues, and a fountain breaking out under it's baſe, by Innocent X.

6. That which ſtands by the Jeſuits church, and thoſe in the gardens of Medicis and Matho's are of a ſmaller ſize, and ſeem to be only the tops of obeliſks broken off; but the hieroglyphicks upon them ſufficiently demonſtrate their antiquity. Some are of opinion, that the hieroglyphicks on theſe obeliſks relate the memorable actions of the Egyptian Kings; others imagine they contain the ſecrets of their divinity, aſtrology, metaphyſicks, magick, and other ſciences that were cultivated by the Egyptians; but I could never meet with any writers who pretended to decypher them, which might have been done if they made uſe of an alphabet, and each character had been a letter. I am inclined to believe thereſore, that every character was a word, or ſyllable at leaſt, as we find the caſe to be in the Chineſe writing, which is poſſibly of an equal antiquity.

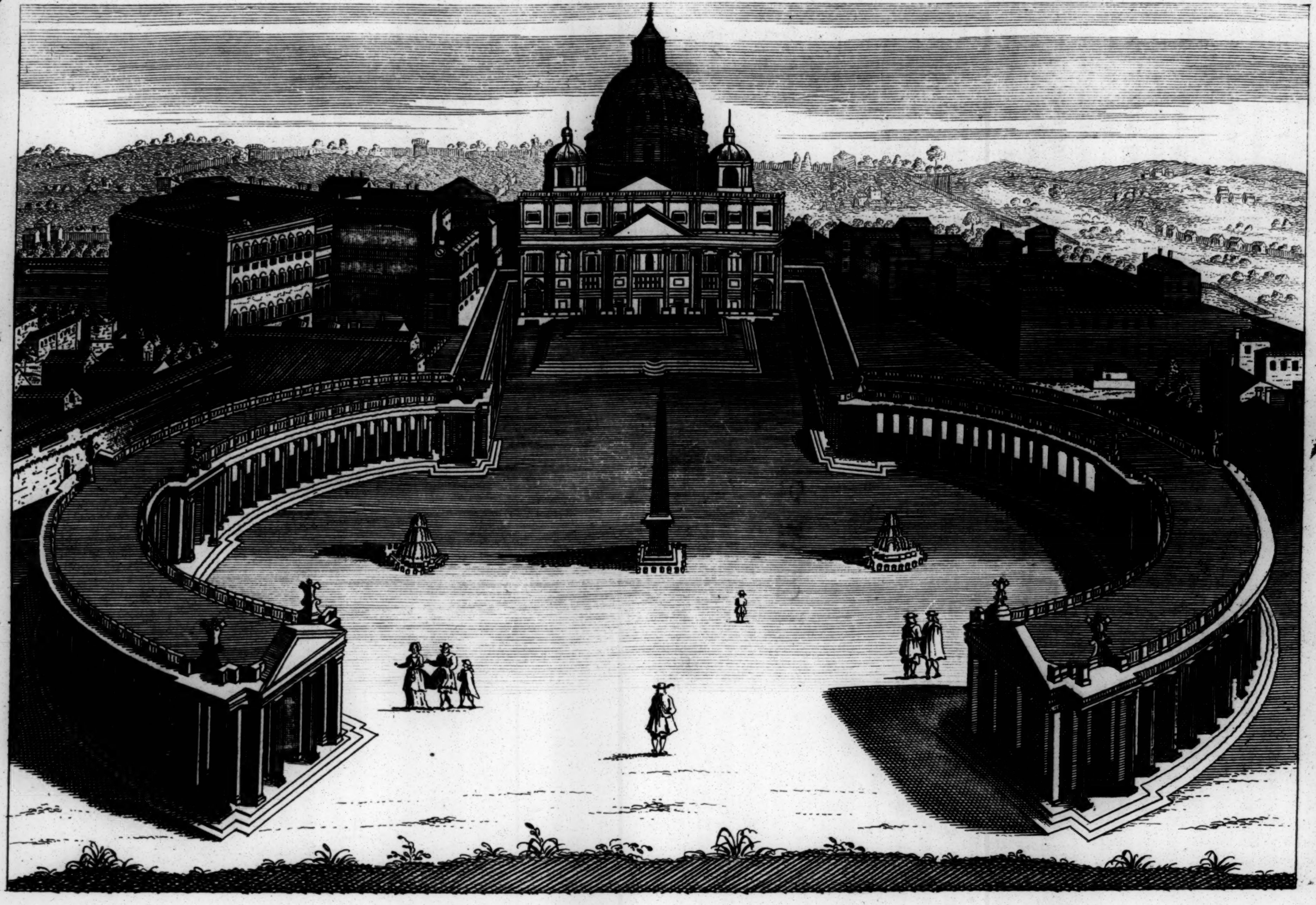
Cirques. The Circi, or Cirques, where ſpacious ſtructures, of an oval or ſemicircular figure, with large area's, where the Romans run races in chariots, or on horſeback, round a Meta, which ſtood in the middle. There are only ſome ſmall remains of that of Antoninus Caracalla without the walls, and of the Circus Maximus the form may juſt be diſcerned. Of the Circus Agonalis, now the piazza of Navona, the Circus of Nero in the Campo Vaticano, and the Circus Flaminius, no traces are left. The Circus Maximus, 'tis ſaid, would contain an hundred and ſixty thouſand ſpectators, who might ſit conveniently in the three open galleries; one of which was for the ſenators, a ſecond for the gentlemen, and a third for the common people. Thoſe two obeliſks which are before the Porto del Populo and St John de Lateran, formerly ſtood here, as has been intimated already.

Bridges.

There were antiently eight bridges over the Tyber, of which five are ſtill left, viz. 1. Ponte di St Angelo, formerly called the *Pons Ælius*, near the caſtle, on which are the ſtatues of St Peter and St Paul, and twelve angels holding the inſtruments of our Saviour's paſſion. 2. Ponte St Bartolomeo, antiently *Pons Ceſtius* or *Eſquilinus*. 3. Ponte Siſto, heretofore *Aurelius Janiculenſis*. 4. Ponte di Santa Maria, *olim Palatinus* and *Senatorius*. And, 5. Ponte de Quatro Capi, the antient *Pons Tarpeius*, or *Fabricius*, on which there is ſtill the following inſcription, viz. L. FABRICIVS. G. F. M. CVR. VICAR. FACIENDVM CVRAVIT. Q. LEPI M. F. M. COLLIVS M. F. COS. PROBAVERVNT DD. NN. IMP. CAES. FLA. VALENTINIANVS PIVS FAELIX MAX. VICTOR ET TRIVMPHATOR. SEMPER AVGVSTVS. PONT. MAX. GERM. MAX. ALEM. MAX. FRANC. MAX. GOTH. MAX. TRIB. POT. VII. IMP. VI. COS. II. P. PP. ET FLA. VALENS PIVS FAELIX MAX. VICTOR AC TRIVMPH. SEMPER AVG. VI. PONT. MAX. GERMANIC. MAX. TRIB. POT. VII. IMP. VII. COS. II. P. PP. ET FLA. GRATIANVS PIVS FAELIX. MAX. VICTOR AC TRIVMPH SEMPER AVG. PONT. MAX. TRIB. POT. III. IMP. II. COS. PRIMVM. P. PP. PONTEM FAELICIS. NOMINIS GRATIANI. IN VSVM SENATVS AC POPVLI ROM. CONSTITVI DEDICARIQVE IVSSERVNT.

Churches.
St Peter's.

I come next to the deſcription of the churches in Rome, of which St Peter's, ſituate on the weſt ſide of the river in Traſtivere, is the moſt admired both for it's dimenſions and architecture; and as I am ſpeaking to Engliſhmen I cannot give them a juſter idea of this noble fabrick, than by telling them that St Paul's in London is built after the ſame model. The length on the outſide, including the portico, is ſeven hundred and twenty-two Engliſh feet: the length within, not taking in the portico, or the thickneſs of the walls, is five hundred and ninety-four feet. The breadth of it from the north-ſide of the croſs to the ſouth-ſide, or from the north to the ſouth door on the outſide, is four hundred and ninety feet: the breadth from the north to the ſouth door within is four hundred and thirty-eight feet; the breadth of the body of the church is eighty-ſix feet eight inches. The height of the body of the church is an hundred and forty-four feet. The outward circumference of the dome or cupola is ſix hundred and twenty feet; the diameter of the dome within, an hundred and forty-three feet. The breadth of the front of the church four hundred feet; the height from the pavement to the top of the croſs which is over the ball, four hundred thirty two feet: the diameter of the ball, eight feet four inches. The height of the ſtatues which are on the cornice of the front, eighteen feet. The body of the church, as well as the cupola, is ſuſtained by large ſquare pillars, like thoſe in St Paul's, and have the advantage of being incruſted or overlaid with marble, as well as the walls, which is however ſo tarniſhed by the ſmoke of the lamps and candles, that the plain ſtone of St Paul's looks full as well. The great altar is directly under the cupola, being a kind of pavilion ſupported by four wreathed brazen pillars, adorned with foliages and ſtrewed with bees, which were the arms of Pope Urban VIII, over every column of the altar is an angel, braſs gilt, ſeventeen feet high, with the figures of children playing and walking on the cornice, the height of the whole being ninety feet; and about the altar are an hundred ſilver lamps perpetually burning. The inſide of the cupola is adorned with Moſaick work repreſenting paradiſe, the eternal Father, and many other figures; and in the corners below are the four Evangeliſts of the ſame work, admirably well done: on the inſide of the four ſquare pillars that ſupport the cupola are erected gigantick ſtatues of St Veronica, St Helena, St Longinus, and St Andrew; and under the pedeſtal of each ſtatue is an altar with a beautiful picture of each ſaint. Theſe ſtatues and pictures are placed here in regard to certain relicks which are kept in the veſtries belonging to theſe altars or chapels, as they are called; as, 1. The handkerchief which, according to tradition, St Veronica lent our Saviour as he was carrying his croſs to mount Calvary, and ſtill retains the print of his face. (One of theſe handkerchiefs the reader will remember we met with at Turin; which is the right, I ſhall not take upon me to determine.) 2. A piece of the real croſs of Chriſt. 3. The top of the launce wherewith Longinus pierced our Saviour's ſide, ſent as a preſent by Bajazet, Emperor of the Turks, to Pope Innocent VIII. And, 4. The head of St Andrew. Under the high altar there is a pair of ſtairs which leads to the chapel, where 'tis ſaid, part of St Peter's body is kept, and to the other holy places in the vaults of this church. An old wooden chair, ſuppoſed to be St Peter's, encloſed in braſs, and ſupported by four Doctors of the Latin church, whoſe Coloſſean ſtatues are of braſs gilt, is not one of the leaſt ornaments of St Peter's; the chair, with all it's furniture, having coſt ſeven thouſand five hundred and fifty Roman crowns. The riches and beauty of the chapels and altars round the walls of this church can never be expreſſed; the gilding, carving, emboſs'd work, ſtatues of braſs and marble are all diſpoſed by ſo wiſe and happy a contrivance, according to a late traveller, that the abundance does not cauſe the leaſt confuſion. Among other admirable pieces, the dead Chriſt of alabaſter by Michael Angelo is ſaid to be a ſtupendous work; the two wreathed pillars of alabaſter brought from Jeruſalem by Helen, the mother of Constantine, and erected at a ſide-altar, are much admired; the altar-piece repreſenting St Michael in Moſaick work ſhews ſuch a vivacity of colours and exact proportions of all the parts and lineaments of the body, that it paſſes for a wonder of it's kind; the martyrdom of St Sebastian, the viſitation of the bleſſed Virgin, the crucifixion of St Peter, the fall of Simon Magus, and a thouſand other hiſtorical pieces, are exquiſite performances. There are alſo a great number of tombs of Popes, Cardinals, and other perſons of diſtinction; particulary thoſe of the Emperor Otho II, Charlotte Queen



The West end of S^T. PETER'S at ROME

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of Jeruſalem, Cyprus, and Armenia, and of ADRIAN IV, the only Engliſh Pope. The tomb of St PETER ſerves for an altar to ſay maſs on; the tombs URBAN VIII, PAUL III, ALEXANDER III, the Counteſs MATHILDA, who gave her eſtate to the church, are works of a finiſh'd beauty and magnificence: Nor does the tomb of CHRISTINA Queen of Sweden, who voluntarily abandoned the glories of a crown for a religious retirement, fall ſhort of the reſt. I ſhall conclude the deſcription of the inſide of St PETER's with the general account of it given us by DE LA MOTRAYE. It is adorned, ſays that gentleman, with above an hundred columns of the fineſt, and for the moſt part antique marble, with ſome of braſs: twenty-nine altars exquiſitely deſigned; with ſeveral incomparable ſtatues, eſpecially the brazen ones which ſupport St PETER's chair: there are alſo two ſtatues which adorn the glorious tomb of PAUL III, which are eſteemed ſome of the moſt valuable remains of antient Rome, eſpecially that of the young woman repreſenting juſtice. Here are alſo an infinite number of excellent paintings, the maſter-pieces of the moſt celebrated pencils, with ſeveral other curioſities of art and nature, which can never be too much admired or applauded for their magnificence. The ſacriſty of this church and that of the Pope's contain alſo a vaſt variety of ſacred utenſils in gold and ſilver, enriched with precious ſtones, as croſſes, ſhrines, chalices, pontifical tiara's, mitres, prieſtly habits and ornaments that are ineſtimable. But if we look upon the building only, excluſive of the rich materials and furniture, the church of St PAUL's in London, according to modern travellers, is very little inferior to that of St PETER's: Nay, there are ſome that ſay St PAUL's is to be preferred to it; not being encumbered with chapels on the ſides, as that of St PETER's is, which tho' they contain abundance of rich furniture and exquiſite paintings, hinder and obſcure the proſpect of the whole. That ſpacious court in the front of St PETER's indeed, ſurrounded by a piazza of two hundred and eighty-ſix fine marble columns, adorned with a prodigions number of ſtatues, gives it ſome advantage of St PAUL's. Here alſo is that obeliſk already mentioned, erected by SIXTUS V, and two fine fountains playing in the middle of the area, which are no ſmall addition to the beauty of it; from whence we aſcend to a lofty portico before the church by four and twenty ſteps, and from this porch the church is entered by five doors, one of which, called the *Porta Sancta*, is opened only in the jubilee year. On the other hand, as the palace of the Vatican is contiguous to St PETER's much of the beauty of the building is loſt to thoſe who view it on the outſide. But to be a little more particular in deſcribing the magnificent porch: In the front it is eighty-five foot high, and ſupported by pillars three fathoms in circumference, the vaulted roof gilded and beautified with Stucco work, and on the architrave is the following inſcription, viz. *In honorem principis Apoſtolorum, Paulus Quintus Burgheſius Romanus, Summus Pontifex Anno* 1612. Over the porch are the ſtatues of our Saviour and the twelve Apoſtles; and in a balcony here the Popes are crowned in the view of all the people. The two principal doors of the church are above forty foot high and covered with braſs, on which are repreſented our Saviour, the Virgin MARY, the crucifixion of St PETER, the decollation of St PAUL, the coronation of the Emperor SIGISMUND by EUGENIUS IV, and the re-union of the Greek and Roman Churches.

There is one thing related by VERYARD of this church, which I don't meet with in any other writer; and that is, that, contrary to all others, it opens to the eaſt: which was occaſioned, he apprehends, from it's ſituation; for had it been otherwiſe built, the back part would have looked towards the city. This is a fact which ſome who have reſided at Rome could not ſatisfy me in; but I ſhall make a further enquiry into it before I leave Italy, that the reader may not remain in the ſame ſuſpenſe I do at preſent. This church ſtands in the ſame place where the Emperor CONSTANTINE the Great erected one in the year 324, with the materials of the Circus built by CALIGULA and NERO, and dedicated it to the honour of St PETER, upon a tradition that this Apoſtle and many other ſaints ſuffered martyrdom here by the command of NERO. Here alſo 'tis ſaid ſtood the little ſubterraneous chapel or oratory of CLITUS, the firſt Biſhop of Rome, concealed from the Pagans till the reign of CONSTANTINE. The church built by CONSTANTINE, which was a moſt magnificent fabrick, falling to decay about the year 1450, Pope NICHOLAS V, formed a deſign of rebuilding it from the ground, which his death preventing, his ſucceſſor Pope JULIUS II. had the honour of beginning it, the plan being laid by that famous architect BRAMANTE LAZARI, and continued by MICHAEL ANGELO under the pontificate of PAUL III, nor was it finiſhed till the time of Pope PAUL V, ſo that it was an hundred years in compleating.

St John de Lateran.

2. The church of St JOHN DE LATERAN, though inferior to St PETER's in it's dimenſions and architecture, is indeed the metropolitan church of Rome: It was built by CONSTANTINE after his converſion to the Chriſtian faith, and by him ſtiled the firſt or head of all the churches in the world, *Mater Orbis & Urbis*. The Emperors antiently received their crowns here: and here the Pope ſtill takes poſſeſſion of his dignity, and confers all eccleſiaſtical characters and orders. The fabrick of this church hath been much enlarged ſince the time of CONSTANTINE, and is very beautiful. It has five doors, one of which is called the *Porta Sancta*, which is only opened in the year of Jubilee (every twenty-fifth year). The body of the church is long and large, ſupported by two rows of pillars on each ſide; the roof is gilt, and the pavement curiouſly inlaid with the fineſt marble: The number of it's precious ſhrines, rich ornaments, and utenſils, are very great; but nothing is more valued on account of it's holineſs, than a plain tin chalice, which, 'tis ſaid, was uſed by St PETER, and a portable wooden altar, incloſed in the great one; whereupon, according to the Roman tradition, that Apoſtle and his immediate ſucceſſors ſaid maſs. The tabernacle of the high altar is a beautiful piece; and amongſt a great number of columns that are placed in the moſt exact order for the ſymmetry and conſtruction of this church, there are twenty-four of Verd Antico, and four others of hollow braſs of the Corinthian order, fifteen feet high, ſaid to be brought from Jeruſalem; but according to others, were taken from the temple

of Jupiter Capitolinus. The little church adjoining to this, dedicated to St John Baptiſt, is much admired alſo on account of it's fine columns, it's old brazen doors, and the font, where, according to tradition, Constantine was baptized. The piazza of St John de Lateran, with the noble obeliſk and fountain in the middle of it, and the fine buildings which ſurround the cathedral, form all together a very delightful ſcene.

St Mary Maggiore.

3. The church of St Mary Maggiore, though it's dimenſions are not large, is eſteemed one of the moſt beautiful in Rome; the body of it is ſupported by fine marble pillars of the Ionick order, the roof gilt, and the walls adorned with Moſaick work; but the greateſt curioſity is the chapel of Paul V; the altar whereof is prodigiouſly rich and ſplendid, the back of it being one entire piece of Lapis Lazuli, ſixteen feet in height, and twelve in breadth, with a ſpace in the middle containing an antient picture of the bleſſed Virgin, covered almoſt with jewels of an immenſe value, ſaid to have been drawn by St Luke himſelf. The marble walls of the chapel are adorned with bas-reliefs, repreſenting the principal actions of Paul V, and Clement VIII, whoſe ſtatues are likewiſe here. Over againſt this chapel is that of Sixtus V, the building and adorning whereof is ſaid to have coſt eight hundred thouſand crowns; here alſo in bas-relief are repreſented the great actions of Sixtus V, and in it is kept the manger, where, 'tis ſaid, our Saviour was laid in the ſtable of Bethlehem.

St Paul.

4. The church of St. Paul, about a mile out of the city, built by Constantine, and enlarged and beautified by ſeveral Popes, is in the form of a croſs, ſeven hundred and eighty feet in length, and two hundred and ſixty in breadth, ſupported by an hundred ſtately marble pillars, taken from the baths of Antoninus, one half of them being of ſtriate marble, with capitals of the Corinthian order finely wrought: the high altar is a noble piece of architecture, ſupported by pillars of jaſper, and, according to tradition, contains the croſs which ſpoke to St Bridget, with half the bodies of St Peter and St Paul, the other half remaining in St Peter's. The roof is adorned with moſaick work of twelve hundred years ſtanding; as is the pavement, which paſſes for one of the greateſt curioſities in Rome. On the altar of St Stephen is a beautiful picture of the ſtoning of that martyr, done by that ingenious female Lavinia Fontana. The doors of this church are of braſs, exquiſitely wrought, containing ſeveral pieces of ſacred hiſtory in bas-relief.

St. Laurence.

5. The church of St Laurence without the walls, built alſo by Constantine: it is ſupported by thirty-two fair marble pillars, and the pavement beautified with moſaick work. The high altar is adorned with pillars of jaſper; and under it are repoſited, as it is ſaid, the bodies of St Stephen the Proto-Martyr, St Laurence and St Justin. From this church there is a paſſage into the catacomb of St Cyriacus.

St Sebaſtian.

6. The church of St Sebastian without the walls, on the *Via Appia*, was alſo founded by Constantine: but it is not remarkable for any thing, unleſs a beautiful altar, the tomb of St Sebastian, and the print of our Saviour's foot, which, according to tradition, was left upon one of the ſtones that is ſhewn in this church, when he aſcended into heaven. From hence is a paſſage into the catacomb of St Calixtus.

St Croce.

7. The church of St Croce in Gieruſalemme, built alſo by Constantine, at the requeſt of his mother Helena, as it is ſaid, out of the ruins of the temple of Venus and Cupid. The moſt remarkable things here are, 1. The high altar. 2. The pavement of Moſaick work. 3. The roof of the choir, whereon is repreſented the finding of the croſs by St Helena, which, it is ſaid, was diſtinguiſhed from thoſe of the two thieves by ſick peoples being cured by the touch of it. 4. A chapel under ground, where only the Pope ſays maſs. And, 5. Some of the pieces of ſilver, for which Judas betrayed his maſter. Theſe are the ſeven churches uſually viſited by pilgrims; beſides which, there are others equal to ſeveral of them; as the churches of the Jeſuits, that of St Agnes in the piazza Navona; the church dedicated to St Mary della Minerva, and the three noble churches in the piazza del Populo, each of them dedicated to the Bleſſed Virgin.

Ara Cœli.

I ſhall conclude the deſcription of the Roman churches with a tradition concerning that called Ara Cœli, which ſtands in the place where the temple of Jupiter Feretrius once did. The Emperor Augustus, it is ſaid, conſulting the Cumean Sibyl on ſome future events, and amongſt other queſtions, demanding if any one ſhould hereafter be born greater than himſelf; ſhe ſhewed him the Virgin Mary with our Saviour in her arms, in a circle about the ſun, telling him that child ſhould be greater; whereupon the Emperor from that day renouncing all his auguſt titles, and owning himſelf a mortal man, while he was worſhipped as a god by the people, erected a temple and altar in this place, calling it Ara Cœli. The moſt remarkable thing in this church is the tomb of St Helena. It belongs to the Franciſcan Fryars, whoſe General uſually reſides in the adjoining convent. There are above an hundred white marble ſteps aſcending from the ſtreet to this church.

Hoſpitals.

Next to the churches their hoſpitals come naturally to be treated of; and theſe are no leſs than forty in number; ſome for the old and infirm, others for orphans, for fools and madmen, for pilgrims, for women unhappily married, for decayed gentlemen, for leud women who have left their ill courſes, and a very large one for infants expoſed in the ſtreets by their wretched parents.

St Spirito.

The chief hoſpital is that of St Spirito, near the Vatican, erected by Innocent III, above five hundred years ago, for expoſed infants, on his finding great numbers of them at the bottom of the Tiber: it has been much enlarged by ſucceeding Popes, and appears now like a little town. Beſides children, they receive here above a thouſand ſick and infirm perſons; and have apartments for poor gentlemen, where they are treated in a better manner than in common hoſpitals. It is under the government of a Cardinal, who hath his palace within the walls of it. The revenues amounting to near forty thouſand pounds per annum, and they have apothecaries ſhops well furniſhed within the houſe, with phyſicians and ſurgeons who alſo reſide here. As to the foundling children, their parents, or any other perſon for them, carry them to a back wall of the hoſpital, where a place is made to receive them, and ringing a bell, a ſervant comes and takes the child, aſking no other queſtion, but whether it be baptized. The boys are educated by monks, and the girls by nuns, in different apartments, and are provided for when they grow up.

Every nation in Europe, where the Roman Catholick religion is profeſſed, have their hoſpitals for pilgrims in this city, but this of the Trinity receives all indifferently; inſomuch, that it hath lodged and fed at one time fifteen thouſand perſons, beſides their ordinary quota. The manner of receiving and treating of the pilgrims is thus: every evening thoſe who are newly arrived preſent themſelves before the officers of the houſe, and producing their certificates, are entered on the regiſter, each perſon receiving a medal, or ticket of his admiſſion: after this they are led into a large room, where a prieſt having read prayers, waſhes all their feet, and dreſſes ſuch as are hurt with travelling: after which they are brought into the refectory, where having ſupped, they are ſhewn the common dormitory, and each man having his bed aſſigned him, the prieſt after ſome ſhort exhortations and prayers leaves them to take their reſt.

The Pazzarella.

Pazzarella, or hoſpital for mad people, pretty much reſembles Bedlam in it's inſtitution, unleſs it be that the charity is more extenſive, and provides for perſons of all countries who are diſordered in their ſenſes, as appears from a ſtory related by a traveller of reputation. He ſays he was walking in this mad-houſe with another Engliſh gentleman, who had reſided ſeveral years at Rome, who took that opportunity of acquainting him with an adventure of two Engliſh Quakers, who were merchants in Italy, and had learnt the language. Theſe gentlemen, it ſeems, in the abundance of their zeal, looked upon it as a meritorious undertaking to endeavour the converſion of his Holineſs the Pope, and accordingly applied themſelves to his domeſticks for an audience; nor were they at all backward in declaring their buſineſs in their uſual cant and phraſes. They were laughed at, at firſt, as people that were diſpoſed to be merry; but continuing their ſollicitations from day to day with great earneſtneſs, they were at length taken for madmen, and the Pope's officers, in meer charity, ſent them to Bedlam, or the Pazzarella, as it is called. The Governor of the houſe taking their zeal and unuſual tranſports for certain ſymptoms of a diſtempered brain, ſhut them up in a dungeon, and treated them with the utmoſt rigour: the phyſicians alſo purged them off their legs, repeating and ſtrengthening their doſes, as they obſerved their flights and extaſies increaſe; but all proving ineffectual, they were at length neglected as infatuated perſons, paſt all cure, and permitted to walk about the houſe among the harmleſs lunaticks; till the above-mentioned gentleman coming to ſee the hoſpital with ſome friends, and meeting theſe Quakers, after a little diſcourſe with them, underſtanding the bottom of the matter, procured them to be diſmiſſed, and ſent to England; where no doubt they acquainted their friends with the ſucceſs of their adventure, which probably deterred their brethren from making any further attempts of this nature. But to return to the charitable inſtitutions at Rome: beſides many other publick hoſpitals, almoſt every company or body of artiſans have their hoſpitals among themſelves, and provide for ſuch of the fraternity as are infirm, or otherwiſe diſtreſſed, till they can procure them admiſſion into the greater hoſpitals. In the church of the twelve Apoſtles are choſen annually, twelve noblemen, and one Prelate, called their Prior, who make it their buſineſs to ſearch every corner of the city, to find out poor men in want who are aſhamed to beg, and relieve their neceſſities. Even the lawyers of Rome, the colleges of advocates and attornies, 'tis ſaid, aſſign one day in a week for accommodating poor men's ſuits, or bringing them to an iſſue at their own charge.

There are hoſpitals alſo founded for poor maids, who are educated and provided for till they come to women's eſtate, when they have their choice of a married life or a nunnery; to three hundred of whom the Pope annually diſtributes a purſe of money, as their portion; and the Cardinals, and other charitable people do the ſame for others: and ſome Monks and Friars in the religious houſes make it their buſineſs to teach grammar to the children of poor people gratis, to fit them for the univerſity; which brings me to enquire after the education of lads in their ſeminaries and colleges.

Colleges.

The univerſity and publick ſchools here, called the Sapienza, were founded by Pope Eugenius IV, enlarged and beautified by Urban VIII and Alexander VII. The ſtructure is magnificent, and the ſchools of all the faculties extremely commodious; and there are no leſs than forty Profeſſors, who have good ſalaries; but they have very little buſineſs ſince the erecting the Jeſuits college, who ſeem to have engroſſed the education of youth here, and in moſt Roman Catholick countries. A modern traveller relates, that at his being at Rome, all the readers of this univerſity together, except thoſe of law and phyſick, had not forty auditors, beſides ſome ſtrangers who accidentally came in, and whoſe preſence ſeemed very acceptable: the Profeſſors being obliged to read lectures at their ſtated hours, though nobody attended them. Every nation almoſt has it's particular ſeminary or college in Rome, who ſend their ſtudents however twice a day to the Roman college of Jeſuits, which was founded for divinity, philoſophy, and mathematicks, by Gregory XIII: it is a large and noble building, with a magnificent new church, eſteemed equal to any in Rome, except St Peter's. The Engliſh college was formerly an hoſpital for pilgrims of this nation, and converted into a college by Gregory XIII. Cardinal Howard much enlarged and beautified it, and built himſelf a palace adjoining to it. The ſuperiors of this college are Jeſuits, but the ſtudents of the ſecular clergy, and ſeldom exceed eighteen or twenty, though the foundation be for fifty or more. Every one who is admitted to ſtudy here, after ſix months probation, is obliged to take a vow to enter into orders after having compleated his ſtudies, to ſerve ſo many years as a miſſionary in England, and not to enter into any order of regulars.

Palaces.

The palaces in Rome are very numerous, the nobility of Italy chuſing to reſide moſt part of the year in towns: and as architecture is one of their favourite amuſements, and they are furniſhed with greater variety of rich materials from the ruins of the old city, and their own quarries, than are to be met with elſewhere; it is no wonder if the beauty of their houſes in general exceeds that of other cities; for we are not to imagine but there are palaces in Europe which equal, and even ſurpaſs any that we meet with in Rome, particularly ſome of the French King's; and as to thoſe of private noblemen, that of the Duke of Devonſhire at Chatſworth, and ſome others in England, do not fall ſhort of the beſt in Italy.

The Vatican.

The palace of the Vatican, near St Peter's church at Rome, where the Pope uſually reſides in winter, is large and commodious, but far from a regular building. It is, according to a late writer, a heap of good pieces ill joined together, as Princes houſes generally are; advantageouſly ſituated on an eminence, to which we aſcend from St Peter's church by a good number of ſtairs, which lead into the great hall, or Sala Regia, where the Pope gives audience to Ambaſſadors; much admired, for the exquiſite paintings with which it is adorned, as the Pope's condemnation of hereſy, his return from Avignon after he had been driven from Rome, the ſubdued Emperor Frederick's kiſſing his toe, St Leo in his pontifical habit meeting Attila King of the Huns, the circumciſion of St Peter and the converſion of St Paul by Michael Angelo, the victory over the Turks at Lepanto, &c. The parts of this palace moſt admired, are the great ſtair-caſe, the apartment where the Conclave is held, the Pope's apartment on the eaſt ſide, the Clementine hall, that in which they preach in Lent to the Papal family; but above all, the building which contains the Vatican library, which is ſo beautiful a fabrick, that, according to a late traveller, it will admit of no addition: nor is the library itſelf inferior to the caſe, being the richeſt in the world, both in printed books and manuſcripts; and indeed, it is not a ſingle library, but a collection of ſome of the beſt in Europe, as the Elector Palatine's, the Duke of Urbino's, &c. with nineteen hundred ſcarce manuſcripts, preſented by Christina Queen of Sweden. Dr Burnet in his deſcription of this library ſays, the caſe is great, but that which is lodged in it much greater; for here is a collection of books which fills a man's eye. There is firſt a great hall, and at the end of it there run two galleries, of ſo vaſt a length, that though the half of them is already furniſhed with books, yet one would hope there is room left for more new books than the world will ever produce. When it appeared I was come from England, ſays the ſame writer, King Henry VIII's book of the Seven Sacraments was ſhewn me, with an inſcription upon it with his own hand to Leo X; together with a collection of ſome letters which he wrote to Anna Bullen, of which ſome are Engliſh, and ſome are French; 'I that knew his hand well, ſaw clearly they were no forgeries.' A copy of one of theſe is given us by Mr Addison, and is as follows:

'THE cauſe of my writing at this time, is to hear of your health and proſperity, of which I would be as glad as in manner of my own; praying God, that it be his pleaſure to ſend us ſhortly together; for I promiſe I long for it, howbeit, I truſt it ſhall not be long too: and ſeeing my darling is abſent, I can no leſs do than ſend her ſome fleſh, prognoſticating that hereafter thou muſt have ſome of mine; which if he pleaſe, I would have now. As touching your ſiſter's mother, I have conſigned Walter Welsh to write to my Lord Mauwring my mind therein, whereby I truſt he ſhall not have power to diſſeid her; for ſurely, whatever is ſaid, it cannot ſo ſtand with his honour, but that he muſt needs take his natural daughter in her extreme neceſſity. No more to you at this time, my own darling, but that with a whiſtle I wiſh we were together one evening by the hand of yours

Henry.'

Theſe letters are ſhewn to every Engliſhman who viſits the Vatican library. The manuſcripts of greateſt antiquity, if they are genuine, are a Virgil and Terence above fourteen hundred years old; the goſpels, written by the hand of St Chrysostom; an antient Hebrew bible, written on pieces of parchment faſtened together in length, and rolled up, from whence comes the word *volumen*, ſignifying a book. There are alſo ſeveral antient bibles in all the oriental languages; Chineſe and Japonian books, antient Roman table-books, &c. The library, as well as the reſt of the palace, is adorned with excellent paintings; among the reſt there is a repreſentation of all the general councils, antient libraries, and learned men, who have contributed to the advancement of arts and ſciences. Theſe paintings and inſcriptions make Adam, inſtructed by God, the firſt inventor of ſciences and letters; the ſons of Seth of aſtronomy; Abraham the author of the Syriac and Chaldean; and Moses of the antient Hebrew; and Esdras of the modern. In the ſame pieces Jesus Christ is repreſented as the ſovereign teacher of the heavenly doctrine, and the Pope his Vicar, under the form of Sixtus V, ſaid to be the beſt reſemblance of that Pope. And, laſtly, the Emperor is repreſented as defender of the church and the catholick faith. In the ſame manner the General Councils are embelliſhed with what was moſt remarkable in them. In the Council of Nice is repreſented the condemnation of Arius, for denying that Christ was of the ſame ſubſtance with the Father. In that of Epheſus is the condemnation of Nestorius, for having ſeparated the two natures of Christ, and denying the Virgin Mary to be the mother of God. In that of Trent the condemnation of the Lutherans and other Proteſtants called hereticks; and ſo of the reſt. There are three galleries over one another in the Vatican, filled with the paintings of the greateſt maſters, which muſt not be forgot: one of them is covered with pieces of ſacred hiſtory, done by the celebrated Raphael. The chapel of Sixtus V, adjoining to the Sala Regia, is admired for it's ſtructure, as well as a repreſentation of the Laſt Judgment by Michael Angelo, held to be inimitable: the paintings in the Capella Paulina over-againſt it are equally admired. In another part of the palace the victory of Constantine over Maxentius, the reſignation and renunciation made by Constantine to St Sylvester by putting the plan of Rome into his hands, the coronation of Charlemagne, and many other admirable pieces of painting are ſhewn, which would be too tedious to enumerate.

Belvidere.

From the palace ſtrangers are led to the adjoining garden of Belvidere, ſo called from it's delightful ſituation: it is divided into three parts, or rather is three entire gardens, the firſt travellers denominate the Privy-Garden, full of pleaſant walks, fountains, and caſcades; and here lies the famous pine-apple of gilt braſs, which antiently ſtood on the Moles Adriani, and contained the aſhes of that Emperor, being three fathom in circumference; and by it are two large peacocks of the ſame metal, taken from the tomb of Scipio Africanus. The ſecond garden is remarkable for a great variety of antique ſtatues; among which is that of Laocoon with his two children, and ſerpents twining about them, of one entire piece of marble; a dying Cleopatra, Apollo, Pythias, Venus coming out of a bath, with the repreſentations of Nile and Tiber in cumbent poſtures, and many others, all of marble, and ſo exquiſitely wrought, that they are eſteemed ſome of the beſt pieces of antiquity. The third encloſure is admired for it's fine walks, fountains, grotto's, and exotick trees. I ſhall leave the palace of the Vatican with obſerving, that moſt travellers relate it contains above twelve thouſand rooms, which, conſidering the largeneſs of many of them, ſeems incredible; I believe moſt of our writers take this fact from others, as little acquainted with the matter as themſelves; and indeed I am ſo far of Misson's mind, that it is not worth any man's while to number them, if he had leiſure and opportunity of doing it: it is ſufficient that we acknowledge it to be vaſtly large, and equal to the grandeur of it's maſter, who wears the triple crown, and claims the ſovereignty of all the Princes and States upon earth.

The palace of Monte Cavallo or the Quirinal.

The ſecond of the Pope's palaces is that of Monte Cavallo, or the Quirinal, ſituate on the Mons Quirinalis, where the Pope uſually reſides in the heat of ſummer; ſaid to take it's name from two gigantick ſtatues of Alexander with their Bucephali, erected before the gate, the works of Phidias and Praxiteles, and preſented by Tyridates King of Armenia to Nero, according to tradition. This place, tho' much leſs than the Vatican, containing but ſeventeen hundred rooms, is fit to receive the greateſt monarch in the world. Here alſo are an infinite number of exquiſite paintings, and it's furniture is anſwerable to the magnificence of the building: but what travellers moſt admire are it's gardens, where the walks are planted with myrtle, laurel, and orange-trees, and adorned with near two hundred fountains, which continually diſcharge large ſources of water; and here is a grotto where organs are played by water, accompanied with the notes of birds, which make a very agreeable harmony. Among a great number of antique ſtatues placed here, thoſe of Apollo and Jupiter the Thunderer are preferred to the reſt.

The Capitol.

The third of the Pope's palaces is the Capitol, a modern ſtructure built upon the ruins of the antient Capitol, admired for it's agreeable ſituation and the antiquities it contains, as the two lions of Egyptian marble, which throw up vaſt floods of water; the two Coloſſus's called Castor and Pollux, and two horſes of the fineſt marble, with the trophies of Marius and Trajan; the equeſtrain ſtatue of Marcus Aurelius braſs gilt, with the celebrated fountain of Aqua Felice, in the middle of the ſquare; the ſtatue of Adrian, in the habit of a Prieſt going to ſacrifice; that of Faustina Antiqua on the ſtair-caſe, and thoſe of Juno and Agrippina; the lion devouring a horſe; the buſts of Trajan and Antoninus Pius; the brazen tables whereon the antient law is engraven in golden characters. Among the modern curioſities are the marble buſts of Urban VIII, Leo X, Alexander Farnese, and other Generals of the church; the brazen Coloſſus's of Innocent XI and Sixtus V; the marble ſtatue of Queen Christina, with a Latin inſcription, purporting, that having triumphed over herſelf, preferring a religious retirement to the throne of her anceſtors, and ſubmitted herſelf to the apoſtolick See, ſhe aſcended the Capitol, where admiring the old Roman grandeur in it's majeſtick ruins, ſhe conferred regal honours on the Senate and Conſuls aſſembled there. The antiquities in the chamber of the Feſtus Conſulares are alſo much admired; the heads of Socrates, Diogenes, and Plato; the repreſentation of the antient magiſtrates in marble, the head of Mithridates, the ſtatues of Silence, Cybele, and Ceres, that of Hercules in braſs, and that of the Courier's taking a thorn out of his foot, Romulus and Remus ſuckled by a wolf, Hercules, Brutus, and other antient heroes. Among the hiſtorical pieces in the great hall are, the rape of the Sabines, the fight between the Horatii and Curatii, Horatius Cocles defending the bridge againſt the army of Tarquin, and the bold action of Mutius Scævola. From the Capitol ſtrangers are led to the Tarpeian rock, from whence traitors uſed to be precipitated; of whom Titus Manilius was the firſt, a perſon who had received ſix crowns for having diſtinguiſhed himſelf as often in his country's ſervice, and thirty-ſeven rich preſents as marks of the republick's gratitude and affection: he had alſo received three and thirty wounds in the fore-part of his body, and obtained the ſurname of Capitolinus from his defending the Capitol againſt the Gauls; yet for his aſpiring to the ſovereignty, and endeavouring to render himſelf maſter of the city, was condemned to be thrown from this rock: which would not have been looked upon as a very ſevere ſentence, if it had been no higher than it is at this day, when travellers tell us it is but an ordinary leap; ſo much is the face of the ground altered.

The palace of the chancery.

The next palace I ſhall mention is the apoſtolick chancery, which, according to De la Motraye, may be ranked among the fineſt palaces of Rome, if we regard the regularity of it's architecture, the diſpoſition of it's apartments, and the happy diſtribution of the paintings and ſtatues which adorn it; of which the beſt judges prefer the two Christs by Raphael, the bleſſed Virgin by Guido Rheni, and the Adonis by Spagnoletto. This palace was built out of the ruins of Vespasian's amphitheatre, and the triumphal arch of Gordianus.

Of Farneſe.

The palace of Farneſe, belonging to the Duke of Parma, and built by Pope Paul III, is a ſquare fabrick, and one of the moſt magnificent in Rome, admired by travellers for the piazza and fountains before it, and for it's beautiful front, an hundred and eighty foot in breadth, and ninety in height; for the ſtatue of Hercules Farnese in the court with his club and lion's ſkin, that of Augustus in the gallery; but chiefly for that of Dirce faſtened to the horns of a bull by her hair, with the figures of the perſons who bound her, endeavouring to throw both the bull and her into the ſea, all as large as the life, of one entire piece of marble, even to the rope, which is admirably imitated: but 'tis ſcarce credible, that the Venetians ſhould offer the weight in gold for this piece, admitting it to be as exquiſitely wrought as it's greateſt admirers can feign. In the hall is a fine ſtatue of Alexander Farnese Duke of Parma, the King of Spain's ſucceſsful General in the Netherlands, trampling upon two proſtrate ſtatues, repreſenting Hereſy and Rebellion, while he is crowned by a Fame. All theſe figures are of white marble, and of one entire ſtone: round the hall alſo ſtand a great number of ſtatues, repreſenting gladiators with their ſwords in their hands upon their guard in various poſtures. The cieling of the gallery, according to Dr Burnet, is one of the beſt pieces of painting extant; and among the great number of heads of the Greek philoſophers and poets that are here, the two that ſtruck him moſt were thoſe of Socrates and Homer, but chiefly the former; which, as it is really antique, carries in it all the characters which Plato and Xenophon give of Socrates, as the flat noſe, the broad face, the ſimplicity of look, and the mean appearance which that great philoſopher made. In the library are ſeveral admirable pieces of painting, amongſt which, the Laſt Judgment by Michael Angelo is one.

The palace of Giuſtiniani.

The palace Giuſtiniani near the Pantheon, is held to contain the greateſt number of antiquities and excellent paintings of any in Rome: one is ſtruck, ſays Motraye, at the very entrance of the court with the bas-beliefs and ſtatues which adorn it, eſpecially that of Marciana, repreſenting the goddeſs of health, that of Scipio Africanus, Ceres, &c. and on aſcending the ſteps to the houſe, one is agreeably detained by thoſe of Galienus, Antoninus, Titus Veſpaſian, and many more; and on the top of the ſteps with the buſts of Agrippina, Jupiter, Maximilian, Berenice in her hair, with an excellent bas-relief of Jupiter ſitting on mount Olympus, and drinking the milk of the goat Amalthea out of a horn, while a little Satyr dances and plays on an inſtrument before him.

The palace of Barberini.

The palace of Barberini alle Fontane, according to the ſame author, is incomparably magnificent, very large, and an invaluable treaſury of antiquities, adorned with the fineſt paintings and richeſt furniture. The palaces of Altieri, Colonna, Chigi, Mazarini, Pamfili, Altemps, Gaitani, and many others, would afford infinite ſatisfaction to thoſe who are judges in architecture, ſculpture, and painting; but it would be endleſs to enumerate all the beauties and curioſities of this nature in Rome. No city whatever, according to this writer, can ſhew either within it's walls, or in it's neighbourhood, ſo many fine palaces, adorned with ſo many different pieces of antiquity, and ſuch pleaſant gardens, where nature and art have each of them contributed their joint endeavours to beautify and enrich them; and of which whatever we ſee noble of that kind in other parts of Europe are but imitations; at leaſt, one can no where meet with ſo great a number of columns, ſtatues, and other curioſities, of ſuch different ſorts of marble, as oriental, Egyptian, ſerpentine, gial antico, verd antico, jaſper, &c. nor are there any where ſo many ingenious architects and carvers as in Rome and Italy, and who come ſo near to the perfection of the antients, and even ſurpaſs them in architecture. As for ſculpture, neither the modern ſtatuaries or engravers have been yet able to arrive at the art of giving their works ſo much life and ſpirit as the antients.

But notwithſtanding all theſe high flights in regard to the Roman architecture, Miſſon, in one of his letters, deſires his friend to lay aſide that partial opinion he had entertained of it: the Romans, ſays he, have no ſecret knowledge, or infuſed gifts, about this matter, beyond other men. And notwithſtanding all the eulogies that have been given to the palace of Farneſe, no Prince in Europe would at this day build him a palace exactly upon that model; and to affirm there is nothing in the world comparable to it, is only the effect of a prejudiced underſtanding. Without going out of England I ſhall always be in a condition to demonſtrate, that Chatſworth in Derbyſhire is preferable to the palace of Farneſe; and that the ſkilful Mr Talman, the architect of Chatſworth, who has made uſe of the knowledge of all the celebrated reſtorers of that art, had acquired a degree of capacity that exceeds perhaps that which Michael Angelo was maſter of in his time. It is not the materials of the palace of Farneſe, which is built with brick, and plaiſtered over, except the door-caſes and corner pieces; nor it's three rows of windows without pillars, like an hoſpital; nor the diſpoſition of the apartments, which are built now after a much more agreeable and convenient manner, than can be boaſted of in this, or any other Roman palace; but it is the famous antique ſtatues, pillars, and excellent paintings, that are to be admired in and about this houſe, which are foreign to, and no part of it. Nor is Miſſon the only traveller who is of this opinion. The contrivance of the Romans in their palaces, ſays Dr Burnet, is not to be admired; there are a great many things in them that offend the ſight; the doors are generally mean, and the locks meaner; the floors of brick bear no proportion to the reſt of the room, which creates a ſenſible diſlike. There is indeed a great ſeries of noble rooms one within another, of which their apartments are compoſed; but there is not at the end of the apartments where the bed-chamber is, ſuch a diſpoſition of rooms for back-ſtairs, dreſſing-rooms, cloſets, ſervants rooms, and other conveniencies, as are neceſſary for accommodating an apartment; ſo that, notwithſtanding all the riches of their palaces, it cannot be ſaid they are well lodged in them. Nor are their gardens kept up as they ought: indeed no people lay out ſo much wealth at once as the Italians do in building and finiſhing their palaces and gardens, and afterwards beſtow ſo little in preſerving them. As to furniture, the publick apartments of their palaces are all covered with pictures, but thoſe where they lodge are hung either with red velvet or damaſk, with a broad gold galoon at every breadth of the ſtuff, and a gold fringe at top and bottom; there is not much tapeſtry in Italy. But to return to their buildings; their palaces are uſually built about a ſquare court, like that of Somerſet-houſe, having a piazza below, and galleries above; and ſometimes a colonade and fountains before them, as well as in their courts and gardens. Give me leave to add a word or two out of the judicious Mr Addison, in relation to the materials their antique pillars are compoſed of: Several of theſe pillars, ſays that gentleman, are certainly rated at a much lower price now than they were of old; for not to mention what a huge column of granite, ſerpentine, or porphyry, muſt have coſt in the quarry, or in it's carriage from Egypt to Rome, we may only conſider the great difficulty of hewing it into any form, and of giving it the due turn, proportion, and poliſh. It is well known how theſe ſorts of marble reſiſt the impreſſion of ſuch inſtruments as are now in uſe. There is indeed a Milanois at Rome who works in them; but his advances are ſo very ſlow that he ſcarce lives by it. He ſhowed me a piece of porphyry worked into an ordinary ſalver, which coſt him four months continual application before he could bring it into that form. The antients had probably ſome ſecret to harden the edges of their tools, without recurring to thoſe extravagant opinions of their having an art to mollify the ſtone, or that it was naturally ſofter at it's firſt cutting from the rock, or what is ſtill more abſurd, that it was an artificial compoſition, and not the natural product of mines and quarries.

The moſt valuable pillars about Rome for the marble of which they are made, are the four columns of oriental jaſper in St PAULINA's chapel at St MARIA MAGGIORE; two of oriental granite in St PUDENZIANA; one of tranſparent oriental jaſper in the Vatican library; four of nero bianco in St CECILIA TRANSTEVERE; two of brocatella, and two of oriental agate in Don LIVIO's palace; two of giallo antico in St JOHN DE LATERAN's; and two of verdi antique in the Villa Pamphilia. Theſe are all entire and ſolid pillars; and made of ſuch kinds of marble as are no where to be found but among antiquities, whether it be that the veins of it are undiſcovered, or that they are quite exhauſted upon the antient buildings. Amongſt theſe old pillars, there is great part of an alabaſter column found in the ruins of LIVIA's portico, of the colour of fire, which is now placed over the high altar of St MARIA in Campitello, having been cut in two pieces, and fixed in the ſhape of a croſs, in a hole in the wall made on purpoſe to receive it; ſo that the light paſſing through it from without, makes it appear to thoſe who are in the church like a huge tranſparent croſs of amber. As to the workmanſhip of the old Roman pillars, it is obſerved, that the antients have not kept to the nicety of proportion, and the rules of art, ſo much as the moderns; for which the workmen of Egypt and other nations are ſometimes blamed, who ſent moſt of the antient pillars ready ſhaped to Rome. Others are of opinion, that the antients knowing architecture was chiefly deſigned to pleaſe the eye, only took care to avoid ſuch diſproportions, as were groſs enough to be obſerved by the ſight, without minding whether or no they approached to a mathematical exactneſs. Others again imagine it to be an effect of art, and of what the Italians call the guſto grande, rather than of any negligence in the architect; for that the antients always conſidered the ſituation of a building, whether it was high or low, in an open ſquare or in a narrow ſtreet, and more or leſs deviated from the rules of art, to comply with the ſeveral diſtances and elevations from which their works might be viewed.

Piazza's or ſquares.

There are alſo ſome noble piazza's in Rome called, by the French, Places, and by the Engliſh ſquares, let them be of what form they will, ſeveral of which have obeliſks or pillars, and fountains in the middle of them. The chief whereof are, 1. The antient Forum Romanum, now the Campo Vaccino, where formerly ſtood the Roſtra, made of the ſtems of ſhips. Here cauſes were heard, and orators harangued the people, and here the decrees of the Senate were publiſhed. The head of CICERO, who had often honoured this place with his eloquent orations, was ſet upon a pike here by the command of MARK ANTHONY, againſt whom it was ſuppoſed his Philippicks were written. Here alſo travellers are ſhewn the place, where, according to tradition, there was a gulph or lake, which had ſwallowed up ſeveral houſes, and infected the whole city with a peſtilential air; which the people having long in vain endeavoured to fill up, and conſulting the oracle about it, were told nothing would avail, unleſs the moſt precious thing in Rome were thrown into in. After having caſt in great quantities of ſilver, gold, and jewels, without ſucceſs, MARCUS CURTIUS, a noble Roman, imagining nothing could be more precious than the life of a young man, threw himſelf well armed and mounted into the pit; whereupon the gulph cloſed, and the contagion immediately ceaſed. 2. The piazza di Paſquino, ſo called from an old broken ſtatue, ſtanding againſt the wall at the corner of one of the ſtreets which opens into this ſquare, on which are faſtened all lampoons and libels, from thence called Paſquinades; which are anſwered by others fixed to an old ſtatue, in another part of Rome, called MARPHORIO. 3. The piazza Colonna. 4. The piazza Navona. 5. The piazza Farneſe. 6. The piazza de Spagna. And, 7. The piazza del Populo; where moſt of the principal ſtreets meet, before the gate del Populo, antiently the Flaminian gate, through which ſeveral great roads lie to other cities of Italy. And this naturally brings me to the antient Roman highways, the remains whereof are not the leaſt inſtance of their grandeur. The chief of them were the Via Flaminia and the Via Appia; though there was ſcarce a ſingle city that had not a way paved to it, on which travellers and carriages might go in the depth of winter, as well as in ſummer. The Via Flaminia, ſo called from the noble Roman who projected it, led to Ariminum, now Rimini, and was begun to be paved in the year of Rome 533. It was afterwards carried by the Emperor VESPASIAN over the Apennine, as far as the Adriatick ſea; extending above two hundred miles, ſeveral other ways branching out from it. The Via Appia, ſo called from blind APPIUS the Senator, who directed the work, led from the Porta Capena or Appia, to Capua and Brunduſium; extending three hundred and fifty miles and upwards, and was paved in the year of Rome 442, from whence alſo ſeveral other ways were branched out to the cities in the ſouth-weſt parts of Italy. We travelled, ſays Mr RAY, a whole afternoon along the Tiber upon the Via Flaminia, which reaches quite croſs Italy from Rome to Rimini; it is paved with broad flints and pebbles, having on each ſide a border of ſtone, and in that border, at every ſecond or third pace, a ſtone ſtanding above the level of the border. The Via Appia, according to Dr BURNET, is ſtill in a good condition in many places between Rome and Naples. This highway is twelve foot broad, all made of huge ſtones, moſt of them blue, generally a foot and a half large on all ſides. The ſtrength of this cauſeway appears in it's long duration, for it hath laſted above eighteen hundred years, and is in moſt places for ſeveral miles together as entire as when it was firſt made: and the botches that have been made in mending ſuch places as have been worn out by time, ſhews a very viſible difference between the antient and modern way of paving. One thing ſeems ſtrange, that the way is level with the earth on both ſides; whereas ſo much weight as thoſe ſtones carry ſhould have ſunk the ground under them by it's preſſure: beſides, that the earth, eſpecially in low grounds, receives a conſtant increaſe, chiefly by the duſt which the winds or rains carry down from the hills, both which reaſons ſhould make a more ſenſible difference between thoſe ways and the ſoil on both ſides, which makes me apt to believe, that antiently thoſe ways were a little raiſed above the level of the ground, and that a courſe of ſo many ages hath brought them to an equality. They ſeem chiefly deſigned for thoſe who go on foot; for as nothing is more pleaſant than to walk along them, ſo nothing can be more inconvenient for horſes, and all ſorts of carriage; mules ſeem to be the only beaſts of burthen that can hold out long in this road, which beat all horſes after they have gone

Roman highways.

gone it a little while. Thus far the reverend doctor. But why theſe ways ſhould be more inconvenient for wheel-carriages than the paved ſtreets in London, I cannot apprehend, though one would not chuſe to ride either on the one or the other, but to avoid deep ways.

CHAP. XVIII.

Contains an abſtract of the hiſtory of Antient Rome.

As ſacred hiſtory informs us that paradiſe was ſeated between the Tigris and Euphrates, and that the poſterity of Noah after the flood deſcended from the mountains of Armenia, and firſt planted themſelves in Aſſyria and Meſopotamia (the preſent Turcomania and Diarbeck) upon the banks of thoſe rivers; it is obſervable that prophane hiſtory and tradition ſo far agree with the penmen of holy writ, as to make Aſſyria the firſt ſcene of action, and the firſt monarchy upon earth, from whence the reſt of the world was gradually peopled. Thoſe detachments which travelled weſtward, ſoon came to the ſhores of the Mediterranean, and planted colonies in the Leſſer Aſia, Syria, Phœnicia, and Egypt; and as theſe increaſed, they extended themſelves to Greece, Italy, France, Spain, and Africk, as far as the ſtraits of Gibraltar upon the great Weſtern or Atlantick Ocean. But to come to the point: As Italy lay next in their way from the Leſſer Aſia and Greece, we have all the reaſon in the world thus far to agree with the general tradition, that this country was planted by colonies from thence; eſpecially when we find the ſouthern part of Italy actually called *Magna Græcia*, and the whole country ſometimes ſo denominated from thence: and as every fiction almoſt hath ſome foundation in hiſtory, the fable of Æneas and his Trojans ſettling themſelves on the ſhores of Latium, may poſſibly have ſome mixture of truth blended with it. That there was ſuch a people as the Trojans in the Leſſer Aſia, and that they were driven from thence by a confederacy of the neighbouring powers, and afterwards planted themſelves in Italy, is not in the leaſt incredible, though moſt of the circumſtances which Virgil and others have invented to caſt a luſtre on the Roman State, as ſpringing from ſo glorious an original as they have feigned, were admitted to be falſe. But to proceed in the ſtory: Pious Æneas ſoon after his landing addreſſing himſelf to Latinus, then King of Latium, obtained his only daughter Lavinia in marriage, and upon the death of his father-in-law ſucceeded him in the kingdom, removing the ſeat of his government from Laurentum to Lavinium, a city he built in honour of his Queen, and dying not long after, left his petty dominions to his ſon Aſcanius. This Prince built the city of Alba, and made it the capital of his territories, which his poſterity enjoyed ſucceſſively for eleven generations, till it came into the hands of Procas, who leaving two ſons, viz. Numitor and Amulius, the younger found means to depoſe the elder brother, and in order to ſecure the crown to his poſterity, made Rhea Silvia, the only daughter of Numitor, take upon her the habit of a Veſtal, and vow virginity: But Mars, or ſome other happy mortal, ſurprizing the fair Nun aſleep, as it is ſaid, made her the mother of two brave boys, who afterwards went by the names of Romulus and Remus. The uſurper no ſooner heard of it, but he locked up the mother, and ordered the two infants to be expoſed: whereupon the perſon who was entruſted with the matter left them under a tree upon the banks of the Tiber; and being found there by Fauſtulus the King's ſhepherd, who was not in the ſecret, he carried them home to his wife Fauſtina, and bred them up with his own children. Fauſtina having in her youth been a common proſtitute, called in Latin *Lupa*, this 'tis ſaid gave riſe to the ſtory of their being nurſed and ſuckled by a ſhe-wolf: though ſome ſtill will have them to be nouriſhed by a real wolf; while others again reject the whole as a fable. But to proceed; Romulus and Remus being two enterprizing young fellows, and acquainted with their relation to old Numitor their grandfather, who had been depoſed, formed a conſpiracy againſt Amulius, who was ſurprized by them, and Numitor reſtored to his throne; after which they left him to reign in peace at Alba, and either built or fortified a town on the banks of the Tiber, which has ever ſince been known by the name of Rome, from Romulus it's founder; though others ſay the town was ſo called long before, and that Romulus making it the ſeat of his reſidence, received his name from the town, and not the town from him. But however that matter be, the two brothers, according to tradition, falling out about the building or fortifying it, Remus had the misfortune to be killed in the ſkirmiſh, and left his brother Romulus in the ſole poſſeſſion of the place; whoſe inhabitants being for the moſt part a looſe idle generation, who had been aſſembled by the two brothers, and ſubſiſted chiefly by hunting or rapine, invited all people of the ſame diſpoſition to join them, as well to defend what they had thus violently gotten from the neighbouring powers, who were exaſperated at their ravages, as to enlarge their territories, which were at preſent too ſmall to ſubſiſt any number of men. Hiſtorians generally aſcribe ſeveral politick inſtitutions to Romulus, as that he commanded that no child ſhould be killed unleſs it was deformed; a barbarous cuſtom then very common in Italy and Greece. That he ordered all the ſlaves in Rome ſhould have their liberties, and the privileges of citizens, from whom afterwards deſcended many of the beſt families. Nor were the moſt conſiderable of thoſe who were made priſoners of war ſuffered to be ſold for ſlaves, as was the practice of other Italian States, but enrolled alſo among the number of Roman citizens, while he ſupplied their places in the conquered provinces with the pooreſt of his Romans, whereby he ſecured the obedience of the places he made himſelf maſter of. The expedient he took to provide his people with wives alſo, by carrying off great numbers of the Sabine virgins who were aſſembled to ſee their rural ſports, muſt not be forgot; which perhaps was done with an intent to provoke that people to enter into a war with them, wherein they hoped to be gainers, as well as on the account of their want of women. Romulus is ſuppoſed to have begun his reign about the year of the world 3300, and to have reigned thirty-ſeven years and ſome odd months, being ſucceeded by Numa Pompilius, who was a man of peace, and ſpent his time in reforming their barbarous cuſtoms, and the eſtabliſhment of their prieſthood and religious rites: and after a long reign of three and forty years, was ſucceeded by

Italy peopled from Greece and Aſia Minor.

Æneas and his Trojans land in Latium.

The birth of Romulus and Remus.

Kings of Rome.

Romulus began his reign A.M. 3300.

Numa, 3338.

Tullus Hoſtilius, an. 3381.

Tullus Hostilius, anno 3381, who regulated their military diſcipline, and entirely ruined the city of Alba, the mother of Rome; during which war was that memorable engagement between the three Horatii in behalf of Rome, and the three Curiatii on the ſide of Alba; where two of the Horatii being killed, the other feigning a flight ſeparated the Curiatii, and kill'd them all one after another. Hostilius, 'tis ſaid, was kill'd by a thunderbolt after he had reigned one and thirty years, and was ſucceeded by Ancus Marcius, anno 3412, as guardian to the children of Hostilius, but procured himſelf to be declared King; after which he ſubdued ſome tribes of the Latins, and incorporated them with the citizens of Rome. He was ſucceſsful alſo againſt the Veientes, and extending his conqueſts as far as the Tuſcan ſea, built the port of Oſtia at the mouth of the Tiber; and having reigned three and twenty years, was ſucceeded by Tarquinius Priscus, anno 3437, who is ſaid to be the firſt of the Romans that wore a crown: he ſubdued part of Tuſcany, beautified Rome, increaſed the number of the Senate to an hundred, and the Roman Knights to three hundred; appointed the Faſces to be carried before the magiſtrates, and the ornaments and badges of the ſeveral offices, to diſtinguiſh them from the common people. In his reign the Gauls made themſelves maſters of that part of Italy which lies on each ſide of the Po, and thereupon obtained the name of Gallia, but at preſent is known by the name of Lombardy. He died in the thirty-eighth year of his reign, and was ſucceeded by Servius Tullus, *A. M.* 3475; who having had great ſucceſs againſt the Tuſci and Veientes, enlarged the city, extended the walls, numbered the citizens, took an account of their eſtates, and divided them into thirty tribes, levying a tax on them every five years, which he call'd *Luſtrum* or *Cenſus*. He alſo enacted that only the moſt wealthy citizens ſhould bear arms, from whom he expected the beſt ſervice, as they fought in defence of their private rights, which thoſe who have little to loſe are not very ſollicitous about; and this gave the Roman ſoldiery, 'tis ſaid, a vaſt ſuperiority over the rabble the armies of their enemies were compoſed of. This Prince was kill'd by Tarquin, ſirnamed *the Proud*, in the forty-ſixth year of his reign, who afterwards uſurped the crown, anno 3521. Tarquin having reigned about four and twenty years, and committed many acts of oppreſſion and violence, the people were ſo enraged againſt the uſurper, that they took an occaſion, from his ſon Sextus's raviſhing Lucretia, to drive him out of the city, and alter the form of government, electing Brutus and Colatinus for their conſuls, or chief magiſtrates, the latter being the injured huſband of Lucretia; ſo that it is computed the Kingly government laſted about two hundred and ſixty years, and the Conſular began about the year of the world 3545.

Ancus Marcius, 3412.

Tarquin I, 3437.

Servius Tullus, 3475.

Tarquin, II, 3521.

Conſular government, 3445.

Tarquin the uſurper had however many friends in the city, who entered into a conſpiracy for his reſtoration, and amongſt the reſt the two ſons of Brutus, which being timely diſcovered, they were brought before the Conſuls in order to be tried. Brutus ſternly demanded of his ſons what they had to ſay in their defence, who remaining ſilent, he immediately ordered them to be beheaded, and only ſtaying to ſee this execution done, he left the reſt of the conſpirators to the mercy of his colleague; an act which has been applauded by ſome, as proceeding from an uncommon virtue, and cenſured by others as the effect of a cruel and unnatural temper; and ſurely moſt men muſt reflect upon it with horror. Had this rigour been uſed in defence of a lawful Prince, or any ſettled government whatever, there might have been ſome colour for this ſeverity; but when it was only in ſupport of another uſurpation, and to ſubvert the antient form of government, where could be the virtue of imbruing his hands in the blood of his own children? He could only propoſe to eſtabliſh a new kind of tyranny; and ſuch it ſeems it proved to the common people not long afterwards, much heavier than that of any of their Kings. But to proceed in the hiſtory; Tarquin found many friends among the neighbouring Princes, who levied forces in his behalf, and laid ſiege to the city of Rome, the chief of whom was Porsenna, the King of Hetruria or Tuſcany, who had actually taken the place if they had not purchaſed their peace with a ſum of money, and given hoſtages not to forge any arms or iron-work, but what was neceſſary for their huſbandry. The Roman hiſtorians indeed endeavour to cover the weakneſs of their anceſtors, and tell us that it was the courage and reſolution of the Romans, that induced Porsenna to raiſe the ſiege, of which they give us ſuch inſtances as can ſcarce be credited. The celebrated Cocles, 'tis ſaid, when the Romans were driven back in an unfortunate ſally, and the enemy upon the point of entring their gates, defended a bridge againſt their army by the aſſiſtance of two perſons only, till his own party broke down the bridge behind him, and then throwing himſelf into the river, in his armour, ſwam over to the other ſide. A ſecond inſtance they give is that of Mutius, who intending to aſſaſſinate Porsenna, and miſtaking another perſon for him, when he was brought before the King to be examined, thruſt his right hand into a pan of burning coals which ſtood ready for the ſacrifice, and burnt it off, to atone for his miſtake, telling him that there were hundreds in Rome that had vowed to kill him as well as himſelf. At which the King was ſo aſtoniſhed, that he diſmiſſed him without puniſhment. A third inſtance is that of Clelia, who being delivered as a hoſtage to the Tuſcans, with ſeveral other noble Virgins, and obtaining leave to bathe in the Tiber, they all mounted on horſeback and ſwam over to their friends, though the Conſul it ſeems ſent them back to the enemies camp. But whether the Romans purchaſed their peace with treaſure, and by ſubmitting to ſuch ignominious terms as Porsenna was pleaſed to impoſe upon them, or their obſtinate courage was the principal inducement for his raiſing the ſiege, certain it is he withdrew his forces, and retired into Tuſcany; which he had no ſooner done, but the Sabines and Latins entered into a confederacy againſt the Romans.

As the Conſuls who preſided in the Senate were annually elected, I ſhall not tire the reader with a dry account of every conſulate, but only touch upon ſuch remarkable occurrences as happened while this form of government continued. It appears that the Sabines and Latins in their wars with Rome were extremely weakened by their own diviſions, particularly when Appius Claudius deſerted to the Romans, and carried over with him five thouſand families at once; ſoon after which, the Latins received a remarkable defeat from Valerius Publicola. The Equi and Volſci, the braveſt of the Latins, ſtill carried on the war with various ſucceſs ſeveral years, but were at length entirely ſubdued by Lucius Quinctius, the celebrated dictator, who was taken from the plough but a little before he obtained that ſignal victory. Still the Veii, who inhabited the capital city of Tuſcany, contended many years with the Romans for empire; but loſing ſeveral battles in the open field, and ſhutting themſelves up within their own walls, after a ſiege of ten years were forced to ſurrender to Camillus the Roman General. While the Romans were thus extending their conqueſts on one ſide of Tuſcany, the Gauls made an irruption on the other, laying ſiege to the city of Cluſium, whereupon the inhabitants ſent to the Romans to interpoſe in their behalf. The Romans accordingly diſpatched the three Fabii, perſons of the higheſt rank, to the Gauls as their ambaſſadors, who were received with all imaginable civility, but the Gauls could not however be prevailed on to raiſe the ſiege. The ambaſſadors thereupon retiring into the town, and encouraging the beſieged to make a ſally, one of them was diſcovered afterwards perſonally engaged in the action; which being looked upon as a breach of the law of nations, was reſented in ſuch a manner by the Gauls, that riſing from before Cluſium, they immediately marched towards Rome, and in their way entirely defeated the Roman army, about eleven miles from the city; which put the inhabitants into ſuch a conſternation, that moſt of them left the city, the reſt retiring into the Capitol. The Gauls thereupon plundered and ſet fire to the town, and having laid ſiege to the Capitol, were very near ſurprizing it in the night-time, but were diſcovered by the noiſe of ſome geeſe; and the brave Manlius, who making a ſally from the fort while Camillus attacked them in the rear with an army of twenty thouſand men, the Gauls were entirely defeated, and moſt of the ſtragglers cut off by the country people before they could reach their own country. This is the account moſt of the Roman hiſtorians give of this matter: but there are others that ſay, when the Capitol was reduced to the greateſt extremity by famine, the Romans purchaſed their peace with a great ſum of money: And as to the ſtory of Camillus coming to their relief juſt as they were telling over the money, and driving away the Gauls from before the place, this is by many writers looked upon as a fiction. However, certain it is the Romans had a very narrow eſcape, and the city was ſo miſerably demoliſhed, that upon the return of the inhabitants it was propoſed to remove to Veii, which was ready built and provided with all things to their hands; but they were diverted from this deſign by an omen, whereupon they applied themſelves with ſuch diligence to the rebuilding their city, that it was finiſhed within the year. Soon after the Equi, the Volſci, and other ſtates of Latium, entered into a new confederacy againſt Rome, but were defeated by Camillus. After theſe the Samnites being apprehenſive of the growing power of this city, entered into a war with the Romans, which they maintained with various ſucceſs for fifty years, when they were entirely ſubdued by Papirius Curſor. The city of Tarentum on the Adriatick ſea, with their confederates, were the next that made trial of their ſtrength; who being ſupported by Pyrrhus King of Epirus, and other foreign powers, frequently defeated the Romans, and once in a general battle, when their horſe were put into diſorder by the elephants which Pyrrhus brought with him, which were the firſt that had been ſeen in Italy; but being better provided to meet theſe monſtrous animals in another battle, and happening to wound ſome of them in the beginning of the engagement, they turned upon their own troops and trod them down; ſo that the Romans gained an eaſy victory, and by it the entire conqueſt of the ſouthern part of Italy, and of all of it indeed which was not poſſeſſed by the Gauls: and this is computed to have happened about four hundred and forty-ſeven years after the building of their city; though ſome date this event the four hundred ſeventy-ſixth year after the building of Rome, *A. M.* 3777.

A. M. 3666.

The Romans conqueſt of Italy, A. M. 3777.

Not long after the concluſion of this war upon the continent, the city of Meſſina in Sicily implored the aſſiſtance of the Romans againſt the Carthaginians, who had made themſelves maſters of a great part of that iſland; which they afforded them ſo effectually, that in the ſpace of two years the Romans retook no leſs than fifty cities; and in concluſion, drove the Carthaginians quite out of Sicily; at the ſame time making themſelves maſters of Sardinia and Corſica; after which the Romans under the command of Regulus and Manlius their conſuls, tranſported their forces into Africk, making that the ſeat of the war. Whereupon the Carthaginians applied themſelves to Xantippus King of Lacedemon, for aſſiſtance, who ſent them ſuch a reinforcement, that they defeated the Romans in a general battle, killing thirty thouſand of them, and making fifteen thouſand priſoners, together with Regulus the conſul; but the Romans not diſcouraged, recruited their forces, and carried on the war in Africk with tolerable ſucceſs; and apprehending that the moſt effectual way to bring the Carthaginians to ſubmiſſion was to make themſelves maſters at ſea, that people ſupporting themſelves chiefly by their foreign trade, and the ſupplies they received from their confederates by ſea; the Romans built and manned out a mighty fleet, and notwithſtanding they were yet but little verſed in maritime affairs, entirely defeated the grand fleet of the Carthaginians, deſtroying above a hundred of their ſhips, and taking almoſt as many more; in which battle thirty-two thouſand of the Carthaginians were killed, and thirteen thouſand made priſoners, which obliged Carthage to accept a peace on ſuch terms as the Romans were pleaſed to preſcribe. The Carthaginians, however, had no ſooner recovered from their conſternation, but they aſſembled an army of an hundred and fifty thouſand foot, and twenty thouſand horſe in Spain, under the command of the glorious Hannibal, who marched through France into Italy, paſſing the mountains of the Pyrenees and Alps, which till that time were thought impaſſable for a body of troops; and having defeated the Romans in four general battles, the laſt of which was at Cannæ, wherein no leſs than forty thouſand of them were killed, he marched almoſt to the gates of Rome; but being unprovided for a ſiege, and the Carthaginians being jealous of the ambitious deſigns of their General, neglected to ſend him any recruits or ſupplies, till the Romans reinforced their army, and ſtraitned

First Punick war, A. M. 3789, Rome 488.

From the building of Rome, A. 531. Second Punick war.

his quarters by cutting off all proviſions; ſo that his army was in danger of famiſhing. In the mean time the celebrated SCIPIO was ſent into Africa with a body of troops to make a diverſion, which obliged the Carthaginians to recal their General; and this put put an end to the war Italy. The two Generals having aſſembled all their troops in Africa, came to a general engagement there: After a moſt obſtinate diſpute the victory fell to the Romans, and Carthage was obliged thereupon to accept of an ignominious peace.

The Romans now making a great figure in the world, the Athenians, and ſeveral other Grecian cities that had been brought under the ſubjection of PHILIP of Macedon, implored the aſſiſtance of the Romans for the recovery of their liberties; which they afforded the Greeks ſo effectually, that PHILIP was obliged to abandon all his conqueſts, and become tributary to Rome. In the mean while HANNIBAL, who could not bear to ſee the riſing glory of the Romans, procured a reinforcement from ANTIOCHUS King of Syria; but that Prince's Generals having been defeated by land, his fleet alſo, though commanded by HANNIBAL himſelf, was ruined by the Romans: whereupon ANTIOCHUS was glad to purchaſe his peace of this victorious nation. PHILIP King of Macedon dying ſoon after, his ſon PERSEUS confederating with the neighbouring States, who dreaded the growing power of the Romans, aſſembled a very numerous army, and marched againſt their allies; but the conſul R. 583. EMILIUS came ſo ſeaſonably to their relief, that Third Punick war. he defeated the whole power of PERSEUS, and made him priſoner; and leſt Carthage ſhould R. 602. recover itſelf, and contend with them again for empire, they laid ſiege to that city upon ſome ſlight pretence; and having made themſelves maſters of it, after three years brave defence, they levelled it with the ground. And ſuch a train of good fortune we find attending this people, that ATTALUS King of Pergamus dying without iſſue, left his extenſive dominions, which contained the R. 644. beſt part of the leſſer Aſia, to the Romans. They afterwards enlarged their conqueſts in Africa, where being oppoſed chiefly by King JUGURTHA, they defeated his forces, and brought him in triumph priſoner to Rome. The Teutones and Cimbri making incurſions into Italy about the ſame time, they repulſed their forces, and obliged Civil war. them to retire. But after all this train of glorious R. 660. ſucceſs, civil wars now began to diſtract their Empire, MARIUS being at the head of one faction, and SYLLA of the other. But the riſe of theſe diviſions may be traced as high as the firſt conſtitution of their republick, when the nobility aſſuming the government, and forming an Ariſtocracy upon the expulſion of TARQUIN, grievouſly oppreſſed the lower rank of people, who, wearied with their exactions and inſolent treatment, unanimouſly left the city, and could not be prevailed on to return, till the nobility, who, compoſed the Senate, conſented to conſtitute Tribunes of the people, who might protect the commons againſt the encroachments of the nobility. Theſe Tribunes, far from being contented with a power of defending their clients, inſiſted on a liberty of directing and controlling the Senate in almoſt all their acts: They extorted a law, that the Plebeians might marry with the nobility; they obliged the Senate to conſent that one of the conſuls ſhould be choſen from among the Plebeians; and that no law ſhould paſs without their conſent. At length they took upon them to make laws themſelves, and to exerciſe a kind of ſovereign authority. In their contentions with the Senate they ſeldom wanted ſome ambitious nobleman to eſpouſe their intereſts, who ſerved his ends by encouraging the diſaffection of the people. This was the ſtate of Rome when SYLLA was conſtituted General againſt MITHRIDATES King of PONTUS, who had encroached upon the Roman territories in Aſia and Greece, and reduced ſeveral of their towns and provinces under his obedience: for SYLLA had not marched out of ITALY before SULPICIUS the Tribune, who was of a contrary faction, propoſed a law to recal SYLLA, and conſer the command upon his antagoniſt MARIUS: of which SYLLA having intelligence, marched back with his army, defeated MARIUS and SULPICIUS in a pitched battle, baniſhed all his enemies from Rome, and then turned his arms againſt MITHRIDATES the common enemy, whom having defeated in two general engagements, he compelled to beg a truce. In the mean time new conſuls being choſen, MARIUS and his friends were recalled from baniſhment; and exerciſed all manner of cruelties on thoſe who were in SYLLA's intereſt. SYLLA therefore, as ſoon as the truce with MITHRIDATES was ſigned, marched back with part of his army to Rome; where MARIUS being dead before his arrival, he was oppoſed by his two ſons and the conſuls, who had raiſed an army againſt him; but theſe being defeated, he entered the city, and reſtored his friends to their commands; procuring himſelf the title of Perpetual Dictator; by which he was inveſted with the ſovereign power, and ſubject to no controul from the ſenate or people. An authority that had never been committed to any General but for a limited time, and on ſome very great emergency of the State. However, having regulated the government according to his mind, he laid down his command, and retiring from buſineſs died in peace.

MITHRIDATES having broken the truce, and Mithridatick war, fallen upon the Roman provinces in Aſia, was R. 685. repulſed by LUCULLUS, and both his fleet and army defeated; but LUCULLUS being recalled, was ſucceeded in that command by POMPEY, who defeated another army raiſed by MITHRIDATES, drove him out of his dominions, and compelled him to fly for refuge to his father-in-law TIGRANES King of Armenia, whither POMPEY following him, TIGRANES was ſo terrified at his approach, that he immediately ſubmitted himſelf and his kingdom to the diſpoſal of the Romans; on which ſucceſs the Senate became apprehenſive, leſt POMPEY ſhould entertain ambitious views; but finding him diſmiſs his army on his landing in Italy, and return to the city with his ordinary attendants, they received him with all imaginable expreſſions of joy, and decreed him a Triumph. (It was during POMPEY's expedition into Armenia that CATILINE's Catiline's conſpiracy. conſpiracy was diſcovered.) The Roman State was at this time under the influence of three great men, namely POMPEY, CÆSAR, and CRASSUS. POMPEY was moſt in the good graces of the Senate, and was pretty well-beloved by the ſoldiery; CÆSAR was the darling of the ſoldiers and the people, and CRASSUS had procured him- First Triumvirate, ſelf a conſiderable intereſt by his wealth. Theſe R. 696. three in the conſulate of CÆSAR entered into a kind of confederacy to promote their mutual intereſts, and indeed to govern the State as they ſaw fit; from whence they obtained the name of the Triumvirate. And firſt they procured themſelves the government of the three beſt provinces of the Empire; POMPEY had Spain conferred upon him; CÆSAR, Gaul; and Aſia was allotted to CRASSUS. CÆSAR and CRASSUS hereupon entered upon their commands; and CRASSUS had the misfortune not long after to be killed in an expedition againſt the Parthians. CÆSAR on the other hand met with incredible ſucceſs againſt the Gauls: but POMPEY, to maintain his authority in the Senate, choſe to reſide at Rome, and commit the adminiſtration of his government in Spain to a deputy. CÆSAR, by his repeated victories in Gaul and Britain for nine years together, rendered himſelf exceeding popular, while the Senate on the other hand were ſo jealous of his ambitious deſigns, that when he petitioned for a ſecond conſulſhip, they commanded him to diſband his army, and appear as a private perſon at the election; and notwithſtanding CÆSAR's friends are apt to excuſe his future conduct by ſurmiſing that it was not ſafe for him to come to to Rome without a ſufficient force to protect him againſt his great rival POMPEY, it is not to be doubted but he had long before this meditated the ſubverſion of the State, and advancing himſelf to the ſupreme command; and if POMPEY had the ſame deſign when he returned in triumph from the Mithridatick war, and was in the height of his glory, he certainly committed a very great overſight in diſbanding his army, at leaſt in the opinion of CÆSAR, who finding himſelf at the head of the beſt body of veteran troops in the Empire, marched directly to Rome, in order to obtain that by force which he was never like to arrive at with the conſent of the Senate, who being pretty well apprized of his intentions, a majority of them left the city and retired into Greece; whereupon CÆSAR entered Rome without oppoſition, and obliged thoſe that were left behind to declare him Conſul and perpetual Dictator.

R. 699. Second civil War, R. 703.

His next ſtep was to fall upon POMPEY's forces in Spain, who either laying down their arms, or deſerting over to him, he followed their General POMPEY into Greece, where he and the Senate had drawn together a very numerous army to oppoſe him. In the firſt engagement CÆSAR's troops happened to be defeated; but both parties afterwards aſſembling their whole force upon the plains of Pharſalia, CÆSAR obtained a compleat victory, and purſuing POMPEY to Egypt, found he had been killed by King PTOLEMY;

Pompey killed, R. 705.

after which CÆSAR having taken Alexandria, the capital city, he committed the government of Egypt to CLEOPATRA, the ſiſter of PTOLEMY, who 'tis ſaid had captivated the conqueror's heart; but not ſo fatally as afterwards ſhe did MARK ANTHONY's, for the hero left her there, and ſtill purſued his enemies in other parts of Africk, where he reduced SCIPIO and JUBA, the friends of the Senate; and afterwards POMPEY's two ſons in Spain, in almoſt as ſhort a time as he might have travelled through thoſe countries: ſo that *all oppoſition falling before him*, in the modern phraſe, he was received at Rome with general applauſe; at leaſt, in appearance, and ſtiled the Father of his country; for no other reaſon that I can learn, than the having ſubverted the conſtitution, and accompliſhed her deſtruction. Which the ſenate, who had before the ſovereign authority, and were like to be the greateſt ſufferers by the change, were ſo ſenſible of, that notwithſtanding they gratified him with all the titles and honours he could aſk, before he had reigned five months they publickly ſtabbed him in the Senate; of which number were BRUTUS and CASSIUS, two of his moſt intimate friends.

Cæſar killed, R. 707.

Hereupon a civil war enſued, one party eſpouſing the intereſt of BRUTUS and his aſſociates, who had killed the uſurper, and the other pretending to revenge his death. The laſt were headed by MARK ANTHONY the Conſul, who had no other deſign but to follow CÆSAR's ſteps, and aſſume the ſupreme command; which the Senate were ſo apprehenſive of, that they declared him any enemy to the State, and raiſed an army under the command of HIRTIUS and PANSA the new Conſuls, and young OCTAVIUS (CÆSAR's heir) to oppoſe him; but ANTHONY being defeated, they plainly ſhewed they never intended that young OCTAVIUS ſhould ſucceed his uncle: for they decreed BRUTUS and CASSIUS, the two heads of the conſpiracy againſt CÆSAR, the two provinces of Syria and Macedonia, whither they had retired after CÆSAR's death, to avoid the rage of the populace. OCTAVIUS rightly judging from hence, that the Senate had no great regard to his intereſts, tho' they had made uſe of him to defeat MARK ANTHONY's ambitious deſigns, reconciled himſelf to ANTHONY, and with LEPIDUS, another General in the army, formed a ſecond Triumvirate; and OCTAVIUS returning to Rome, by their united intereſt was choſen Conſul, tho' under twenty years of age.

Second Triumvirate, R. 709.

All the members of the Senate whom they ſuſpected to be in a different intereſt were baniſhed: and they afterwards procured a law, that all who were concerned in the death of CÆSAR ſhould be proclaimed enemies to the common-wealth; and an army being aſſembled under the command of OCTAVIUS and ANTHONY, they marched into Macedonia, and defeated BRUTUS atnd CASSIUS at Philippi; who finding victory declare againſt them, killed themſelves with their own hands. The Roman affairs continued to be managed by the Triumviri for ten years after this battle, when LEPIDUS attempting to render himſelf independent of his colleagues in Sicily, was defeated by OCTAVIUS, and compelled to relinquiſh his ſhare in the government. Not long after there happened a miſunderſtanding between the other two; whereupon OCTAVIUS procured ANTHONY to be declared an enemy to the State, and having defeated him by ſea and land, and reduced him to that deſpair, that he laid violent hands upon himſelf, OCTAVIUS aſſumed the ſupreme command, as his uncle JULIUS had done before him; but by his prudent and cunning behaviour ſo gained upon the affections of the Senate and people, that he had much fewer enemies.

Emperors. Auguſtus came to the Empire about 27 years before the birth of Chriſt.

He even rejected the titles of King and Dictator, which he obſerved the people had a particular averſion to, tho' he rendered himſelf as arbitrary as his predeceſſor. His long reign of forty years, and his ſucceſſes in Aquitania, Pannonia, Dalmatia, Illyricum, and Germany, very much contributed to the eſtabliſhment of the Empire.

Poſt Chriſtum Tiberius. A. C. 14.

TIBERIUS, who ſucceeded AUGUSTUS, proved an indolent Prince, famous, or infamous rather, for his retirement to the iſland Capreæ, on the Neapolitan coaſt, where he led a moſt voluptuous life, abandoning the affairs of the Empire to that degree, that he neglected to ſend Governors to Spain and Syria for ſeveral years, and ſuffered the frontier provinces to be inſulted and over-run by the barbarous nations.

Caligula, A.C. 37. CALIGULA, his ſucceſſor, was equally effeminate and cruel, and is taken notice of only for a mock expedition againſt Britain, when being arrived on the oppoſite ſhore, inſtead of embarking his troops, he ordered them to fill their helmets with cockle-ſhells, which he called the ſpoils of the Ocean: and returning to Rome, demanded a triumph for this glorious ſucceſs; which being denied him, he became ſo monſtrouſly cruel, that his own ſervants killed him, in the fourth year of his reign. Whereupon the Senate were about to return to their ancient form of government; Claudius, 41. but the army ſet up CLAUDIUS, the uncle of CALIGULA, for their Emperor, and compelled the Senate to confirm their election. The conqueſt of Britain was the moſt memorable occurrence of this reign. Nero, 54. The cruelty of NERO's reign was inſufferable, which continued however fourteen years; when to avoid the reſentment of the people, he choſe to die by his own hands; and Galba, 68. was ſucceeded by GALBA, who is ſaid to have reſtored their martial diſcipline; but was murdered by Otho, 69. OTHO, after a reign of ſome few months. Vitellius, 69. VITELLIUS being proclaimed Emperor by the German army, diſputed the title with OTHO, who, deſpairing of ſucceſs, killed himſelf before his affairs became deſperate. VITELLIUS being deteſted of all mankind for his cruelties and voluptuous life, after a reign of eight months, was torn in pieces by his ſoldiers, and Veſpaſian, 69. VESPASIAN proclaimed Emperor by the provincial armies in his room; who reformed the abuſes of the State, added ſeveral provinces to the Roman Empire, and after a glorious reign was ſucceeded in the Titus 79. Empire by his ſon TITUS, ſtiled, The Delight of Mankind, who after a ſhort reign of Domitian, the laſt of the Cæſars, 81. three years was ſucceeded by his brother DOMITIAN, a Prince fortunate in his wars, but guilty of ſuch acts of cruelty, that he was murdered by his neareſt relations; and ſo deteſted by the Senate, that they pulled down his ſtatues, and razed out all the pompous inſcriptions his creatures had ſet up, who had flattered him with divine attributes. And this was the laſt of the blood of the Cæſars. Upon the death of DOMITIAN the Nerva 96. Senate elected NERVA, an old General, who commanded the army in Gaul, who anſwered their expectations in the juſtice and prudence of his adminiſtration: but dying within two years, was Trajan, 98. ſucceeded by TRAJAN his adopted ſon, who is eſteemed equal to any of the Roman Emperors. He mightily extended the limits of the Empire, reducing into the form of provinces the large countries of Dacia, Aſſyria, Armenia, Meſopotamia, and Arabia. He is ſtill more admired for his conduct in times of peace, and his prudent adminiſtration of the civil government; for his juſtice, liberality, and other virtues that adorn a throne. This Prince, after a reign of about twenty Adrian, 117. years, was ſucceeded by his adopted ſon ADRIAN or HADRIAN, originally a Spaniard; he was more remarkable for his learning than martial exploits, though it is ſaid he viſited Britain, and the remoteſt part of the Empire in perſon, and built a wall between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, to keep the Scots within their bounds. After a reign Antoninus Pius, 138. of near twenty years he was ſucceeded by ANTONINUS PIUS, his adopted ſon, who was eſteemed for his excellency of his morals, and the ſweetneſs of his temper. He was of a peaceable diſpoſition, and applied himſelf more to the reforming abuſes in the ſtate, and to ſee juſtice duly adminiſtred, than in extending the bounds of the Empire. He died in the twenty-third year of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his adopted ſon Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, 161. MARCUS AURELIUS, who aſſociated with him in the Empire LUCIUS ÆLIUS VERUS; he is remarkable for his extraordinary learning and profeſſion of the Stoick philoſophy, from whence he obtained the name of *The Philoſopher*; he was alſo ſucceſsful in his wars. It was in one of his expeditions that the Chriſtian Legion is ſaid to have gained him a compleat victory by their prayers, and a plentiful rain when his army was on the point of periſhing by thirſt. His aſſociate LUCIUS dying not long after him, his ſon Commodus, 181. COMMODUS, who was as remarkable for his vices and extravagance as his father was for his virtues, ſucceeded to the Empire; and after a reign of twelve years, was murdered by one of his miſtreſſes, who ſuſpected he had the ſame deſign againſt her. Pertinax, 194. PERTINAX, a General of ſixty years of age, was on the death of COMMODUS elected Emperor by the ſoldiers; a man of mean extraction, who had raiſed himſelf by his merit, and endeavouring to reform ſome abuſes in the diſcipline of the army, was murdered by the Prætorian guards in his palace, before he had reigned three months; after which the army plainly put up the empire to ſale, and elected Didius, 194. DIDIUS JULIAN, who happened to be the higheſt bidder: but he being unequal to ſo great a truſt, and the Senate ſetting up SEVERUS againſt him, he retained the title of Emperor not above two months. Septimius Severus, 195. SEVERUS revived and improved their military diſcipline, was ſucceſsful againſt the Parthians, and defended the Britons againſt the incurſions of the Picts and Scots. He died at York in the eighteenth year of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his two ſons, CARACALLA and GETA: Caracalla, 211. CARACALLA ſoon afterwards murdered his brother GETA, and became one of the greateſt debauchees and tyrants that ever reigned. He was murdered by a Captain of his guards after a reign of ſix or ſeven years, and ſucceeded by Macrinus, 218. OPILIUS MACRINUS; who abandoning himſelf to a voluptuous life, was murdered alſo by the ſoldiers in the ſecond year of his reign. To whom ſucceeded Heliogabalus, 219. HELIOGABALUS, a baſtard ſon of the Emperor CARACALLA; one of the moſt cruel and voluptuous of the Roman Emperors; who after a whimſical and extravagant reign of two or three years, was murdered by his ſoldiers. To whom ſucceeded his adopted ſon Alexander Severus, 223. ALEXANDER SEVERUS, who reſtored juſtice and diſcipline in the Empire, and was ſucceſsful in his expeditions againſt the Perſians; but was notwithſtanding murdered by the ſoldiers in the fourteenth year of his reign.

Maximinus Caius Julius, 236. MAXIMINUS CAIUS JULIUS ſucceeded SEVERUS, being elected by the army, who admired his prodigious ſtrength; for he was a monſter of a man, above eight foot high, and every way proportionable. He was at firſt but a common ſoldier, and a Goth by extraction, and being oppoſed by the Senate, he became exceeding barbarous and cruel: he marched into Italy to revenge himſelf of his enemies, but laying ſiege to Aquileia, which made an obſtinate defence, he was murdered by the ſoldiers, together with his ſon, whom he had aſſociated with him in the government in the ſecond year of his reign, before he had ſeen Rome. Pupienus and Balbinus, 238. PUPIENUS and BALBINUS were thereupon elected by the Senate, Princes of great merit, but murdered within the year by the ſoldiers, becauſe they had no ſhare in the election.

Gordianus, 239.

GORDIANUS, a General of a good family and ſufficient merit, was elected by part of the African Legions, being at that time fourſcore years of age, and their choice was confirmed by the Senate; but another part of the army oppoſing him, and defeating his ſon, who was killed in the field of battle, he laid violent hands upon himſelf, and was ſucceeded by GORDIANUS junior, his grand-ſon.

Gordianus junior, 239.

Philip, 245.

This young Prince was eſteemed a good Governor, but making PHILIP the Arabian his partner in the Empire, was treacherouſly murdered by his procurement in the ſeventh year of his reign; and PHILIP and his ſon, whom he aſſociated with him, were alſo both of them murdered before they had enjoyed the fruits of their treachery much above four years.

Decius, 249.

DECIUS was next advanced to the Empire by the Legions, and had at firſt good Succeſs againſt the Scythians, but was killed in an engagement with them in the ſecond year of his reign.

Gallus, 251.

GALLUS, the General of his army, was next elected by the army, and confirmed by the Senate; he meanly conſented to pay an annual tribute to the Goths or Scythians, whereupon he was murdered by thoſe who advanced him, in the ſecond year of his reign.

Emilianus, 253.

EMILIANUS, another General, was elected in his ſtead; who defeated the Scythians, making a terrible ſlaughter of them; but VALERIAN ſetting up againſt him, he was killed by his ſoldiers, to prevent a civil war.

Valerian, 254.

VALERIAN being betrayed by MACRINUS his General, in an expedition againſt the Perſians, was taken priſoner by King SAPOR, who uſed him as a footſtool to mount his horſe, and afterwards flea'd him alive.

Galienus, 261.

His ſon GALIENUS ſucceeded him, but was ſuch an indolent voluptuous Prince, that he became the contempt of mankind, and gave occaſion to no leſs than thirty tyrants, as they were called, to uſurp the ſovereign authority in ſeveral parts of the Empire, whom he at length however ſuppreſſed, but loſt many of the frontier provinces to the Goths and Germans, againſt whom CLAUDIUS II conſpiring, he was murdered with his brothers and children, and CLAUDIUS advanced to the Imperial purple, who cleared the Empire of the Barbarians, and made an excellent Prince; but died in the ſecond year of his reign.

Claudius II. 269.

Aurelianus. 271.

AURELIANUS, who from a private man by his merit had obtained the higheſt poſts in the army, was next elected by the ſoldiers, and approved by the Senate and People. He was ſucceſsful in his wars againſt the Barbarians, conquered the famous ZENOBIA, Queen of the Eaſt, as ſhe ſtiled herſelf, and took her capital city Palmyra. He was murdered in the ſeventh year of his reign, in an expedition againſt the Perſians, by the treachery of his Captains, being ſucceeded by TACITUS, who was elected by the Senate.

Tacitus, 276.

He was admired for his moderation and juſtice, but cut off by the ſoldiers before he had reigned ſeven months.

Probus, 276.

PROBUS, who raiſed himſelf by his merit from a gardener to the chief commands in the army, was elected on the death of TACITUS. He had great ſucceſs againſt the Germans, Goths, Sarmatians, and Perſians, but was murdered by his ſoldiers in an expedition to Perſia, in the ſeventh year of his reign.

Carus, 282.

CARUS, who ſucceeded him, carried on the war with ſucceſs in Perſia, and was found dead in his tent in the ſecond year of his reign, ſuppoſed to have been killed by a ſtorm of thunder and lightning. His two ſons CARINUS and NUMERIAN, whom he had aſſociated with him in the Empire, enjoyed the ſovereign power ſome time after; but one of them being killed, the other gave way to the fortunate DIOCLESIAN, the moſt ſucceſsful of the later Emperors, eſpecially in Egypt, Perſia, and Armenia.

Diocleſian, 282.

He raiſed a very ſevere perſecution againſt the Chriſtians, which was the tenth and laſt; and for which they ſeem to bear hard upon his memory, making him a devil incarnate in the latter part of his reign, which continued about twenty years.

Conſtantius Chlorus, 304.

CONSTANTIUS CHLORUS ſucceeded him, and was ſucceſsful in his wars againſt the Germans, having GALERIUS for his colleague. He died in peace at York in the ſecond or third year of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his ſon CONSTANTINE the Great. As to MAXIMIAN and SEVERUS, whom DIOCLESIAN aſſociated with him in the Empire, I meet with nothing remarkable concerning them.

Conſtantine, 306.

CONSTANTINE the Great, the ſon of CONSTANTIUS CHLORUS and HELENA, ſucceeded his father in the year 306, being with him at York when he died. But notwithſtanding he was proclaimed Emperor by the army in Britain, the Pretorian guards at Rome ſet up MAXENTIUS the ſon of MAXIMIAN. CONSTANTINE, to avoid a civil war, propoſed to aſſociate MAXENTIUS with him in the government; which being refuſed, CONSTANTINE marched with his army towards Italy, and while he was preparing to paſs the Alps, 'tis ſaid he was favoured with the viſion of a ſhining croſs in the air, and an inſcription under it, that *in that ſign he ſhould overcome*, whereupon he ordered the croſs to be worked in his ſtandards. CONSTANTINE having paſſed the Alps, defeated the troops of MAXENTIUS in ſeveral engagements; but the great and deciſive battle was fought at Ponte Molle, within a mile of Rome; and while the victory was in ſuſpenſe, the Senate cauſed that noble triumphal arch, of which there are ſtill ſuch large remains, to be erected, deſigning to dedicate it to the honour of the conqueror, let the victory fall on which ſide it would; and MAXENTIUS happening to be defeated and drowned in the Tiber, his rival entered the city in triumph on the twenty-fourth of September, 312, about ſix years after his election in Britain; and immediately publiſhed ſeveral edicts in favour of the Chriſtians, having himſelf been initiated in the principles of that religion by his mother HELENA in his youth, though he was under a neceſſity of diſguiſing his opinion for a conſiderable time. He erected ſeveral magnificent churches in Rome, and ſettled lands and revenues on the Biſhops and clergy; and on his removing the ſeat of the Empire to Conſtantinople, 'tis ſaid, conferred the city of Rome, and a conſiderable territory in Italy, on SYLVESTER, the Pope or Biſhop of that See, and his ſucceſſors. He died in peace, after having reigned thirty, and as ſome ſay, forty years, reckoning from the death of his father, and left his Empire among his three ſons, viz. CONSTANTINE, CONSTANTIUS, and CONSTANS.

Conſtantine II. Conſtantius, and Conſtans, 337.

To CONSTANTINE's ſhare fell Gaul, Spain, and Britain; to CONSTANS Italy, Illyricum, and Africa; and to CONSTANTIUS Greece, Thrace, Egypt, and all the eaſtern provinces. CONSTANTINE not being content with his ſhare, and attempting to diſpoſſeſs his brother CONSTANS of his part, was defeated and killed at Aquileia, in the twenty-fifth year of his age, and the

Julian. 361.

Jovian. 363.

Valentinian, 364.

Valens and Gratian, 375.
Theodoſius the Great, 392.

Honorius. 395.

The Empire divided.

Valentinian III. 424.

Avitus, 455.

Majorianus. 457.

Severus, 461.

Anthemius, 467.
Olybrius.

Glycerius, 473.

Julius Nepos, 474.
Oreſtes.
Auguſtulus, 475.
Odoacer.

the third of his reign. CONSTANS was killed by MAGNENTIUS, who uſurped his part of the Empire in the thirteenth year of his reign; whereupon CONSTANTIUS remained the ſole Emperor, and died on his march againſt MAGNENTIUS the uſurper in the forty-fifth year of his age, and twenty-fifth of his reign. JULIAN, the nephew of CONSTANTINE the Great ſucceeded him, and endeavouring to reſtore paganiſm, is generally ſtiled the Apoſtate. He was ſucceſsful in his wars with the Perſians, but mortally wounded in the laſt engagement with them in the ſecond year of his reign: whereupon JOVIAN was elected by the army, and declared himſelf a Chriſtian, but died in the eighth month of his reign, being ſucceeded by VALENTINIAN the ſon of a rope-maker, who raiſed himſelf in the army by his merit, and proved an excellent Prince. He aſſigned the eaſtern part of the Empire to his brother VALENS, and governed the weſt in perſon: he died in the twelfth year of his reign, and was ſucceeded by VALENS and GRATIAN. VALENS dying, GRATIAN aſſociated THEODOSIUS with him in the Empire, who ſucceeded to it after his death. THEODOSIUS the Great was a native of Spain, he anſwered the expectation the world had conceived of him, and became a ſucceſsful defender of the Empire againſt the barbarous nations in it's declining ſtate. He died in the ſixteenth year of his reign, leaving the Empire of the eaſt to his ſon ARCADIUS, and that of the weſt to his ſon HONORIUS. Under this Prince the ſtate of the weſtern Empire became deſperate again, the barbarous nations attacking it on all ſides. ALARICK, King of the Goths, having ravaged the greateſt part of Italy, ſet fire to Rome itſelf, and plundered the city, while the Emperor remained at Ravenna, unable to relieve it. VALENTINIAN III ſucceeded him; in whoſe time ATTILA the Hun invaded Italy, and was repulſed by the Roman General ÆTIUS; but the Emperor having put ÆTIUS to death, the barbarous nations carried all before them, while MAXIMUS, in order to mount the throne, procured the murder of VALENTINIAN, and compelled his widow EUDOXIA to marry him; at which ſhe was ſo exaſperated, that ſhe invited GENSERICK the Vandal into Italy, to deliver herſelf and the miſerable inhabitants from his oppreſſions: but GENSERICK, contrary to his oath and promiſe, bringing a prodigious army with him, plundered the city of Rome, and carried many thouſands of the inhabitants ſlaves to Africk. AVITUS, the General in Gaul, next aſſumed the title of Emperor, which he was forced to reſign within eight months. To whom ſucceeded MAJORIANUS, a warlike Prince, who had ſome ſucceſs againſt the Goths and Vandals, but was depoſed and murdered by his General RICIMIR, in the fourth year of his reign, though others ſay he had the good fortune to die a natural death. To whom SEVERUS, and then ANTHEMIUS ſucceeded, who were both depoſed and murdered alſo by RICIMIR. OLYBRIUS was afterwards ſent from Conſtantinople with Imperial power, but died within ſeven months. After whom GLYCERIUS was elected by the ſoldiers, but depoſed by JULIUS NEPOS in the ſecond year of his reign, and afterwards made Biſhop of Salona. NEPOS, who ſucceeded him, was alſo ſoon after depoſed by ORESTES the General, who left the Empire to his ſon AUGUSTULUS: but ODOACER, King of the Heruli, a people near the mouth of the Danube, depoſed him in the firſt year of his reign, and put a period to the Roman Empire in the weſt, about the year of our Lord 475.

Theodorick the Goth, King of Italy, 493.

Athalrick, 526.

Theodobat, 534.

Witiges, 536.

Theobald
Ararick.

Tottila, 547.

Tejas, 552.

THEODORICK, King of the Eaſtern or Oſtrogoths, who inhabited Dacia and Mæſia (the preſent Servia, Bulgaria, Walachia, and Moldavia) having been ſerviceable to the eaſtern Emperor ZENO in ſuppreſſing a rebellion, had his ſtatue erected in Conſtantinople, and being a Chriſtian, was adopted the Emperor's ſon. This Prince the Emperor prevailed with to march his army into Italy againſt ODOACER, about the year 491, who having defeated him in ſeveral engagements, it was agreed at a treaty to ſhare Italy between them: but there afterwards happening to be a miſunderſtanding between theſe two Princes, and a war following thereupon, ODOACER was defeated and killed; whereupon THEODORICK became ſole Sovereign of Italy, and dying in the thirty-fourth year of his reign, left the kingdom to his grandſon ATHALRICK an infant, under the guardianſhip of his mother AMALASUNTHA: who dying in the eighth year of his reign, he was ſucceeded by THEODOBAT or THEODAT, the nephew of THEODORICK, who married AMALASUNTHA, but afterwards took away her life on ſuſpicion of adultery; and was himſelf murdered by his ſubjects, who ſet WITIGES, one of his Generals, on the throne in his ſtead. JUSTINIAN, Emperor of the Eaſt, taking advantage of the diviſions among the Goths in Italy, ordered his General BELISARIUS thither with an army, who defeated WITIGES, and ſent him priſoner to Conſtantinople, and reunited part of Italy to the Empire; while the Goths ſet up THEOBALD and ARARICK in other parts of that country, who did not both of them reign two years; and were ſucceeded by TOTTILA about the year 547, who in ſome meaſure reſtored the declining ſtate of the Goths, making himſelf maſter of ſeveral towns and provinces in the abſence of BELISARIUS; and amongſt the reſt, of Rome, which he plundered in a moſt barbarous manner, and had entirely deſtroyed it, but for a letter he received from BELISARIUS, who diſſuaded him from it, and returning to Rome ſoon after, ſo well repaired the walls, that TOTTILA inveſting the city a ſecond time, was repulſed with loſs. He continued however to ravage other parts of Italy, till he was deafeated and killed by NARSES, another of JUSTINIAN's Generals. The Goths afterwards ſet up TEJAS, who gained ſeveral advantages of his enemies, and took the city of Rome again, expoſing it to the plunder of his ſoldiers for forty days, but was defeated by NARSES before he had reigned a year; which put an end to the kingdom of the Eaſtern or Oſtrogoths in Italy, after they had been in poſſeſſion of great part of it near an hundred years.

NARSES, the Imperial General, after all his ſervices, being recalled and ſlighted by the Empreſs at his return, was ſo provoked, that he invited the Lombards, a German people, into Italy, who remained maſters of the north-weſt part of that country for near two hundred years; the eaſtern Emperors however keeping poſſeſſion of another part of it, of which the city of Ravenna, where the Emperor's Viceroy or Exarch reſided, was the capital.

Lombard Kings.
Alboin, 568.

The firſt King of the Lombards in Italy was ALBOIN, who began his reign anno 568, and was ſucceeded by one and twenty Princes, of whom I meet with little remarkable, unleſs it be that ſome

Lombard Kings. Alboin, 568. Aſtulphus, 755.

Didier.

Charlemagne puts an end to the kingdom of the Lombards.

ſome of them were eſteemed orthodox Chriſtians, and others Arians and Hereticks, and conſequently ſometimes friends, and at others enemies to the Pope. They were alſo in perpetual wars almoſt with the Gauls, and the Emperor's Exarch at Ravenna. ASTULPHUS, the laſt King of the Lombards but one, took the city of Ravenna, and put an end to the eaſtern Emperor's dominion in Italy about the year 755, and proceeded to lay ſiege to Rome; whereupon the Pope called in PEPIN King of France to his aſſiſtance, who compelled ASTULPHUS to ſurrender the exarchate of Ravenna, and the patrimony of the church, to the Pope: and ASTULPHUS being killed by a fall from his horſe as he was hunting not long after, DIDIER was elected King of Lombardy in his room; who ſeizing on part of the patrimony of the Pope, CHARLEMAGNE, the ſon of PEPIN, marched into Italy to the Pope's aſſiſtance, and having taken him priſoner, confined him in a monaſtery at Liege, which put an end to the kingdom of the Lombards, after it had continued above two hundred years.

Popes become Sovereigns of Rome, and of large territories in Italy.

Charlemagne eſtabliſhes a new empire in the weſt, and is very bountiful to the Pope.

From the deſtruction of the kingdom of the Lombards we may date the Pope's ſovereignty over the city of Rome and the territories thereto belonging, which now go under the name of *The Pope's Dominions*, or *The Eccleſiaſtical State*: tho' PUFFENDORF ſeems to go higher, or at leaſt to date the firſt riſe of his temporal power from the Emperor JUSTINIAN's making Italy a province of the Grecian Empire: for then he obſerves it was that the Popes took the opportunity of exempting themſelves from the juriſdiction of theſe Emperors, whoſe authority was mightily diminiſhed in Italy; partly by the ill conduct of their Viceroys at Ravenna, and partly by their own weakneſs and want of ſtrength. One great inducement the Popes had to ſhake off the authority of the Grecian Emperors at this time, was, their declaring againſt the adoration of images; for LEO ISAURUS ordered them to be removed out of the churches, which was ſtrenuouſly oppoſed by Pope GREGORY I; partly becauſe the Roman See found this ſuperſtition very advantageous, and partly becauſe the Pope took it amiſs that the Emperor ſhould undertake a reformation in matters of religion without his approbation; or perhaps he was glad of ſo fair an opportunity to ſhake off the juriſdiction of the Grecian Emperors. And in order to effect his deſign, he incited the Italians and Romans, who had hitherto been obedient to the Emperor, to refuſe him his tribute; which his Viceroy endeavouring to levy, was killed in the tumult; after which indeed the Lombards ſeized Ravenna, and almoſt all the reſt of Italy which belonged to the Emperor. But the Pope, as has been obſerved already, calling in PEPIN the French King to his aſſiſtance, defeated the Lombards, and procured the territories which belonged to the Emperor to be conferred upon him. Which PEPIN was the more ready to grant, in conſideration of Pope ZACHARY's approving his proceeding in dethroning his lawful Sovereign CHILDERICK, and from Grand Marſhal advancing himſelf to the dignity of King of France. A further reaſon of his interpoſing between the Pope and the Lombards is ſuppoſed to be the opportunity it gave him of making conqueſts in Italy, of which the French nation has always been ambitious. This donation of the Grecian Emperor's territories in Italy to the Pope by King PEPIN, was confirmed by his ſon CHARLEMAGNE, who eſtabliſhed a new empire in the weſt; of whoſe ſucceſſors the reader will find an account in the ſtate of Germany in this volume. But theſe Emperors reſerved to themſelves a power of confirming the election of future Popes, and granting the inveſtiture of Sees to the Italian Biſhops; and the Pope enjoyed theſe territories under the ſovereign juriſdiction of the Emperor, who thereupon was ſtiled *The Patron and Defender of the Church*; till the reign of the Emperor HENRY IV, when the Popes growing weary of their ſubjection to the Emperor, who ſometimes refuſed to confirm their election, and at others turned them out of the chair, in order to exempt themſelves from their juriſdiction, were perpetually embroiling their affairs in Germany and Italy, and inciting inſurrections againſt them; the German Biſhops alſo, who were weary of their dependance on their Sovereign, were very ready to aſſiſt the Pope in ſetting up an independant eccleſiaſtical authority, which the ill conduct of HENRY IV, and the diſcontents of the Princes and States of the Empire, gave them an opportunity of effecting. GREGORY VII, a proud reſolute prelate, being in the chair, loudly exclaimed againſt the Emperor's mercenary temper, in ſetting biſhopricks and other benefices to ſale, and his putting perſons into them before they had taken holy orders; and when the Emperor aſſerted his right of inveſting Biſhops in their Sees, the Pope excommunicated him, and ſtirred up the Biſhops and Princes of Germany againſt him, inſomuch that the Emperor was obliged to part with that branch of his prerogative. Nor did he only thus free himſelf and other eccleſiaſticks from the Emperor's juriſdiction, but even aſſumed an authority over him, ſummoned him before him to anſwer the complaints of his ſubjects, and declared he had forfeited his right to the Empire. And though his ſon, the Emperor Henry V, attempted the recovery of the Imperial prerogatives, and impriſoned Pope PASCHAL, whom he compelled to yield up the right of conſtituting Biſhops, yet the clergy of Europe in general became ſo diſſatiſfied with it, that he was obliged to reſign this power again into the Pope's hands. Succeeding Pope's pretended to a power over all temporal Princes, to judge of their actions whether they were good or bad, to admoniſh and correct them, and even command what they thought fit to be done. If Princes entered into a war, they looked upon themſelves to be authorized to command a truce, and would require the contending parties to refer their differences to their deciſion, on pain of excommunication; and on their diſobeying their decrees, would forbid the exerciſe of divine ſervice, and the adminiſtration of the ſacraments in their dominions. They gave out that they were empowered by their office, in order to obviate all publick ſcandal, to defend ſuch as were oppreſſed, and to ſee juſtice done in the world. They received the complaints of all that applied themſelves to them for a redreſs of ſuch grievances as they ſuffered from their Princes, either by taxes laid upon them or otherwiſe, prohibiting the levying them upon pain of excommunication. Sometimes they declared the territories and poſſeſſions of thoſe who ſtood excommunicated to be forfeited, releaſing their ſubjects from their oaths of allegiance, under pretence that the government of Chriſtians ought not to be entruſted to thoſe who were rebels to the church. But I ſhall not enlarge here on the encroachments of the Biſhops of this See, which will be ſeen in the following hiſtorical account of the Popes of Rome.

CHAP. XIX.

Contains an abſtract of the hiſtory of the Popes of Rome, with a chronological table of their reſpective reigns.

CHAP. XIX. Pope's dominions.

The name Pope common to all prieſts anciently.

THE word Pope, or rather *Papa* [Father] was anciently given to all Biſhops, and indeed to every prieſt or eccleſiaſtick, as it is in the Greek church to this day, and was not appropriated to the Biſhops of Rome till the latter end of the eleventh century; when GREGORY VII, in a Council held in this city, ordered that the name Pope ſhould be peculiar to the Biſhop of Rome. Nor did the ancient church allow any ſuch diſtinguiſhing primacy in the Pope as is now claimed; as appears by St. CYPRIAN's epiſtles, in which he calls the Pope brother, and treats him as his equal, and declares himſelf, by virtue of his epiſcopal authority, accountable to none but God for the government of his dioceſe. FERMILIAN, Biſhop of Cappadocia, alſo writing to Pope STEPHEN, uſes him with great freedom, and reproves him ſeverely, without giving him the leaſt mark of any ſuperiority. The Council of Carthage, held by St. CYPRIAN, reflect upon his ſtile of *Epiſcopus Epiſcoporum*, as an encroachment on the reſt of the church. And from the canons of the ſecond General Council of Conſtantinople it appears, that the precedency given to the Pope was on account of his reſiding in the capital city of the Empire, and not on account of his being the ſucceſſor of St. PETER. The fourth General Council of Chalcedon, held in the fifth century, aſſigning the Biſhop or Patriarch of Conſtantinople the limits of his juriſdiction, decree alſo by the twenty-eighth canon, that he ſhould have equal privileges with the Biſhop of Rome, becauſe that Conſtantinople was then New Rome, dignified with a Senate, and the reſidence of the Emperor; of which the Pope's Legates complained indeed, and refuſed to be preſent at the paſſing the canon: But notwithſtanding their oppoſition, it was read a ſecond time, and unanimouſly carried by the fathers, and afterwards confirmed by the Emperor. BALUZIUS has demonſtrated for the Gallican churches, that for eight hundred years the French ſynods never allowed of any appeals from their determinations to the Pope; they always ordained their own metropolitans, and ſtrenuouſly reſiſted the encroachments of the Popes. And as to the Britannick church, it is evident that for ſix hundred years they never acknowledged any dependence on Rome. When AUSTIN the Monk came into England, and had a conference with the Britiſh Biſhops, wherein he required their ſubjection to the Biſhop of Rome, and a conformity to the Roman rites in the obſervation of Eaſter, and other things; they anſwered, that they owed no obedience to the Pope of Rome, but were under the government of the Biſhop of Caerleon upon Uſke, who was their overſeer under God. And as to the controverſy about Eaſter, they were ſo far from paying any deference to the Roman cuſtom, that they continued their ancient cuſtom of obſerving Eaſter on a different Sunday from Rome for ſome ages after, for which reaſon they were treated as ſchiſmaticks by that See.

This pretence of the Biſhop of Rome's to an eccleſiaſtical ſovereignty over the whole church, has been ſufficiently exploded by the learned in the laſt age. They have ſhewn that he could never derive it from St. PETER, becauſe St. PETER never pretended to a ſuperiority over the reſt of the Apoſtles. That the church in her original eſtabliſhment uſually took the civil government for her model: as every city among the Greeks and Romans was under the immediate government of certain magiſtrates within its own body, commonly called the Senate or Common-Council, in which there was one chief or principal, whoſe power extended not only over the city, but all the adjacent territory, then called the ſuburbs, in which ſeveral leſſer towns and villages were included. In the ſame manner the Apoſtles, in the firſt planting a church, wherever they found a civil magiſtracy ſettled in any place, there they endeavoured to ſettle an eccleſiaſtical magiſtracy, conſiſting of a Senate or Preſbytery, a Common-Council of Preſbyters, and one chief Preſident among the reſt, called the Apoſtle, Biſhop, or Angel of the church, whoſe juriſdiction was not confined to a ſingle congregation, but extended to the whole region or diſtrict belonging to the city, which was what we now call the dioceſe of the church.

CHAP. XIX. Pope's dominions.

The church takes the ſtate for her model.

The ſmaller dioceſes.

Provinces.

The Roman Empire alſo was divided into provinces and larger dioceſes. A province contained the cities of a whole region, which were ſubject to one chief magiſtrate, who reſided in the metropolis or chief city of a province, and was uſually a Prætor or Proconſul. A dioceſe was a larger diſtrict, comprehending ſeveral provinces, the Governor whereof was ſtiled Vicar of the Roman Empire, and from hence the church took her model when ſhe conſtituted Metropolitans and Patriarchs: for as in every metropolis or chief city of each province there was a ſuperior magiſtrate above the magiſtrates of every particular city, ſo in the ſame metropolis there was a Biſhop whoſe power extended over the whole province, whence he was called the Metropolitan or Primate. And as the State had a Vicar in every capital city of each civil dioceſe, ſo the church in proceſs of time came to have their Exarchs or Patriarchs in many, if not in all the capital cities of the Empire. This in the main was the ſtate and diviſion of the church in the latter end of the fourth century; but theſe things being only matters of conveniency and outward order, the church did not tie herſelf up to follow this model, but only ſo far as ſhe judged it expedient and conducive to the ends of her own ſpiritual government and diſcipline, and therefore ſhe did not imitate the State-model in all things; ſhe never had one univerſal Biſhop, in imitation of an univerſal Emperor, nor an eaſtern and weſtern Pontificate in imitation of an eaſtern and weſtern Empire, nor four grand ſpiritual Adminiſtrators anſwering to the four great miniſters of State, the Præfecti Prætorio in the civil government. The church was at liberty to follow the model and diviſions of the civil State or not, as ſhe judged moſt expedient for herſelf; and when any alterations were made, they were generally done by the direction or conſent of a Provincial or General Council. As to the Biſhop of Rome in particular, whether he was only a Metropolitan according to ſome, or a Patriarch according to others, it is held by learned men, that his juriſdiction extended no farther than the ten provinces of the Roman dioceſe, which were ſubject to the Vicarius Urbis, viz. 1. Campania. 2. Tuſcia and Umbria. 3. Picenum Suburbicarium. 4. Valeria. 5. Samnium. 6. Apulia and Calabria. 7. Lucania and Brutii,

Larger dioceſes, or patriarchates.

No univerſal Biſhop.

The extent of the Pope's juriſdiction originally.

8. Sicilia. 9. Sardinia. And, 10. Corſica. Dupin, a Roman Catholick writer, makes no ſcruple to confeſs, that Germany, Spain, France, Britain, Africa, Illyricum, and ſeven of the Italick provinces, were not ſubject to the juriſdiction of the Roman Patriarch in the firſt and primitive ages. How he afterwards enlarged his eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, remains ſtill to be enquired into.

How he enlarged his authority.

Puffendorf has aſſigned ſeveral reaſons as the occaſion of the increaſe and eſtabliſhment of the Pope's ſpiritual monarchy; and firſt the barbarity and ignorance which on the decay of the Roman Empire overſpread the weſtern part of the world; for bad wares, he obſerves, are ever beſt vended in the dark, or at leaſt by a dim light. An ignorant perſon is ſooner prevailed on to believe ridiculous ſtories, than a wiſe man verſed in all ſciences: but what gave them the beſt opportunity of advancing their pretenſions, was the Emperor's removing from Rome; for the Biſhops of Conſtantinople, who he ſuppoſes were equally ambitious, could never gain this point. A third thing which contributed to enlarge their power, was the reſpect the barbarous nations paid them, who conquered the Roman Empire, on account of their being converted to the Chriſtian faith by the Romiſh church; this induced them no doubt to honour her, as the moſt conſiderable of the weſtern churches. A further opportunity ſhe had of claiming a ſuperiority over the weſtern parts of Europe in the fifth century, when the Biſhops who lived on this ſide of the Alps, uſed to go to Rome to viſit the ſepulchres of St. Peter and St. Paul, either out of devotion, or to teſtify their firm adherence to the Chriſtian faith; which voluntary devotion was afterwards changed into a neceſſity, and ſuch as neglected it ſeverely rebuked: from hence it was eaſy for the Popes afterwards to pretend, that the Biſhops ought to receive their confirmation from Rome. Beſides, many Biſhops and Churches, that were novices in compariſon of the ancient Roman church, uſed to refer themſelves to, and aſk the advice of the church of Rome, concerning matters of conſequence, and the true ſenſe and interpretation of the canons; and when once they perceived at Rome, that their anſwers were taken as deciſions, they began to ſend their decrees before they were demanded, under pretence that Rome being the firſt ſeat of the Chriſtian Biſhops, ought to take effectual care that the canons and eccleſiaſtical laws were duly put in execution. On the like pretence they made themſelves judges of the differences between Biſhops; and encroaching on the right of their Metropolitans, uſed to depoſe ſuch Biſhops as, in their opinion, had not a right ordination; and ſuch as were charged with enormous crimes they ſuſpended, and obliged to appear at Rome and plead their cauſe: and if any deſired an exemption from the canons, they travelled to Rome, where they were kindly received, and encouraged in their demands; whereby the ſtaple of diſpenſations and favours became eſtabliſhed at Rome. If any one loſt his cauſe before the ordinary Judge, he immediately appealed to Rome. According to the French hiſtorians, the Emperor Henry having made the city of Arles the capital city over ſeven provinces, the Pope conſtituted the Archbiſhop of that city his Vicar in France, leſt he ſhould attempt to make himſelf Patriarch of that kingdom; and the Archbiſhop choſe to have the inſpection, though precariouſly, over ſeventeen provinces, into which France was divided at that time, rather than to be head only of ſeven in his own right; and to add the greater authority to his commiſſion, did all that lay in his power to eſtabliſh the Pope's authority there. In the eighth century, when the clergy were become very debauched, Winifred, an Engliſh Friar, who afterwards went by the name of Boniface, took upon himſelf to reform the manners of the monks and clergy, and endeavoured to eſtabliſh Chriſtianity in Germany; and, to acquire the greater authority, entirely devoted himſelf to the Roman chair, and was honoured with a pall, and the title of Archbiſhop of Mayence: he was conſtituted alſo by Pope Gregory III his Vicar, with authority to call Councils, and conſtitute Biſhops in thoſe places, which by his means had been converted to the Chriſtian faith, with ample recommendations to thoſe nations, and particularly to Charles Martel, the then Grand Maſter of France, deſiring he would take him into his protection, which he very willingly did: and when afterwards his ſon Carloman ſhewed an inclination to have the church-diſcipline regulated, Boniface took that office upon him, to the great advantage of the Roman See. At the requeſt of this Prince alſo he called a Council in Germany; and in the reign of King Pepin held ſeveral ſynods in France, where Boniface preſided in quality of the Pope's Legate. In the firſt of theſe Councils the clergy ſigned a confeſſion of faith, whereby they obliged themſelves, not only to maintain the Catholick faith, but to remain in conſtant communion with the Romiſh church, and to be obedient to the ſucceſſors of St. Peter. Boniface was the firſt who required the German Biſhops to receive the epiſcopal pall from the Pope, and ſent it to the Biſhops of France unaſked, in order to increaſe their obligation to the See of Rome; and theſe ornaments afterwards becoming cuſtomary, they were forced upon them as of abſolute neceſſity, and the epiſcopal function forbidden to be exerciſed till they had received them. They aſſumed alſo an authority of licenſing Biſhops to remove from one See to another, and obliged them to receive their confirmation from Rome, for which a ſum of money was exacted. They alſo made void the deciſions of provincial ſynods, which reduced their authority to nothing. Pope Gregory VII obliged the Biſhops to take an oath of fealty to him; and decreed that none ſhould dare to condemn any one who had appealed to the Pope. He ſent Nuncio's or Legates alſo to every court, who in the name of the Pope exerciſed that authority which formerly belonged to the reſpective Biſhops, Metropolitans, and Provincial aſſemblies: and not contented with the liberality and charity of Princes and Great Men, who had been very bountiful to the church and clergy, contrived various artifices to empty the people's pockets, ſuch as ſaying maſſes for the living and the dead, purgatory, indulgencies, diſpenſations, pilgrimages, jubilees, and other fopperies; and his emiſſaries had always a watchful eye on ſuch as were at the point of death, obſerving that men were then inclined to be moſt liberal. But nothing turned more to the Pope's advantage than the croiſadoes, which were encouraged in the eleventh century; for in theſe expeditions, after people had received the ſign of the croſs, the Pope claimed the ſupreme command, and took the perſons and eſtates of the adventurers under his protection, exempting them from the civil juriſdiction. The Pope's Legates alſo diſpoſed of all the alms that were given for theſe expeditions, and levied the tenths on the clergy to ſupport them, laying their commands on Kings and Princes to receive the croſs themſelves. This ſacred militia were afterwards employed againſt ſuch as they were pleaſed to declare hereticks or ſchiſmaticks, whoſe kingdoms and poſſeſſions they uſually confiſcated and beſtowed on their moſt zealous ſons.

The multiplying of monks and friars alſo very much advanced the ſtrength and intereſt of the See of Rome; for theſe ſerved not only to drain the purſes of the laity, but to curb the Biſhops and Clergy, for which reaſon the Pope ſupported them with all imaginable zeal in the tenth century, when they withdrew themſelves from the juriſdiction of their Biſhops, and ſubmitted to the immediate authority of the Pope. Theſe friars were a great grievance to the ſecular clergy, ſharing with them in the legacies and burials of the rich, in the direction of their conſciences, and the adminiſtration of the ſacraments; from whence there aroſe perpetual feuds between the Biſhops and their clergy and the monks, but the latter being ſupported by the Pope, had generally the beſt of it. If a Biſhop attempted any thing againſt the Pope's authority, the friars ran him down with clamour and noiſe, like ſo many hounds, and rendered him odious to the people, among whom they were in great veneration, on account of that outward appearance of ſanctity they put on. And this was one of the principal reaſons why the Biſhops who oppoſed the Pope's encroachments, could never make a great party among the common people. Some of them, it is true, were very well ſatisfied with the advancement of the Pope's power, as participating of the grandeur of their ſupreme head, and thereby being exempted from the juriſdiction of the civil magiſtrate, which was more dreadful to them than a foreign juriſdiction, exerciſed by thoſe of their own order, from whom they had reaſon to expect more favour.

But ſurely nothing contributed more towards eſtabliſhing the Pope's empire, than that opinion ſo induſtriouſly propagated by the Jeſuits of his infallibility; for if he alone was infallible, what need could there be for the future of a General Council? unerring wiſdom needed no advice, and ought not to be ſubject to the control of miſguided mortals. All Princes and States therefore, who really believed him poſſeſſed of this divine attribute, readily ſubmitted to his dictates: but there were ſome, it ſeems, that would never come into this notion of the Pope's infallibility, unleſs it were in conjunction with a Council; and the ſchiſms and double elections, which frequently happened, gave a great ſhock to their pretended claim of infallibility; for at theſe times all their faults and failings were ripped up, and they excommunicated and reviled each other without mercy. They were ſometimes alſo obliged to ſubmit their infallible underſtandings to the Princes who gave them their aſſiſtance: at others, their Holineſſes were defeated, impriſoned, and depoſed, and forced to return to a private life. The firſt ſchiſm happened about the year 1130, (according to PUFFENDORF, but the reader will find ſeveral Anti-Popes before this in the following table) when INNOCENT II and ANACLETUS were both choſen Popes. After the death of ADRIAN IV, two Popes were again elected, viz. ALEXANDER III, and VICTOR IV; to the firſt France, England, and Sicily adhered, and to the latter the Emperor FREDERICK I, Germany, and the Roman clergy; and after the death of VICTOR his party choſe three Popes ſucceſſively, all whom ALEXANDER out-lived. But the greateſt ſchiſm was after the death of BENEDICT X, when two Popes being elected, one reſided at Rome, and the other at Avignon, which laſted through ſeveral ſucceſſions near forty years; when they did not only excommunicate each other, but exerciſed the greateſt cruelties on their adverſaries: Both parties pretending to have the Saints on their ſide, producing ſham miracles and revelations to induce the people to believe they were approved by heaven, till at length they became the jeſt and contempt of Chriſtendom; and inſtead of being deemed infallible, it was held that a Council might depoſe them for male-adminiſtration. Succeeding Popes however ſo inſinuated themſelves into the good graces of the Princes of Europe, and gained ſuch an aſcendant over the common people, that they were become as abſolute as ever a little before the Reformation; when that ſcandalous practice of ſelling indulgencies, and permitting people to be as wicked as they pleaſed, who had money to purchaſe the Pope's favour, provoked LUTHER and ſome others, about the year 1517, to call their authority in queſtion again: the conſequence of which was, the utter aboliſhing of the Pope's ſupremacy in ſeveral of the kingdoms of Europe, which would probably have been univerſal, if the reformers had been conducted by any one chief, and had not ſplit into ſo many ſects and parties. What deterred a great many prelates and eccleſiaſticks from joining with them, was their ſeizing and ſequeſtring the lands and revenues of the church, and applying them to ſecular and prophane uſes; though on the other hand, it is ſaid, that a view of ſeizing the benefices of the church was one great inducement to ſome temporal powers to embrace the Reformation. But however that matter be, it is evident the Pope in a little time regained his authority in thoſe kingdoms, which were not fallen off to the reformed; and of late has rather got than loſt ground, for which ſeveral reaſons are aſſigned, as the Pope's treating ſovereign Princes with more civility than formerly; his reforming the Biſhops and Clergy, who do not now lead ſuch ſcandalous lives as when LUTHER exclaimed againſt them, and made this one of the principal grounds of ſeparating from their communion. They are alſo become more learned, and have many excellent books and preachers amongſt them, which they were deſtitute of at the Reformation. The Jeſuits particularly apply themſelves to learning, and the education of youth, and furniſh their diſciples with ſpecious arguments at leaſt for their adhering to Popery. There is not a court of the Romiſh communion in Europe, where this crafty generation have not a mighty influence, and we ſee them daily drawing off one Prince or other from our communion. But I proceed to give a catalogue of the Popes, in which I ſhall take notice of ſome of the moſt remarkable events that have happened ſince they poſſeſſed the Roman See.

A. D.		Years.
43.	St. *Peter*, according to tradition, reigned	24
67.	St. *Linus*	11
78.	St. *Cletus*	12
91.	St. *Clement* I,	9
101.	St. *Anacletus*	9

A. D. Years.

110. St. *Evariſtus* 9

119. St. *Alexander* 10

130. St. *Sixtus* I. 9

140. St. *Teleſphorus* 11

152. St. *Higinus* 3

It is ſaid he firſt ordered the conſecration of churches, and god-fathers at baptiſm.

156. St. *Pius* I. 9

He firſt ordered the celebration of Eaſter on the firſt Sunday after the fourteenth of the moon of March.

165. St. *Anicetus* 7

173. St. *Soter* 3

177. St. *Eleutherus* 15

192. St. *Victor* I. 9

He excommunicated the Biſhops of Aſia for celebrating Eaſter on the ſame day the Jews did, for which he was reprehended by ſeveral Biſhops.

201. St. *Zephyrinus* 18

He is ſaid to be the firſt Biſhop of Rome who did not die a martyr.

219. St. *Calixtus* I. 5

224. St. *Urban* I. 6

231. St. *Pontianus* 4

235. St. *Anterus* Some odd months

236. St. *Fabian* 15

The learned are not agreed exactly about the time of the choice and deceaſe of the preceding Popes. It is held that ſome of the firſt reigned together, there being two Biſhops, one of the converted Jews, and another of the Gentiles in ſome cities.

251. St. *Cornelius* 2

Novatian, a Prieſt, was choſen at the ſame time by the practice of *Novatus*, the author of the Novatian hereſy, and this is looked upon as the firſt ſchiſm in that church.

253. St. *Lucius* 1

255. St. *Stephen* 2

257. St. *Sixtus* II. 1

258. St. *Denys* 12

270. St. *Fælix* I. 4

275. St. *Eutychianus* 8

283. St. *Gaius* 12

296. St. *Marcellinus* 7

He apoſtatized in *Diocleſian*'s perſecution, but afterwards repented, and reprehended *Diocleſian* for his cruelties, for which he was put to death.

304. St. *Marcellus* 4

309. St. *Euſebius* 2

311. St. *Melchiades* 2

314. St. *Sylveſter* 22

He was compelled to leave Rome by *Maxentius*, but reſtored by *Conſtantine the Great*, and in his time the Council of Nice was held.

336. St. *Mark* Eight months.

336. St. *Julius* I. 15

352. *Liberius* 15

356. St. *Fælix* II ſet up againſt him, which made another ſchiſm 1

365. St. *Damaſus* I. 17

Urſinus a Deacon was ſet up in oppoſition to him, but baniſhed by the Emperor *Valentinian* in the ſecond year of his uſurpation. This Pope held the ſecond Council againſt the Arians.

385. St. *Siricius* 13

He excommunicated the Manichees, and ordered prieſts who married a ſecond time to be deprived.

398. St. *Anaſtaſius* 4

A. D. Years.

402. St. *Innocent* I. 15

He defended St. *Chryſoſtom* againſt the Emperor *Arcadius*, and condemned the errors of *Pelagius*, *Celeſtin*, and *Priſcillian*, and ordered every Saturday to be kept as a faſt.

417. St. *Zozimus* 1

This Pope alſo condemned the Pelagians.

418. St. *Boniface* I. 4

He would not admit any one into Prieſts orders under thirty years of age. *Eulalius* the Archdeacon uſurped the Papal chair in this reign, which occaſioned the fourth ſchiſm; but the difference was decided in favour of *Boniface* by the Biſhops of Italy, Gaul, and Africk.

423. St. *Celeſtine* I. 8

He took the part of St. *Auguſtin* againſt *Neſtorius*.

432. St. *Sixtus* III. 7

He bequeathed all his goods to the poor.

440. St. *Leo* I, ſurnamed *the Great* 20

He was ſent for out of Gaul, and advanced to the papacy on account of his merit, as being the moſt able to defend the church in thoſe diſtracted times againſt the Neſtorians, Pelagians, and the barbarous nations. He ſo far inſinuated himſelf into the favour of *Attila* the Hun, and *Genſerick* King of the Vandals, that he preſerved Rome from a total deſtruction.

461. St. *Hilary* 5

He called a Council at Rome to reſtore eccleſiaſtical diſcipline, and confirmed the Councils of Nice, Epheſus and Chalcedon.

467. St. *Simplicius* 15

He ordered church-benefices to be divided into four parts, the firſt for the incumbent, the ſecond for other eccleſiaſticks, the third for the repairs of the church, and the fourth for the poor.

483. St. *Fælix* III. 8

The dedication of churches, and the annual commemoration of ſuch dedications, were firſt ordered in this pontificate.

492. St. *Gelaſius* 4

496. St. *Anaſtaſius* II. 1

498. St. *Symachus* 15

He decreed that no Pope ſhould be choſen until the See was vacant. *Laurence* the Archdeacon was ſet up againſt him, but *Theodorick* King of the Goths determined in favour of *Symachus*, who made *Laurence*, his rival, Biſhop of Nocera. He excommunicated *Anaſtaſius* the Emperor, who had oppoſed him, and incited the Biſhops of the eaſt to reſiſt him.

514. St. *Hormiſdus* 9

523. St. *John* I. 2

Impriſoned by *Theodorick* the Goth for perſecuting the Arians.

526. St. *Fælix* IV. 4

He ſucceeded by the intereſt of *Theodorick* King of the Goths: firſt ordered extreme unction, and excommunicated the Patriarch of Conſtantinople.

530. St. *Boniface* II. 2

He ordered the people to be ſeparated from the clergy during divine worſhip. *Diocorus* was ſet up againſt him, having obtained a great intereſt by his money, but he was excommunicated by *Boniface*, and died eighteen days afterwards: this occaſioned the ſixth ſchiſm in this church.

532. *John* II, named *Mercury* 2

He condemned the Monks called *Acæmetæ*, who maintained the errors of *Neſtorius*; but

A. D. Years.

were remarkable for devoting themſelves to the ſervice of God, ſinging pſalms and anthems night and day, and ſcarce allowing themſelves any ſleep.

535. St. *Agapetus* I. Ten months.

The proceſſions round churches on Sundays are aſcribed to him.

536. St. *Silverus* 4

He was the ſon of Pope *Hormiſdus*, and appointed by *Theodotus* the Goth, rather than elected by the clergy and people, who were many of them againſt him. The Empreſs *Theodora*, the wife of *Juſtinian*, procured his baniſhment, and ſet up *Vigilius* againſt him, who impriſoned *Silverus*, and ſtarved him to death. This was the ſeventh ſchiſm.

540. *Vigilius* 15

This Pope reſigned on the death of *Silverus*, and was re-elected, but died afterwards in baniſhment.

555. *Pelagius* I. 3

He was elected by the intereſt of the Emperor *Juſtinian*. He ordered hereticks to be puniſhed by the temporal powers, and added the maſs to the office for commemorating the dead.

559. St. *John* III, called *Catilinus* 12

571. St. *Benedictus*, named *Bonoſus* 4

577. *Pelagius* II. 12

In his time Italy was plundered by the Lombards, and the church diſtracted with ſchiſms. He was at variance with JOHN Biſhop of Conſtantinople, on account of his aſſuming the title of Oecumenical.

590. St. *Gregory*, ſurnamed *the Great* 13

He was firſt a ſoldier, and by his merit raiſed himſelf to be Governor of Rome. He afterwards entered himſelf in a monaſtery, and became as eminent among the clergy, till at length he was elected Pope. He oppoſed the Biſhop of Conſtantinople's taking upon him the title of Univerſal Biſhop: and was the firſt who introduced the doctrines of purgatory, invocation of Saints, expiations by maſſes, proceſſions, luſtrations on the purification of the bleſſed Virgin, pilgrimages, &c. And prohibited the eating fleſh, milk or eggs on faſt-days. He ordered Prieſts alſo to put away their wives; but, it is ſaid, upon finding great numbers of infants ſkulls in the Tiber, he revoked that decree. His compliance with *Phocas*, who murdered the Emperor his maſter, is highly cenſured.

604. *Sabinius*. Five months.

He firſt introduced the burning of lamps in churches.

606. *Boniface* III. Eight months.

He decreed, that thoſe ſhould be excommunicated who procured themſelves to be advanced to the Papal chair by bribery and corruption. He decreed alſo, that Biſhops ſhould be elected by the clergy and people, and confirmed by the Pope and Civil Magiſtrate: and procured an order from the Emperor *Phocas*, that none but the Pope of Rome ſhould be ſtiled Univerſal Biſhop.

607. *Boniface* IV. 6

614. *Deus Dedit*.

617. *Boniface* V. 7

He decreed that the church ſhould be a ſanctuary for criminals.

626. *Honorius* I. 12

639. *Severinus*. Two months.

A. D. Years.

He condemned the expoſition made by the Emperor *Heraclius* in favour of the Arians.

639. *John* IV. 1

Lent was firſt obſerved in England in his pontificate.

631. *Theodorus* 7

He inſtituted the ceremony of bleſſing the wax-candle on the Saturday before Eaſter, and condemned two patriarchs of Conſtantinople as Monothelites.

649. St. *Martin* I. 5

He condemned the Monothelites in a council at Rome, whereupon the Emperor *Conſtantius* brought him priſoner to Conſtantinople, and baniſhed him to the Cherſoneſus, where he died.

655. *Eugenius* I. Five months.

655. *Vitalianus* 13

He firſt ordered divine ſervice to be performed in Latin, and introduced organs into churches.

669. *Adeodatus* 7

676. *Domnus*, or *Domnionus* 1

He reduced the church of Ravenna, the ſeat of the Emperor's Exarch or Vicar in Italy, under the ſubjection of the See of Rome.

671. St. *Agatho* 3

He ordered the decrees of the Roman See to be reverenced and obeyed as the decrees of St. *Peter*, and to be ſealed with lead inſtead of wax.

683. St. *Leo* II. Ten months.

He ordered baptiſm to be adminiſtered at all times in caſe of neceſſity.

684. St. *Benedict* II. Eight months.

In this pontificate the Emperor forgave the money paid him on confirming a Pope, and excuſed them from applying to him by his Vicar or Exarch at Ravenna.

685. *John* V. 1

686. *Conon* 1

Two uſurpers in the interregnum, which made the eighth ſchiſm.

687. St. *Sergius* I. 13

His former name was *Bocco de Porco*, or Swine's Snout, which he changed on his advancement to the chair to *Sergius*, which introduced the cuſtom of the Pope's changing their names on an election. He crowned *Lewis*, ſon to the Emperor *Lotharius* King of Italy.

701. *John* VI. 3

705. *John* VII. 2

He firſt introduced images into churches.

708. *Siſinius* Twenty days.

708. *Conſtantine* 6

He was at variance with the Emperor becauſe he prohibited the worſhip of images.

714. *Gregory* II. 16

Leo Iſaurus Emperor of Conſtantinople, having convened a Synod which condemned the worſhip of images, praying to the Virgin and other Saints, and the adoration of reliques, ordered all images to be burnt both in the Greek and Latin churches, and all pictures to be defaced. Whereupon the Pope called a Synod, which approved the worſhip of images, cenſured the Emperor's decree, and excommunicated him. He alſo encouraged the Italians to deny him his taxes, in levying whereof the Emperor's Vicar or Exarch at Ravenna was killed.

731. *Gregory* III. 10

This Pontif alſo excommunicated the Emperor *Leo*, for prohibiting the worſhip of images, but

A. D. Years.

but was attacked by *Luitprand* King of the Lombards, who beſieged him in Rome, and had taken the city, if *Charles Martel* Grand Maſter of France, the Pope's allie, had not interpoſed and prevented it.

741. St. *Zachary* 10

He encouraged the French in depoſing their King *Childerick*, and advancing *Pepin* the ſon of *Charles Martel* to the throne.

754. *Stephen* II. Four days.

754. *Stephen* III. 5

He was compelled to abandon Rome by *Aſtulphus* King of Lombardy, but his allie King *Pepin* defeated the Lombards, recovered the exarchate of *Ravenna*, and conferred thoſe territories on the Pope.

757. *Paul* I. 11

He began to rebuild the church of St. *Peter*'s in Rome; his election was diſputed by *Theophylact* for ſome time, which occaſioned the ninth ſchiſm. The writing the lives of Saints way very much in vogue in this pontificate.

768. *Stephen* IV. 3

Conſtantine a lay-man was ſet up againſt *Stephen*, but was ſoon degraded, and his eyes put out; afterwards *Philip* a prieſt oppoſed *Stephen*, but ſubmitted to him. This was the tenth ſchiſm.

772. *Adrian* I. 23

He was attacked by *Didier*, or *Deſiderius*, the laſt King of Lombardy; but *Charlemain* marched to his aſſiſtance, and having defeated *Didier*, and taken him priſoner, put an end to the kingdom of the Lombards: whereupon he acknowledged his right of appointing the Pope. *Charlemain*, on the other hand, confirmed his title to the territories which his father *Pepin* had conferred upon him; and had ſo great a reſpect for this Pope, that he wrote his epitaph, which ſtill remains in St. *Peter*'s church.

795. *Leo* III. 20

He was oppoſed by a faction, and forced to fly to *Charlemain* in Germany, who confirmed him in the chair; whereupon *Leo* crowned his benefactor Emperor of the weſt, and acknowledged him his ſovereign.

816. *Stephen* V. 1

817. *Paſcal.* I. 7

He prevailed with the Emperor to give up his right of appointing a Pope; and excommunicated *Leo* V, Emperor of the Eaſt, for oppoſing the worſhip of images. He crowned *Lotharius* Emperor of the Weſt.

824. *Eugenius* II. 3

He was oppoſed by *Zizinius*, which occaſioned the eleventh ſchiſm. The worſhip of relicks being very much in vogue in this pontificate, he diſtributed great numbers of bones in France, Germany and England, ſaid to belong to Saints and Martyrs.

827. *Valentinus* Forty days.

He was poiſoned forty days after his election.

827. *Gregory* IV. 15

He refuſed to accept of the chair, it is ſaid, till he had the Emperor's conſent.

844. *Sergius* II. 3

847. *Leo* IV. 8

He defeated the Saracen fleet, and defended Rome againſt them. He prohibited laymen to enter the church in time of divine ſervice, it is ſaid.

852. Some place Pope *Joan* here by the name of *John* VIII. It is ſaid ſhe was of Engliſh extraction; that ſhe had her education at Athens, where having made a great progreſs in her ſtudies, ſhe went to Rome, and on *Leo*'s death was advanced to the papal chair. But being with child, was delivered of a baſtard as ſhe was going to the church of St. John de Lateran. But I find the whole is looked upon as a fiction by many Proteſtants.

855. *Benedict* III. 2

Anaſtaſius, an excommunicated Prieſt, oppoſed him, which occaſioned the twelfth ſchiſm.

858. *Nicholas* I. ſurnamed *the Great.* 9

He was called *the Great* on account of his maintaining his authority againſt *Michael* Emperor of the eaſt, and excommunicating *Photius*, whom the Emperor had made Patriarch of Conſtantinople, in the room of *Ignatius*, whom he had depoſed.

867. *Adrian* II. 4

He was choſen without the conſent of the Emperor, and ordered that neither the Emperor, nor any layman ſhould be concerned in electing a Pope for the future.

872. *John* VIII. 10

He was made priſoner by the Marquiſs of Tuſcany, but eſcaped into France, and returning to Italy, then infeſted by the Saracens, it is ſaid, was forced to pay tribute to them. He was taken off by poiſon.

882. *Marin* or *Martin* II. 2

884. *Adrian* III. 1

885. *Stephen* VI. 6

He firſt appointed the ſign of the croſs.

890. *Formoſus.* 6

He was oppoſed by *Sergius*, a Cardinal Deacon, which occaſioned the thirteenth ſchiſm.

897. *Stephen* VII. 3

Oppoſed by *Boniface*, who is by ſome placed in the number of Popes; but was forced to quit the title in fifteen days.

901. *Theodorus* II. Twenty days.

901. *John* IX. 3

905. *Benedict* IV. Some few months.

906. *Leo* V. Forty days.

One of his domeſticks uſurped the See, and threw him into priſon, where he died.

906. *Chriſtopher* Seven months.

He governed tyrannically, and was impriſoned in a monaſtery.

907. *Sergius* III. 3

Having impriſoned his predeceſſor, he obtained the chair by force; after which he threw the corps of Pope *Formoſus* into the Tiber, who had formerly been his competitor for the popedom. He cohabited with a Lady of quality, by whom he had a baſtard, that afterwards came to be Pope by the name of *John* X.

910. *Anaſtaſius* III. 2

912. *Landon* Some months.

913. *John* X. 15

He ſucceeded by the intereſt of his mother, who was concubine to *Sergius* III, but was depoſed, and ſtrangled in priſon by the procurement of her daughter, to make room for *John* XI, her baſtard ſon.

928. *Leo* VI. Six months.

929. *Stephen* VIII. 2

931. *John* XI. 4

936. *Leo* VII. 3

939. *Stephen* IX. 3

He was ſet up by the Emperor *Otho*, but oppoſed by the people, who aſſaulted him, and ſo diſ-

A. D. Years.

diſfigured his face that he could never appear in publick.

943. *Marin* or *Martin* III. 6

949. *Agapetus* II. 9

955. *John* XII. 9

He called the Emperor *Otho* to aſſiſt him againſt the tyrant *Berengarius* and his ſon, and ſwore allegiance to him; but on ſome miſunderſtanding joined his enemies; whereupon *Otho* procured him to be depoſed, ſetting up *Leo* a Deacon, whom he maintained in the papal chair two years, which occaſioned the fifteenth ſchiſm: But *John* was afterwards reſtored by the intereſt of the ladies, whoſe votary he had been. He was murdered by one with whoſe wife he had been too free.

962. *Leo* VIII, the uſurper, is by ſome placed in the catalogue of Popes 3

964. *Benedict* V. 1

965. *John* XIII. 6

He was elected by the intereſt of the Emperor, but expelled by the Romans; and being afterwards reſtored, uſed his enemies barbarouſly. He firſt appointed the bleſſing of bells.

972. *Dommus* or *Domnion* II. Two months.

972. *Benedict* VI. 1

He was impriſoned and afterwards ſtrangled by the procurement of *Boniface* the Cardinal Deacon, who uſurped the papacy, and occaſioned the ſixteenth ſchiſm; but *Boniface* having plundered the church of St. *Peter*'s, retired to Conſtantinople.

975. *Benedict* VII. 9

He attempted to reform the clergy, and was depoſed.

984. *John* XIV. 1

He was impriſoned and ſtarved to death by *Boniface* the Antipope, who returned to Rome and uſurped the chair about four months; after which dying ſuddenly, he was dragged naked about the ſtreets.

985. *John* XV. 10

He was at perpetual variance with his clergy; driven from Rome, and reſtored again by the Emperor; but at laſt was famiſhed in the caſtle of St. Angelo, as it is ſaid.

996. *Gregory* V. 2

He was the ſon of *Otho* Duke of Suabia, and firſt created Elector in the Empire. *Creſcentius*, a nobleman of Rome, ſet up *John* Biſhop of Piacenza againſt him, who held the See ſixteen months, which occaſioned the eighteenth ſchiſm.

999. *Silveſter* II. 4

1003. *John* XVII. Some fews months.

1003. *John* XVIII. 5

He appointed the feſtival in commemoration of the dead.

1009. *Sergius* IV. 2

1012. *Benedict* VIII. 12

He defeated the Saracens who were then maſters of part of Italy.

1024. *John* XIX. 9

1034. *Benedict* IX. 10

He procured the chair by force and bribery, and led a very ſcandalous life; he was ſeveral times depoſed and reſtored again.

1044. *Gregory* VI. 2

He purchaſed the chair of *Benedict*, who reſumed his pretenſions notwithſtanding. Two others alſo uſurped the chair about this time, which occaſioned the twentieth ſchiſm. *Gregory* bought out the other competitors, but was afterwards carried priſoner into Germany by the Emperor *Henry* III, where he died.

1046. *Clement* II. Nine months.

He was ſet up by the Emperor, but poiſoned by *Bennet* IX, in the tenth month of his pontificate.

1048. *Damaſus* II. Twenty-three days.

He was alſo ſet up by the Emperor, and poiſoned by *Bennet* IX.

1049. St. *Leo* IX. 5

1054. *Victor* II. 2

1057. *Stephen* X. Eight months.

He ſubjected the church of Milan to that of Rome, which till this time had diſputed its ſupremacy. He was advanced to the chair by the intereſt of the Emperor, as three or four of his immediate predeceſſors had been. The faction that oppoſed him fell upon him, and ſo disfigured his face, that he could not appear in publick for ſome time.

1058. *Nicholas* II. 2

He directed that the Pope ſhould be elected by the Cardinals and the Emperor. The Biſhop of Velitri was his competitor, but obliged to relinquiſh his pretenſions.

1061. *Alexander* II. 11

He was choſen by the Cardinals, but oppoſed by *Honorius* who was ſet up by the Emperor, between whom ſeveral bloody battles were fought: But *Honorius* was at length obliged to ſubmit. This Pope aſſiſted *William the Conqueror* in his enterprize againſt England.

1073. *Gregory* VII. 12

He was elected by the Cardinals without the Emperor's conſent, and decreed that the inveſtiture of Biſhops, &c. ſhould not belong to the Emperor. He excommunicated the Emperor *Henry* IV, cited him to appear at Rome, and abſolved his ſubjects from their allegiance, and ſet up *Rodolphus* of Suabia againſt him; but the Emperor having defeated *Rodolph*, who was killed in the field of battle, marched into Italy, beſieged and took Rome, compelling *Gregory* to fly to Salerno; whereupon he advanced *Clement* to the papal chair, which occaſioned the twenty-third ſchiſm, that laſted above twenty years.

1086. *Victory* III. Ten months.

He was poiſoned by his Subdeacon at the ſacrament.

1087. *Urban* II. 11

He excommunicated the Emperor, and was obliged to fly into France for protection.

1099. *Paſcal* II. 18

He excommunicated *Clement* the Antipope, and conteſted with the Emperor and the King of England about the inveſtiture of the biſhopricks, &c. The Emperor *Henry* V impriſoned him, and made him relinquiſh the inveſtiture, and confirm this agreement by taking the ſacrament; but he afterwards promoted an inſurrection againſt the Emperor in Germany, and obliged him to give up the right of inveſtiture again. *Clement* the Antipope dying, *Paſchal* ordered his corps to be dug up and treated ignominiouſly: after which four other Antipopes ſet up againſt him, which occaſioned the twenty-fourth ſchiſm.

1118. *Gelaſius* II. 1

He was obliged to leave Rome by the Emperor *Henry* V, (who ſet up *Gregory* againſt him) and to fly into France; whereupon happened the twenty-

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twenty-fifth ſchiſm, *Gregory* keeping poſſeſſion of the See for three years.

1119. *Calixtus* II. 5

He was of the blood royal of France, and ſucceeded on the death of *Gelaſius*. He excommunicated the Emperor, and impriſoned *Gregory* the Antipope, and held the firſt General Council of Lateran, in order to accommodate matters with the Emperor.

1124. *Honorius* II. 4

Being illegally choſen, he reſigned, in order to be elected canonically, as he was.

1130. *Innocent* II. 13

Anaclete was ſet up againſt him by the Italians, whereupon he was obliged to fly for refuge into France; but afterwards accommodated matters, and held the ſecond General Council of Lateran.

1143. *Celeſtine* II. Five months.

1144. *Lucius* II. Eleven months.

He perſuaded the Emperor *Conrad* to undertake a croiſado againſt the Saracens.

1145. *Eugenius* III. 8

He was ſeveral times driven from Rome, but was at length ſucceſsful againſt thoſe who oppoſed him, and promoted a croiſado.

1153. *Anaſtaſius* IV. 1

1154. *Adrian* IV. 4

He was an Engliſhman, named *Nicholas Breakſpear*, of Abbots Langly in Hertfordſhire, his father a lay-brother of St. Albans. He travelled to Arles in France, and being admitted into the abbey of St. *Ruff*, became their Abbot. He afterwards travelled into Norway, and planted Chriſtianity there; for which ſervice he was made a Cardinal by Pope *Eugene* III. He excommunicated the Emperor *Frederick Barbaroſſa*, for not acknowledging the Empire to be a fee of the See of Rome, aboliſhed the Roman Senate, and excommunicated the citizens. He was afterwards reconciled to the Emperor, and crowned him in St. *Peter*'s church.

1159. *Alexander* III. 21

He had continual wars with the Emperor *Barbaroſſa*, being ſupported by the Venetians and other powers. *Victor* was ſet up againſt him, and took him priſoner; but he made his eſcape into France, where he was forced to remain three years, which occaſioned the twenty-ſeventh ſchiſm in the church. *Paſchal* and *Calixtus* were ſet up againſt him after *Victor*; but he extricated himſelf out of all his difficulties, and compelled the Emperor to ſubmit to him, who it is ſaid was contented to let the Pope tread upon his neck, to procure the liberty of the Prince his ſon, who had been made priſoner by the enemy. The Pope on this occaſion inſolently made uſe of that paſſage of ſcripture, *Thou ſhalt tread on ſerpents and ſcorpions*. He held the third Lateran Council at Rome for the reformation of the clergy.

1181. *Lucius* III. 4

He was driven from Rome upon his attempting to lay aſide the Conſuls and Patricii; but being aſſiſted by the neighbouring powers, the Romans were obliged to ſubmit to him. He alſo diſputed the right of inveſtiture with the Emperor.

1185. *Urban*. 1

In this pontificate Jeruſalem was taken by the Saracens.

1187. *Gregory* VIII. Two months.

A. D. Years.

He promoted a croiſado for the recovery of the Holy Land.

1188. *Clement* III. 5

He promoted the croiſado's, prohibited the celebrating Maſs with common bread or in wooden veſſels.

1191. *Celeſtine* III. 6

He took part with *Richard* I, King of England, againſt his Barons, and invited him to undertake a croiſado. Upon his crowning the Emperor, he ſtruck the crown off again with his foot, intimating that he had power to depoſe him, ſays my author.

1199. *Innocent* III. 18

He firſt appointed auricular confeſſion; excommunicated the Emperor *Otho*, and ſet up *Frederick* II againſt him; *John* King of England made his dominions tributary to the Pope in this pontificate.

1216. *Honorius* III. 10

He ordered kneeling at the elevation of the Hoſt, and excommunicated the Emperor *Frederick* II.

1227. *Gregory* IX. 14

He was in continual wars with the Emperor *Frederick* II, excommunicated him and attempted to depoſe him; but the Emperor proving ſucceſsful, it is ſaid, broke the Pope's heart.

1241. *Celeſtine* IV. Twenty-eight days.

He was poiſoned.

1243. *Innocent* IV. 11

He excommunicated the Emperor *Frederick* II, and defeated his army; but the Emperor afterwards getting an advantage of him, the Pope fled to France for refuge, where he remained till the Emperor's death, and then returned to Rome. He was the firſt who appointed the Cardinals to wear red hats.

1254. *Alexander* IV. 6

In this pontificate Italy was diſtracted by the two factions of Guelphs and Gibelines, the firſt being eſpouſed by the Pope, and the other by the Emperor.

1261. *Urban* IV. 3

1265. *Clement* IV. 3

1271. *Gregory* X. 4

1276. *Innocent* V. Five months.

1276. *Adrian* V. Twenty-nine days.

1276. *John* XXI. Nine months.

1277. *Nicholas* III. 2

1281. *Martin* IV. 3

1285. *Honorius* IV. 2

1287. *Nicholas* IV. 4

After his death there was an interregnum of two years and three months.

1294. St. *Celeſtine* V. Five months.

He was choſen out of an hermitage, and after a reign of five months, choſe to reſign and return to his hermitage again.

1295. *Boniface* VIII. 8

He excommunicated *Philip* the French King, and abſolved his ſubjects from their allegiance, and gave his kingdom to thoſe who could recover it; whereupon *Philip*, in a Synod and Parliament of that kingdom, condemned the Pope for ſimony, murther, uſury, atheiſm, adultery, and a confederacy with the Saracens, and ſent an army into Italy, which took the Pope priſoner, and it is ſaid he died raving mad in their hands.

1303. *Benedict* X. Nine months.

A. D. Years.

The See removed from Rome to Avignon.

1305. *Clement* V. 8

He was a Frenchman, elected after a long vacancy, and crowned at Lyons. He reſided at Avignon, as his ſucceſſors did after him for ſeventy years, which the Romans called the Babyloniſh Captivity.

1316. *John* XXII. 18

In this pontificate *Lewis* of Bavaria and *Frederick* of Auſtria being competitors for the Empire, *John* excommunicated *Lewis*, whereupon *Lewis* ſet up a Cordelier againſt the Pope under the name of *Nicholas* V, which occaſioned the twenty-eighth ſchiſm, which laſted two years; but *Nicholas* being defeated and taken priſoner, died in priſon.

1334. *Benedict* XII. 7

He was the ſon of a French miller; he excommunicated *Lewis* of Bavaria the Emperor.

1342. *Clement* VI. 10

He ordered the Jubilee to be held once in fifty years.

1352. *Innocent* VI. 12

He was a Frenchman alſo, and perpetually at war with one Prince or other. He burnt *Joannes de Rupe* for his interpretation of the Revelations, in which he called the Pope Antichriſt.

1364. *Urban* V. 5

He was the firſt who wore the triple crown, condemned pluralities and non-reſidency, and prohibited the Cardinals making their palaces ſanctuaries for villains.

1370. *Gregory* XI.

He went from Avignon and took up his reſidence at Rome, after the See had been removed ſeventy years.

The See reſettled at Rome.

1378. *Urban* VI. 11

The Romans threatned to ſet fire to the Conclave, unleſs an Italian was elected; whereupon Urban was elected; but the Cardinals afterwards ſet up *Clement* VII againſt him, which occaſioned the twenty-ninth ſchiſm, that laſted thirty years.

1378. *Clement* VII, lived till 1394, but is reckoned by ſome among the Antipopes.

1389. *Boniface* IX. 14

He was the firſt who aſſumed the abſolute government of Rome, and took upon him to appoint all the magiſtrates. Before he could accompliſh the deſign, he had ſeveral warm ſkirmiſhes with the citizens, in one of which he was driven out of Rome, and was very near being killed. He excommunicated ſeveral ſovereign Princes for conferring benefices on Clerks without his approbation, and pronounced a ſentence of depoſition againſt the Emperor *Wenceſlaus*.

1404. *Innocent* VII. 2

He was elected on condition that he would quit the chair again, if *Bennet* the Antipope, who reſided at Avignon, would do the like: But refuſing afterwards, and being reprehended by the Romans for it, he cauſed ſeveral of them to be beheaded, and their bodies thrown into the ſtreets; whereupon the citizens called in *Ladiſlaus* King of Naples to their aſſiſtance, who drove him from Rome, but he returned thither afterwards and died there.

1406. *Gregory* XII. 2

He was choſen alſo upon condition he ſhould reſign the pontificate if *Bennet* the Antipope did; which they refuſing, the Cardinals met at Piſa, and reſolved that both of them had forfeited the See, and elected *Alexander*.

1409. *Alexander* V. Ten months.

He depoſed King *Ladiſlaus* for invading the dominions of the church.

1410. *John* XXIII. 5

He was elected on condition alſo that he ſhould reſign again, if *Gregory* XII and *Bennet* would do the ſame; but he refuſing, a council was called by the Emperor at Conſtance anno 1415, and this Pope taken and ſent priſoner to Heidelburgh, after which the council depoſed him and the other competitors, and elected *Martin* V. who afterwards upon *John*'s ſubmiſſion, made him Dean of the Cardinals, and gave him the biſhoprick of Freſcati.

1417. *Martin* V. 13

He was choſen, as has been ſaid, by a committee of the council of Conſtance, and made an excellent Governour. He repaired the city of Rome, which was almoſt deſtroyed during this ſchiſm, and reformed the manners of the Clergy and Laity, preferring none but men of merit, and was much lamented when he died.

1431. *Eugene* IV. 15

He called a council at Baſil,, but afterwards revoked his letters of ſummons, and held a council at Ferrara. The council of Baſil however met, and ſummoned the Pope before them, and on his refuſing to appear, depoſed him, and ſet up the Duke of Savoy, *Fælix* V, which ſchiſm laſted above nine years. *Eugene* however maintained himſelf at Rome till his death.

1447. *Nicholas* V. 8

Fælix V reſigning his pretenſions, put an end to the ſchiſm in this pontificate.

1455. *Calixtus* III. 3

1458. *Pius* II. 5

He is eſteemed one of the moſt learned men that ever was advanced to this See.

1464. *Paul* III. 6

1471. *Sixtus* IV. 13

He endeavoured to ruin the Venetians and the houſe of Medicis, and even hired aſſaſſins to murder two of the Princes of Medicis at church, one of whom was killed, and the other eſcaped. He proceeded ſo far as to excommunicate the Venetian republick, but they maintained their liberties againſt all his thunder; which proved ſuch a diſappointment to him, that it is ſaid it contributed to his death.

1484. *Innocent* VIII. 7

He permitted the Norwegians to celebrate Maſs without wine, upon their alledging that it was not ſometimes to be had in their country. He is ſaid to be remarkable for his incontinence, and enriching his baſe ſons.

1492. *Alexander* VI. 11

He obtained the chair by bribery, and it is ſaid broke through all the Laws of God and man to advance his baſe ſon *Cæſar Borgia*, beſides whom he had ſeveral others. He and his ſon *Cæſar* poiſoned ſeveral of the Cardinals, and deſigned to have poiſoned others at an entertainment, for which purpoſe a bottle of poiſoned wine was provided, but by miſtake the ſervant

A. D. Years.

ſervant gave a glaſs of the poiſon to the Pope, which killed him. The French King *Charles* VIII was provoked to enter into a war with him, and took Rome, and brought the Pope to terms.

1503. *Pius* III. Twenty-ſix days.

He was poiſoned, as it is ſuppoſed, by his ſucceſſor, before he had reigned a month.

1503. *Julius* II. 9

He entered into a war with the French, in which he was unſucceſsful; and excommunicated ſeveral ſovereign Princes who had oppoſed his election.

1513. *Leo* X. 8

A war with the Turks being reſolved on in this pontificate, the Pope iſſued his indulgences in order to raiſe money to maintain it, which gave occaſion to *Luther* to enquire into this and other errors of the church of Rome, and ended in the throwing off the Pope's authority in ſeveral kingdoms of Europe. He gave King *Henry* VIII of England, the title of *Defender of the Faith*, for writing againſt *Luther*.

1522. *Adrian* VI. 1

He endeavoured to drive the French out of Italy, but his councils being betrayed, he could not effect it, and was poiſoned in the ſecond year of his reign.

1523. *Clement* VII. 10

He inſulted the Emperor *Charles* V, who thereupon ſent an army into *Italy*, beſieged Rome, and took the Pope priſoner, obliging him to pay forty thouſand crowns of gold for his ranſom. But matters were afterwards accommodated between him and the Emperor. In this pontificate, *Henry* VIII, King of England, divorced his Queen, without applying to the Pope; whereupon his Holineſs excommunicated the King, and his Majeſty on the other hand threw off the Pope's ſupremacy, which laid the foundation of the reformation in England.

1544. *Paul* III. 15

He convened the council of Trent, eſtabliſhed the inquiſition, and approved the order of Jeſuits, but condemned the Interim which *Charles* V had contrived, in order to accommodate matters with the Proteſtant Princes and States of Germany. He cited King *Henry* VIII to appear at Rome, to anſwer the charge of adultery, and abſolved his ſubjects from their allegiance, which only confirmed them in their averſion to the See of Rome.

1550. *Julius* III. 5

1555. *Marcellus* II. Twenty-one days.

1555. *Paul* IV. 4

He treated the Ambaſſadors with great inſolence, who came from King *Philip* and Queen *Mary*, to beg abſolution in the name of the people of England, and to deſire a reconciliation with the See of Rome; the reaſon of which is ſuppoſed to be the ill treatment he met with from the Spaniards when they took Rome by ſtorm. He joined with the French and Swiſs alſo againſt Spain, and making Italy the ſeat of war, reduced it to great miſery. He oppoſed the reſignation of the Emperor *Charles* V, and would never acknowledge *Ferdinand* the Emperor, becauſe he was not conſulted in it. He was a zealous promoter of the Inquiſition, and recommended it on his death-bed as the principal ſupport of the Papacy.

A. D. Years.

1559. *Pius* IV. 5

He put a concluſion to the council of Trent, ordered the antiquities in Rome to be preſerved, and encouraged magnificent buildings.

1566. *Pius* V. 6

This Pope, with his confederates the Spaniards and Venetians, defeated the Turks in a great naval engagement near Lepanto. He aſſiſted *Charles* IX, of France, againſt his Proteſtant ſubjects; conferred the title of Great Duke of Tuſcany on the family of Medicis; excommunicated *Elizabeth* Queen of England, abſolved her ſubjects from their allegiance, and transferred her dominions to the King of Spain.

1572. *Gregory* XIII. 12

He encouraged fine buildings in Rome, and particularly cauſed a college to be built for the Engliſh, and reformed the Calendar, from hence called the *Gregorian Calendar*.

1585. *Sixtus* V. 5

He was the ſon of a cottager, and his firſt employment keeping of ſwine; but being taken into a monaſtery, he appeared an excellent genius, and had an education given him ſuitable to it, but would not have been advanced to the Papacy ſo ſoon, if he had not pretended to be more infirm and old than he really was: immediately after his election he appeared to be one of the moſt vigorous active men that had ſat in that chair. He reformed the courts of juſtice, and entirely ſuppreſſed the banditti. He rebuilt the Vatican library, and adorned Rome with more magnificent ſtructures than any of his predeceſſors, and recovered ſeveral obeliſks, pillars, and other noble antiquities which had been long buried in rubbiſh, giving the city a perfect new face. He repaired the fortifications of the towns belonging to the church, and increaſed their gariſons to twenty thouſand men, and was dreaded both by the French and Spaniard. He encouraged the great attempt of the Spaniards againſt England with their Armada in 1588, deſigning, as it is ſaid, at the ſame time to have ſurprized the kingdom of Naples. He laid new taxes on his ſubjects, and encreaſed the revenues of the Roman See ſix hundred thouſand crowns per annum, and at his death, it is ſaid, left five millions of crowns behind him, of which he appropriated great part for the defence of the church, enjoining that it ſhould not be touched on any other occaſion: Among other acts of charity, he employed two hundred thouſand crowns to prevent a ſcarcity in Rome, when the reſt of Italy was grievouſly diſtreſſed by famine. He is ſuppoſed to have been poiſoned by the Spaniards, who did not admire his conduct.

1590. *Urban* VII. Thirteen days.

1590. *Gregory* XIV. Ten months.

1591. *Innocent* IX. Two months.

1592. *Clement* VIII. 13

He united the duchy of Ferrara to the See of Rome; he corrected the Bible ſet out by *Sextus* V, in two thouſand places, and forbid confeſſion by Letters.

1605. *Leo* XI. Twenty-five days.

1605. *Paul* V. 15

He excommunicated the Venetians, and laid their country under an interdict, for trying an eccleſiaſtick in the ſecular courts, and making ſtatutes of Mortmain to prevent the Laity leaving their lands to the church. The Venetians on the other hand expelled the Monks, Jeſuits, and all religious orders, who refuſed to celebrate divine ſervice. And the Pope found himſelf under a neceſſity at laſt to accommodate matters with the Venetians, and yield up every point he had inſiſted on. He condemned the oath of allegiance which the crown of England required of the ſubject, and declared no Catholick could take it with a ſafe conſcience. In this pontificate aroſe the diſpute between the Dominicans and Jeſuits concerning the immaculate conception of the bleſſed Virgin. He equalled any of his predeceſſors in beautifying and adorning the city of Rome.

1621. *Gregory* XV. 2

He founded the congregation *de Progaganda Fide*.

1623. *Urban* VIII. 20

He was extremely devoted to the Angel St. *Michael*, whoſe image he erected in St. *Peter*'s church, and his own in a poſture of adoration before it, with this inſcription, viz. *I worſhip thee morning and evening*. He ſolemnized a Jubilee in the year 1625, when the Spaniſh Ambaſſador, in a compliment, ſubjected all his maſter's dominions to him, as the Vicar of Chriſt, promiſing to defend the Holy See with all his power. He ordered the State of Venice to be treated with the ſame honours as crowned heads; condemned *Galileo* for affirming the ſun ſtood ſtill and the earth moved; and had an intention to have made one of his nephews King of Naples, but did not ſucceed in it. He put ſome perſons to death for attempting his life by witchcraft, and forming an image of him in wax, which they wounded with pins and needles.

1644. *Innocent* X. 10

He is charged with cohabiting with his brother's wife Donna *Olympia*, and being governed by her. He proteſted againſt the treaty of Munſter, becauſe church-lands were yielded up, and transferred to temporal Princes, and others who had gotten poſſeſſion of them at the Reformation; and becauſe liberty of conſcience was allowed to Proteſtants in many countries; and Monſieur *Moulin* ſuggeſts, that he promoted the murder of *Charles* I, King of England.

1655. *Alexander* VII. 12

The French King inſulted him, and he made a very mean ſubmiſſion. He condemned the Janſeniſts, and determined the controverſy concerning the immaculate conception of the Bleſſed Virgin in her favour.

1667. *Clement* IX. 2

In this pontificate the iſland of Candia was taken by the Turks, which, it is ſaid, broke the old gentleman's heart.

1670. *Clement* X. 6

1676. *Innocent* XI. 13

He aſſigned *Chriſtina* Queen of Sweden, who reſided at Rome, a penſion of twelve thouſand crowns per annum. He had great diſputes with the French King about diſpoſing of benefices and church-lands, and his Holineſs was ſo highly incenſed againſt his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty on this account, that he entered into a confederacy with the Emperor, England, and Holland againſt him, who ſtipulated that they would not make peace with France, 'till the Pope had received ſatisfaction for the wrongs done to the Holy See by his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty; and from this alliance with the Proteſtant powers he obtained the name of the Proteſtant Pope.

1690. *Alexander* VIII. 1

He ſeemed to dread the French King's power as much as his predeceſſor, and therefore was no great enemy to the Confederates, tho' moſt of them were Proteſtants.

1691. *Innocent* XII. 9

He was of the noble family of Pignatelli in Naples, and having been Nuntio in the greateſt courts of Europe, was extremely well qualified for a Governour when he was elected to the papacy. He declared againſt nepotiſm, and aggrandizing his relations, and acted accordingly. He built him a magnificent tomb in his life-time, in which he was interred, only he ordered his Confeſſor to ſend his heart to the Great Duke of Tuſcany.

Nov. 20, 1700. *Clement* XI. 20

It was three days before the Cardinals could perſuade him to accept the chair; and then he declared he would not have done it, but to free himſelf from ſome ſcruples they had raiſed in his mind concerning the ſin of refuſing it.

He had indeed a very difficult part to act, the crown of Spain being in diſpute during this pontificate. He was thought to be more inclined to the French than the Imperialiſts, but inſulted however by both of them in their turns; his towns ſurprized, and ſoldiers quartered in his territories. The thunder of the Vatican had now loſt its force; neither the Emperor or France would be terrified by his threats.

May 8, 1721. *Innocent* XIII. 2

He proteſted againſt the Emperor's granting the inveſtiture of the duchies of Parma and Placentia to Don *Carlos* Prince of Spain, claiming them as fees of the church.

May 29, 1724. *Benedict* XIII.

Pope INNOCENT XIII dying on the ſeventh of March 1724, the Cardinals entered the conclave on the twentieth of the ſame month, where after having been ſhut up two months and nine days they reſolved unanimouſly to chuſe for Sovereign Pontiff his Eminence Cardinal VINCENZO MARIA ORSINI of the Dominican order, who thereupon took upon him the name of BENEDICT XIII. He was the firſt that had been choſen of a monaſtical order for near two hundred years. He is a Neapolitan by birth, and ſenior Cardinal of the ſacred college, being in the ſeventy-fifth year of his age at the time of his election. He is ſaid to have more humility and integrity than moſt of his predeceſſors, and is a perſon of extraordinary temperance. On his advancement he would not ſuffer his domeſticks to wear any thing but coarſe purple cloth without lace, and ordered all the rich hangings and furniture of the Vatican to be taken down, and plain to be put up in their room. He prohibited all eccleſiaſticks wearing perukes; and as to his own perſon, is ſo mortified, that he wears nothing but woollen next him in the hotteſt weather. At the firſt conſiſtory he held, ſeveral of the Cardinals and Prelates appeared with their bald pates without perukes, in conformity to the Pope's order, and the reſt excuſed themſelves on account of their health. An admirer of this Pope gives him the following character: He is, ſays this gentleman, the mildeſt, moſt friendly, and moſt engaging

The character of the preſent Pope.

engaging perſon in the world, obligingly gracious to every body, of the moſt eaſy acceſs, and exceeding affable, eſpecially to the poor. Though he is nicely frugal as to himſelf, he is beneficent to others to a degree of magnificence. When he was Archbiſhop of Benevento he beſtowed all the revenues of that See, and his own patrimony, which were very great, upon the publick. The monuments of his abundant charity muſt ſhine as long as the city of Benevento ſtands. When that town was in a manner deſtroyed by a terrible earthquake in June 1688, and ſixteen hundred perſons buried in its ruins, and the remaining inhabitants were about to abandon the place, and ſettle elſewhere, the good Archbiſhop prevented them by his liberality. He aſſiſted them to repair their private houſes, and rebuilt the cathedral, pariſh-churches, hoſpitals, and religious houſes at his own charge; inſomuch that the city makes a much better figure than it did before that calamity happened. But by the account the Pope himſelf gives of his miraculous eſcape, he appears to have a pretty deal of ſuperſtition and enthuſiaſm in his compoſition.

The preſent Pope's eſcape from an earthquake.

He relates, 'That on Saturday the fifth of June, 1688, at the hour of Veſpers, being then with a gentleman in one of the uppermoſt rooms of his palace, the ſame was thrown down, together with the apartment underneath, and part of the main roof; ſo that he fell with the abovementioned gentleman down into a vault of the cellar, where they were covered with the ſtones and beams of the ſhattered apartments. His friend was cruſhed to pieces, but he was preſerved by means of ſome rafters, which fell in ſuch a manner that they formed a kind of roof, and gave him room enough to breathe in; and, to his unſpeakable comfort, "there fell alſo with him a cheſt of drawers, in which he kept the pictures of the principal actions of his glorious protector St. PHILIP of Neri, which though it was locked, burſt open, and the pictures placed themſelves round him; one of them particularly fell upon his head, which was the picture of the Saint praying and looking towards the bleſſed Virgin, who with her ſacred hand ſupported the main beam of the church of Vallicella, which was ſlipt out of its place." He lay under theſe ruins an hour and a half, but did not think it had been above a quarter of an hour, when he was dug out by ſome of the Monks of his order. They carried him out of the gate of the city, wounded as he was, in his head, his right hand, and right foot, but he felt no pain, and the ſame night he preached to the people with the hoſt in his hand. The favours he received from the aboveſaid Saint, to whoſe interceſſion he aſcribes his deliverance, he ſays, were not confined to his perſon, but extended to his whole family; for though his palace was entirely ruined, he did not loſe one of his domeſticks, or any officer of his court, except one footman: ſo that he could ſay, to the glory of that Saint, that he was pleaſed in his favour to renew the miracle which happened, anno 587, at Antioch, in a terrible earthquake, wherein ſixty thouſand perſons loſt their lives, and their Biſhop GREGORY was preſerved with all his family, though his palace, as well as that of Benevento, was entirely demoliſhed. "The Saint alſo had preſerved all the records and writings belonging to his church; and upon going to viſit his heart, which lies in the church of the Fathers of the Oratory at Naples, he continued his goodneſs ſo far, that he was cured of all his wounds before he had well got out of the chapel." And concludes as follows: "In order to perpetuate the memory of ſo great a miracle, which God, by the interceſſion of St. PHILIP of Neri, wrought for me a miſerable ſinner, and to augment the devotion of believers towards ſo diſtinguiſhed a benefactor, and ſo amiable a protector, I cauſe this relation to be regiſtered, and confirm it with my own ſubſcription and ſeal, that none may doubt the truth of the facts it contains.

Done at Naples at my convent of St. CATHERINE DE FORMELLE, this preſent Tueſday the 22d of June, 1688.

F. VINCENT MARIA Card. ORSINI, Archbiſhop of Benevento.

From this ſpecimen of the preſent Pope's bigotry and ſuperſtition, notwithſtanding his intended reformations in the church, and his permitting the bible to be tranſlated, few people will believe him in danger of being infected with the northern hereſy; though there were ſome wiſe men amongſt us ſo ſanguine as to believe him a Proteſtant in his heart, about the time of his acceſſion to the triple crown. The pope indeed had been uſed to a retired monaſtick life, and did not ſeem to reliſh either the buſineſs or ſplendor of a court; nay, he would gladly have retired to his biſhoprick of Benevento again, and left the adminiſtration of the government to the Cardinals, if he had not been diſſuaded from this project by his relations; and yet he may not be leſs zealous for his religion than his predeceſſors. But ſome men are of opinion, that a Roman Catholick cannot be endued with any Chriſtian or moral virtues, but immediately they ſuppoſe he is turning Proteſtant; as if virtue were confined to the people of that denomination, when God knows we may have as little of that kind to boaſt of at this day, as any perſuaſion whatever. But to proceed: The Pope conſidering the ſhortneſs of human life, decreed, that a great jubilee ſhould for the future be celebrated every five and twenty years, inſtead of fifty, which it was formerly limited to; when the people ſhould be entitled to plenary indulgences, upon condition nevertheleſs that every perſon ſhould be obliged to viſit four churches every year fifteen times on foot, between the beginning of Lent and the twenty-ſeventh of May. In purſuance of which new regulation, the Emperor, attended by his whole court, viſited the four principal churches of Vienna lately, whither they went on foot over boards laid along the ſtreets for that purpoſe. Nor does the Pope wholly neglect ſecular affairs; for they tell us he is about making Civita Vecchia and Ancona free ports, in order to promote a foreign trade in the eccleſiaſtical State.

Having thus given a catalogue of the Popes, and an abſtract of their hiſtory, I ſhall here add a liſt of the Antipopes, and the years of their reſpective uſurpations, though I find authors are not entirely agreed which were real Popes, and which Antipopes.

ANTIPOPES and SCHISMS.

A. D.

251. *Novatian*, ſtiled the Arch-heretick.
367. *Urſicinus*, or *Urcinus*.

418. *Eulalius*, Archdeacon.
498. *Laurence*, Archdeacon.
530. *Dioſcorus*.
686. *Peter* and *Theodorus*.
687. *Theodorus* and *Paſchal*.
757. *Theophylact*, Arch-prieſt.
768. *Conſtantine*.
824. *Zinzimus*.
844. *John*, the Deacon.
890. *Sergius* and *Boniface* VI.
897. *Romanus Galleſinus*.
962. *Leo* VIII.
990. *John* XVI.
1013. *Gregory*
1043. *Sylveſter* III. and *John* XX.
1059. *John Minceus*, called *Benedict*.
1061. *Cadolus*, called *Honorius* II.
1080. *Guidert*, called *Clement* III.
1118. *Maurice Burdin*, called *Gregory* VIII.
1124. *Thibaut*, called *Calixtus* III.
1130. *Peter de Leon*, called *Anacletus* II.
1138. *Gregory*, called *Victor*.
1159. *Octavian*, called *Victor* IV.
1164. *Guy de Creme*, called *Paſchal* III.
1170. *John*, Abbot of *Strume*, called *Calixtus* III.
1378. *Clement* VII, looked upon as Antipope.
1394. *Peter de Lune*, called *Benedict* XIII.
1424. *Gidus*, called *Clement* VIII.
1439. *Amadeus* VIII, Duke of Savoy, called *Fælix* V.

It is obſervable, that no Pope, unleſs St. PETER, has reigned four and twenty years: and it ſeems there is a prophetical tradition, that no Pope's reign ſhall ever extend beyond thoſe limits. Some there are, it is true, which have come pretty near it; as St. SILVESTER, who died anno 336, in the twenty-third year of his pontificate: ADRIAN I, who died anno 795, in the twenty-fourth year of his pontificate: LEO III, who died anno 816, in the twenty-firſt year of his pontificate: ALEXANDER III, who died anno 1181, in the twenty-ſecond year of his reign: Pope URBAN VIII, who died anno 1623, in the twenty-firſt or twenty-ſecond year of his reign: And laſtly, Pope CLEMENT XI, who died anno 1721, in the twenty-firſt year of his reign.

This tradition, that no Pope ſhall govern the See of Rome above four and twenty years, is ſo firmly believed in that court, that we find Cardinal TANARA, Sub-dean of the ſacred college, when he complimented Pope CLEMENT XI, on the anniverſary of his creation, anno 1720, on his entring into the twenty-firſt year of his pontificate, uſing this expreſſion, *Sanctiſſime Pater, non ſuperabis annos Petri*, Moſt holy Father, you ſhall not out-live the years of St. PETER; intimating, that as St. PETER, according to their tradition, was Pope of Rome four and twenty years, and none of his ſucceſſors had reigned ſo long, he ought to prepare himſelf for his departure: which was but a melancholy compliment to the Pontiff, juſt recovering from a fit of ſickneſs, and was by ſome thought to have had an ill effect upon his health, for he ſoon after relapſed, and died within three months. It may be thought ſtrange, that no Pope of Rome ſhould in the ſpace of ſeventeen hundred years reign twenty-four, when we find Princes in every kingdom, who have ſat upon their thrones forty, fifty, and ſome ſixty years: but the wonder will abate, when we conſider that they generally elect one of the eldeſt Cardinals in the ſacred college, who have lived the ordinary age of men before they are advanced to that dignity, whereas other Princes are frequently crowned in their infancy: and perhaps rather than ſpoil the prophecy, That no Pope ſhall exceed the years of St. PETER, they may be induced to practiſe Italian arts upon him, if he preſume to advance beyond thoſe limits.

CHAP. XX.

Contains an account of the ceremonies obſerved at the death of the Pope, and the election of his ſucceſſor.

Ceremonies on the death and election of a Pope.

WHEN the Pope dies, notice is immediately given to the ſacred college, to the nobility and courts of juſtice; and the ſame or the ſucceeding day, the Cardinal Chamberlain dreſſed in purple, and attended by the clerks of the chamber, and ſome members of the Council, comes and views the corps, and calls out to the deceaſed by his Chriſtian name, OTTOBONI or PIGNATELLI as his name is, *ſei morto?* art thou dead? and after a ſhort pauſe anſwers again, *Ottoboni e morto*, OTTOBONI is dead. Then taking the ſeal called *L'annello del piſcatore*, the fiſherman's ring, he breaks it, and the great bell of the capitol, which is never moved but on this occaſion, is ordered to be rung, to give notice to the citizens of Rome of the Pope's death; and Expreſſes are ſent to all Roman Catholick Princes and States, and particularly to the abſent Cardinals, to ſummon them to the election of another Pope. The Cardinal Chamberlain has the adminiſtration of the civil government during a vacancy, and even coins money, according to MOTRAYE, with his own arms on one ſide, and two croſs keys on the reverſe, and is attended by the guards of the deceaſed Pope. The Cardinals of his creation are dreſſed in violet-coloured ſerge during the vacancy, and thoſe of his predeceſſors creating wear green habits faced with red; and the maces carried before the Cardinals on all ſolemn occaſions are reverſed. The corps being waſhed and embalmed, the next day is carried to St. PAUL's chapel in the Vatican, and dreſſed in the pontifical habit, from whence they attend it to St. PETER's, and place it in the chapel of SIXTUS V. on a magnificent bed of ſtate, ſurrounded by a vaſt number of wax lights, which burn night and day; the Prieſts all the while praying for the repoſe of the deceaſed's ſoul: which ſurely muſt be unneceſſary, for he who in his life-time could give eaſe to all the ſouls in purgatory, can never want it himſelf. As the feet of the dead Pope are ſet cloſe to the iron baluſtrade which opens into the chapel, multitudes of people croud hither to kiſs them, eſpecially the women, not doubting but their paying this piece of reſpect to GOD's Vicar on earth, will exalt them to heavenly manſions. On the ninth day the corps is put into a coffin, or rather coffins, the firſt of cedar, and the ſecond of lead, with ſixty of the late Pope's coronation medals, twenty of gold, twenty of ſilver, and as many of braſs; after which the funeral being ſolemnized, the corps is conveyed to a little old church, dedicated to St. PETER by CONSTANTINE the Great, where it is depoſited till removed to the monument uſually erected for it in the life-time of the deceaſed, when there is uſually as magnificent a cavalcade as at the funeral.

The election of the Pope.

During the firſt five centuries, according to MAIMBOURG, the clergy and people jointly, and ſometimes the clergy alone, with conſent of the people, elected the Pope by plurality of voices.

After the death of Pope SIMPLICIUS, ODOACER King of the Heruli, who had conquered Italy, decreed that no Pope ſhould be choſen without his conſent. This law was afterwards repealed by THEODORICK King of the Goths, in the fourth council of Rome, under the pontificate of Pope SYMACHUS; but this Prince turning Arian in the latter end of his reign, reſumed the privilege of appointing a Pope, and accordingly placed FÆLIX IV in the chair. His ſucceſſors, the Gothick Princes, allowed the Clergy to elect, but would not ſuffer the Pontiff to enter upon the exerciſe of his office till confirmed by them. The Emperor JUSTINIAN, who defeated the Goths, and put an end to their dominion in Italy, inſiſted on his privilege of confirming the Pope, as did his ſucceſſors after him, requiring a ſum of money of the Pope when he was confirmed by them: which ſum was remitted by the Emperor CONSTANTINE POGONATUS; but ſtill the Pope was not elected without the Emperor's or other Sovereign's conſent till the French Emperor LEWIS the Debonaire, anno 824, and his ſucceſſors LOTHARIUS I, and LEWIS II, about the year 864, relinquiſhed all pretenſions to the electing or confirmation of the Pope. In the eleventh century the Marquis of Hetruria, or Tuſcany, and the Count DE TUSCANELLA, with the nobility of Rome, choſe and depoſed Popes at their pleaſure; and after them OTHO the Great, his ſon, and grandſon, did the like. HENRY Duke of Bavaria, who ſucceeded them, left the clergy and people of Rome at liberty to chuſe their Pope again, about the year 1014; but his grandſon HENRY III, and HENRY IV, reaſſumed the power of chuſing and depoſing Popes, which occaſioned frequent wars between them and the Emperor, the Emperor ſetting up Antipopes, which occaſioned ſchiſm in the church, as hath been already obſerved; but after the difference between ANACLETE and VICTOR IV was ended, the Cardinals and principal Clergy of Rome choſe Pope CELESTINE II, by their own authority, anno 1143; and the reſt of the Clergy having reſigned their pretenſions, HONORIUS III, anno 1216, or, according to others, GREGORY X, anno 1274, ordered that the election ſhould be made in the Conclave; ſince which time the Cardinals have been in poſſeſſion of that privilege, and elected the Pope without the interpoſition of any other powers, unleſs by way of addreſs or recommendation.

The Conclave.

The Conclave is the place where the Cardinals meet for the election of a Pope, and the aſſembly of Cardinals who meet there are alſo called the Conclave. They are at liberty to appoint what place they pleaſe to meet in: However for ſome years a large gallery in the palace of the Vatican has been made uſe of for this purpoſe: There are prepared in this gallery as many cells or apartments made of deal-boards, as there are Cardinals, with lodgings and conveniences for ſervants, who ſhut themſelves in to wait on the Cardinals, and are on that account called Conclaviſts, of whom no Cardinal is allowed more than two or three at moſt; and it muſt be on account of ſickneſs, or their being Princes, if they are allowed three. People of good faſhion frequently deſire the office of a Conclaviſt, having thereby an opportunity of ſeeing all that paſſes, and being entitled to a conſiderable preſent, if their Cardinal happens to be choſen Pope: But it is however a poſt of ſome trouble, the Conclaviſt being obliged to take in the meat, wait at table, and humour an old peeviſh fellow, ſometimes for ſeveral months before the election is over, and are as ſtrictly confined as their maſters. The ſeveral apartments or cells are numbered, and the Cardinals draw lots for them. They are erected during the nine days which are taken up in the ceremony of the late Pope's funeral, when any perſon is at liberty to view the cells. Thoſe Cardinals who are of the laſt Pope's creation hang their apartments on the outſide and inſide with violet-coloured cloth, and the reſt hang them with green ſerge or camblet; and over each cell is placed the Cardinal's arms it belongs to. They have no other light than what they receive from the windows of the gallery.

The day after the Pope's funeral, which is always the ninth day after his death, the Cardinals meet in the cathedral, where a high maſs of the Holy Ghoſt being celebrated, and an oration or ſermon made upon the occaſion, they go in proceſſion to the palace of the Vatican, and having ſung the hymn *Veni Creator Spiritus*, and heard the uſual prayers, in St. PAUL's chapel there, and ſworn to obſerve certain articles for the better government of the church, they retire to their cells, when every body is ordered to quit the place, except the Conclaviſts, two maſters of the ceremonies, a Secretary, a Confeſſor, a Phyſician, and Surgeon; and the Marſhal locks up all the doors and paſſages into the Vatican, which are guarded by the militia of Rome, to prevent all intercourſe with the people without doors; and a Maſter of the ceremonies inſpects every diſh that is brought in, to ſee that no letters are concealed in the meat, which is delivered in through a hole in the wall left for that purpoſe. The Cardinals, who arrive from time to time from diſtant countries, are admitted into the Conclave as they come, at any time before the election is made. They come out of their cells but once a day, to hear a maſs of the Holy Ghoſt, and give their votes in the chapel. The election is performed either by ſcrutiny, acceſs, or adoration: when it is by ſcrutiny, every Cardinal writes the name of the perſon he votes for on a piece of paper doubled down in five folds, on the firſt of which he writes, *Ego eligo in ſummum Pontificem reverendiſſimum Dominum meum Cardinalem Del Giudice*, (as his name is) I elect for Pope the moſt reverend Lord Cardinal DEL GIUDICE: on the fourth the Cardinal writes his own name, and covers it with the fifth fold. Then they go to the chapel at the appointed hour, and having ſeated themſelves in order with theſe billets in their hands, each Cardinal in his turn goes up to the altar, and after a ſhort prayer upon his knees, puts the billet into a chalice that ſtands on the table. [Others ſay, the Maſter of the ceremonies goes round to all the Cardinals in the chapel, and receives their billets in a cup.] The Cardinals being returned to their places, the Cardinal-Biſhop, who ſits on the right ſide of the altar, puts out the billets on a plate, and gives them one by one to the Cardinal-Deacon, who ſits on the other ſide of the altar, and reads them with an audible voice, the Cardinals in the mean time writing down how many voices every candidate hath; after which the Maſter of the ceremonies burns the billets in a little chimney prepared for the purpoſe: and this collection of votes is continued every day till two thirds of them agree on the ſame perſon, who is thereupon declared Pope. When the election is made by acceſs,

ceſs, the Cardinals riſe from their places, and going towards the perſon they deſign to chuſe, each of them ſays, *Ego accedo ad reverendiſſimum Dominum*, &c. The election by adoration is in much the ſame manner, only the Cardinals approach him with a profound reverence. There is ſtill a fourth way of chuſing when the differences run high, and that is by referring the matter to three or five of their number, a majority of whom determine the election. The Pope being choſen, is clothed in the pontifical habit, and being placed before the altar, he receives the adoration or reſpects of the Cardinals, who kiſs his feet, hands, and mouth; after which all the doors and gates of the Conclave are thrown open, and the Pope being led to the lodge of benediction, and ſhewing himſelf to the people, the firſt Cardinal Deacon ſays with a loud voice, I declare to you tidings of great joy, the moſt reverend Cardinal——is elected Pope, and has choſen the name of———adding *Vivat Clemens* or *Innocentius*, according to the name he chuſes. Then the Pope putting on the robes he appears in at the greateſt ſolemnities, and a mitre on his head, goes to St. Peter's, where he is ſeated on the high altar, and publickly adored by the Cardinals, Patriarchs, Archbiſhops, Biſhops, and Canons of that church; which being over, he is attended to his apartment in the Vatican. Some days after is performed the ceremony of his coronation, before St. Peter's church, where a throne is erected for that purpoſe, when his mitre is taken off, and the tiara (a raiſed cap) encircled with three crowns one above another, and embelliſhed with jewels, is put on his head. This triple crown, ſays my author, declares his ſacerdotal and imperial dignity, and repreſents him as the ſupreme Judge and Legiſlator of all Chriſtians. Lewis I of France firſt ſent the Pope a crown of gold adorned with jewels, he wearing till then only a mitre. Boniface VIII added the ſecond crown, about the year 1296, after having aſſerted his dominion over the temporal powers; and Benedict XII added the third about the year 1340. There is a ſplendid cavalcade ſome time after the coronation, when the Pope goes to take poſſeſſion of the cathedral church of St. John de Lateran, as he is Biſhop of Rome. At this ſolemnity the Cardinals march in order before him, and he is attended by all the foreign Ambaſſadors, Nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, eccleſiaſtical and ſecular, in and about Rome. When he comes to the church he knocks three times at the door, which is thereupon opened by the Arch-prieſt, who preſents him with two keys, one of gold and the other of ſilver, and afterwards, with the reſt of the Canons, kiſſes his ſlipper. Then the Pope advances to the high altar, where he ſits enthroned, and the Cardinals and the reſt of the clergy are admitted alſo to kiſs his ſlipper. After ſome other ceremonies his Holineſs bleſſes the people, and returns to his palace in the ſame ſtate he came.

CHAP. XXI.

Treats of the Pope's eccleſiaſtical power and government.

CHAP. XXI. Of the Pope's eccleſiaſtical power and government.

THOSE who have treated of the Pope's power and the conſtitution of the Papal State, conſtantly diſtinguiſh and divide them into eccleſiaſtical and temporal. The eccleſiaſtical is extended throughout the world, wherever the Roman Catholick religion has gained admittance: the temporal is confined to the Pope's territories in Italy. The motives made uſe of to procure a ſubmiſſion to his eccleſiaſtical ſovereignty, are the ſtrongeſt that the wit of man could deviſe: Some Princes, as Puffendorff obſerves, have gained themſelves and their government a great authority by pretending to be the offspring of the gods, and that their inſtitutions were the dictates and commands of heaven, and on theſe accounts have been adored and placed among the gods after their deaths: but the Pope has gone farther, and perſuaded the people that he is the Lieutenant of Chriſt, who has all power in heaven and earth, and can diſpenſe the merits of our Saviour to whom he pleaſes; and thoſe who refuſe to acknowledge this prerogative are incapable of eternal ſalvation. And as nothing can ſo ſtrongly enforce our obedience, and induce us to ſubmit to all ſorts of hardſhip as the fear of God's diſpleaſure and eternal damnation, it is evident, that if the people once believe the Pontiff poſſeſſed of this power of ſaving and damning whom he pleaſes, they will readily conform to his dictates in every other inſtance; conſequently his ſubjects are as numerous, and indeed the very ſame with thoſe who acknowledge his vicarious power. Whatever ties and obligations they are under to the civil powers where they live, they will cancel them all, when their duty to the Pope comes in competition with that to their temporal Sovereigns: nay, when this article was more generally believed than it is indeed at preſent, the people were frequently ſpirited up to depoſe their natural Sovereigns, and transfer their allegiance to the Pope, or to whomſoever he was pleaſed to aſſign their kingdoms; conſequently the Princes of that communion have but a very precarious title to their crowns, where this article is firmly believed. It is the apprehenſion of this independent juriſdiction alſo, the ſetting up an empire within their empires, that has deterred the Sovereigns of Japan, China, and Turky, from encouraging the diſciples of the Romiſh communion, and been an inconceivable prejudice to Chriſtianity in general in thoſe parts of the world. It is not the doctrine of a crucified Saviour, as the Jeſuits ſuggeſt, that prevents the goſpel's gaining ground in China; but the notions they infuſe into the people, that the Pope is rather to be obeyed than the civil Magiſtrate, which ſets all the Magiſtrates of the Eaſt againſt them, and has occaſioned their being maſſacred and cut in pieces more than once. The Japonenſe, who apprehend that all Chriſtians teach the ſame doctrine, will not ſuffer a Chriſtian to ſet his foot on their ſhores, unleſs the Dutch, who are content to trample upon the croſs, and renounce their Saviour, that they may engroſs this branch of trade.

And though of late years many temporal Princes, and their lay-ſubjects of that communion, have diſputed the Pope's ſupremacy, yet the Monks and regular Clergy, if not the ſecular, in every country ſtill remain entirely devoted to the Roman See, and are ready to oppoſe and diſtreſs the civil powers by all the ways imaginable, whenever the Pope's authority is called in queſtion; and theſe, though exceeding numerous, amounting as it is computed to two millions of ſouls, are more formidable than any other militia of the like number would be; inaſmuch as there is ſcarce a Prince's court, or great family in Europe, but they have a conſiderable influence on, and are all ſubſiſted at the charge of the people, of thoſe very people to whom they preach this ſlaviſh doctrine, without being any burthen to their great eccleſiaſtical Sovereign or General. And that which renders them the more independent on their reſpective Princes and States where they reſide, is the ſtate of celibacy, which is ſtrictly required of them all; for having none of thoſe domeſtick pledges of their fidelity, a wife or children, as other ſubjects have, they are always diſencumbered and at liberty to obey the Pope's orders, whenever he requires their ſervice. They ſerve alſo to drain the ſeveral countries where they live of their wealth and treaſure, and convey them from the impoveriſhed natives to Rome, the ſeat of this ſpiritual Empire: and according to a late calculation, the ſtated conſtant revenues of the Romiſh clergy thus dependent on the Pope amounts to more than twenty millions ſterling per ann. and the caſual profits ariſing from offerings, and the ſuperſtitious bounty of the people, amounts to full as much: add to theſe the moveable ornaments and utenſils in their churches, the gold and ſilver croſſes, chalices, pattens, lamps, candleſticks, and ſhrines enriched with diamonds and other precious ſtones, eſpecially thoſe of St. Peter's and Loretto, and the treaſure of the church will appear ineſtimable. And what may not be effected by a court of ſuch refined politicks, as that of Rome, thus powerfully ſupported? It is obſerved that their miſſionaries gain ground every day, and not a year paſſes but ſome Sovereign Prince is reconciled to their communion. Nor can this be thought ſtrange by thoſe who reflect on the immenſe ſums the church is poſſeſſed of, and with what addreſs it is applied to promote her intereſts. Were it not that many of the beſt families in Europe have great part of their revenues out of the ſequeſtered church-lands and tythes, and that the Proteſtants are in continual dread of the Inquiſition, the Pope would ſoon unite the Chriſtians of every denomination to the See of Rome; few, very few would ſtand out on principle, could he find a way to remove their fears of perſecution and the loſs of their eſtates, the moſt zealous oppoſers of his ſupremacy might be taken off, according to the modern phraſe, and be induced to wave their clamours againſt Popery. It ſeems to be now as under the Jewiſh diſpenſation, the people are moſt effectually wrought upon by temporal motives; as the milk and honey, the wine and oil of the land of Canaan, had a much greater influence on that people, than the diſtant proſpect of eternal rewards; and a temporal captivity was more dreaded by them than everlaſting miſery. In theſe reſpects there may be a pretty near reſemblance between the ancient Jews and the Chriſtians of the preſent age. But to proceed: Suitable to the power and grandeur of the Sovereign Pontiff are the honours and titles that are given him, the reſpect that is paid him, according to a late traveller, is greater than was ever paid to mortal man: thoſe that approach him kneel three times, viz. at the entrance of the hall of audience, in the middle, and before his throne, where they kiſs his ſlipper, or rather a little embroidered croſs on the toe of it. The greateſt Roman Catholick Princes are not exempted from this ſubmiſſion, and when they ſpeak to him, they ſtile him Moſt Holy Father. Some of the principal prerogatives he aſſumes as God's Vicar on earth, are, 1. The canonization of thoſe who have deſerved well of the Holy See, placing them in the number of Saints, and decreeing them thoſe honours which they call Doulia, being prayed to and honoured afterwards as ſo many ſubordinate deities. 2. The making of Cardinals, to whom he ſays at their creation, 'My moſt beloved ſons, 'You have received the greateſt and higheſt honour; You are called into the Council of the 'Apoſtles; You ſhall be our Counſellors, and 'with us judge the univerſe and ſit round the 'throne as ſucceſſors to the Apoſtles.' 3. Excommunication, that ſpiritual thunder which hath formerly made the greateſt Princes in Europe tremble, who after this ſentence have been driven from their thrones, and their dominions transferred to others. On their ſubjects this power is frequently exerciſed by inferior Biſhops and Prieſts, who holding in their hands lighted tapers till they are extinguiſhed, fling them down and trample them under their feet, uſing at the ſame time the moſt terrible execrations againſt the party excommunicated that can be imagined, whereupon he is cut off from all communion with the church, and excluded from all ſociety with men, aſſigned to the flames in this world, and to everlaſting fire in the next. And from hence I very naturally proceed to enquire in what inſtances the Roman Catholick religion differs from that of the Church of England, or at leſt the moſt material points.

CHAP. XXII.

Contains and enquiry into the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the church of England.

CHAP. XXII. The points wherein the church of Rome differs from the church of England.

Infallibility.

THE church of Rome has added ſo many articles to the primitive creeds, that ſhe carries a very different face from the reſt of the Chriſtian world, of which the doctrine of the Pope's infallibility is the moſt monſtrous, and indeed the mother of all the reſt; for admitting this one article, we muſt of courſe ſubmit our judgment to whatever he is pleaſed to dictate. It would be the higheſt arrogance and folly to diſpute with unerring wiſdom. But the Roman Catholicks themſelves, I find, are not agreed in whom this infallibility is lodged: Some hold that the Pope alone is poſſeſſed of it; others are of opinion it is in the Pope and a general council; and a third place it in a general council without the Pope: and accordingly, we find that the Council of Conſtance, held about the year 1415, depoſed all the contending Popes, and placed Martin V in the chair, declaring that a general council lawfully called only was infallible, and had the ſupreme authority in the church next under Chriſt. Notwithſtanding this deciſion, the Pope alone is held infallible at this day by many of that communion, and eſpecially the Jeſuits. But as there is no colour in Scripture or Antiquity to induce us to believe that the ſucceſſors of the Biſhop of Rome are more infallible in their judgments than the ſucceſſors of any other primitive Biſhop, and that the Roman Catholicks themſelves are not agreed in whom this unerring wiſdom reſides, we may fairly ſuſpend our belief of this article for the preſent: and there ſeems to be ſuch a connexion between his ſupremacy and infallibility, that if we deny one, we ſhall not eaſily admit the other, the greateſt motive to acknowledge his ſupremacy being a belief of his infallibility. A man will make but little ſcruple to obey him as God's

Vicar on earth, who believes he is infallible and divinely inſpired.

Purgatory.

2. The ſecond doctrine I ſhall mention is that of purgatory; ſuppoſed to be an unquenchable fire, where the ſouls of thoſe who have been guilty of venial, or involuntary tranſgreſſions, burn till they are purified from their droſs and guilt, not having had time or opportunity to perform the penances enjoined them on earth. Of which they produce juſt as much evidence as of the former.

Indulgencies.

3. The doctrine of indulgencies, which ſuppoſes that the Pope has power to remit the puniſhments due to ſinners, and exempt them from the pains of hell and purgatory.

Limbo.

4. Limbo, or the confines of hell, in which they ſuppoſe the ſouls of infants who die without baptiſm are confined; and though they are not puniſhed by fire, are however excluded from the beatifick viſion.

Worſhip of Saints, &c.

5. The doctrine of worſhipping Saints and Angels, and begging their mediation and interceſſion with God, and the adoring their reliques and images.

Tranſubſtantiation

6. The ſacrifice of the Maſs, which they hold to be a propitiatory ſacrifice, both for the living and dead, which every Prieſt uſually offers once a day, and twice on Chriſtmas-day and other ſolemn occaſions. If it be a Low Maſs he is aſſiſted by one or two laymen, called Reſpondents; and it is called a Low Maſs from the being celebrated in a low voice, ſuch as is uſed in common converſation. At High Maſs he is aſſiſted by Deacons and Subdeacons, and the ſervice is ſung or chanted aloud, from whence it is called High Maſs. This ſervice is performed in Latin, and after the Prieſt has uſed theſe words of conſecration, *Hoc eſt enim Corpus meum*, For this is my body; the members of this church believe the body of Chriſt deſcends inviſibly from heaven, and the bread is imperceptibly changed or tranſubſtantiated into his fleſh and blood in ſuch a manner, that though the appearances and accidents continue to make the ſame impreſſion upon all the ſenſes after the pronouncing thoſe words as before, yet there is none of their real ſubſtance remaining, but that the ſole and natural body of Chriſt, with all its parts and blood, is as entire in the leaſt particle of bread, as it was upon the croſs before his death.

The words of conſecration of the cup are the ſame as thoſe uſed by our church; but this is never communicated to the Laity, becauſe, ſay their Doctors, the body of Chriſt being entire in every particle, and there being no living body without blood, the cup is ſuperfluous. But we might demand on this occaſion, If the cup be ſuperfluous, why do their Clergy drink of it? And why indeed was it inſtituted by our Saviour? Theſe Maſſes, they give out, will ſhorten the pains of the ſouls in purgatory; for which reaſon their votaries uſually give large legacies to the church at their deaths, to have Maſſes ſaid for them; and ſome of them in their health ſettle lands in perpetuity, that the Prieſts may ſay Maſſes for themſelves and families from generation to generation.

Tradition.

Tradition, is another doctrine of the church of Rome, which Proteſtants do not come into. This is an unwritten law, which ſome of the Roman Catholicks prefer to the written law, or Scripture it ſelf; for they alledge that theſe books have been corrupted by the ſeveral tranſlators, either through deſign or ignorance; eſpecially by the authors of heretical or ſchiſmatical ſects. To prove which, they ſhew the ſeveral different verſions and copies amongſt them, the abridgments and omiſſions in ſome, and the additions in others. They alledge farther, that ſeveral parts of the written law which was owned as ſuch at leaſt by the primitive Chriſtians, is entirely loſt; and obſerve that the verſion of the Septuagint, makes the world fifteen hundred years older than the Hebrew text: and tradition, they ſay, is a kind of errata and ſupplement, which ſupplies whatever is imperfect or defective in Holy Writ. They diſſuade their diſciples therefore from reading thoſe books; and the better to prevent it, keep them locked up in the dead languages; and leſt thoſe who underſtand them ſhould be guided by their private judgments in the interpretation of the Scriptures, the inquiſition was eſtabliſhed to prevent all diſputes, and to compel them to believe as the church believes.

CHAP. XXIII.

Treats of the court of Rome, and the Pope's temporal government.

CHAP. XXIII. The court and temporal government of Rome.

THE Pope conſidered as a temporal Prince, is one of the moſt abſolute Monarchs in Europe; he holds indeed a conſiſtory of Cardinals frequently, who are his council in eccleſiaſtical affairs, but are not permitted to intermeddle in the civil government. They are ſeventy in number when compleat, and their preſent title that of Eminence. Their election depends ſolely on the Pope's pleaſure, and they look upon themſelves equal to ſovereign Princes of the ſecond claſs at leaſt. Six of them are Cardinal-Biſhops, fifty Cardinal-Prieſts, and fourteen Cardinal-Deacons. The Pope has of late years been very cautious in electing perſons of high birth, who are related to ſovereign Princes, on account of the diſturbances that have been occaſioned ſometimes by their too potent intereſts; and if ſuch perſons do obtain a Cardinal's cap, they ſeldom are advanced to the Papal chair, leſt they ſhould endeavour to fix it in their families. And the Popes having been Italians for ſeveral centuries, take care that there never want a great majority of the natives of Italy in that body to ſtrengthen their intereſt againſt foreigners, who being advanced to the Papal See, would naturally be partial to their reſpective countries, and perhaps give up the prerogatives of the church in favour of their natural Sovereigns. Such Cardinals as have not a competent ſubſiſtence of their own, which ſeldom happens, are allowed, it is ſaid, a ſtipend of ſeven thouſand Roman crowns per annum, out of the Apoſtolick chamber.

The Pope's chief miniſter is the Cardinal-Patron, uſually one of his nephews, or a nearer relation, to whom he gives an opportunity of amaſſing prodigious ſums, if the Pontificate be of a long duration; and theſe nephews have been the founders of ſome of the greateſt families in Italy. The ſecond miniſter is the Pope's Vicar, who is always a Cardinal, and has the juriſdiction of the ſecular and regular Clergy, Lay-communities, Hoſpitals and Jews, and has a Lieutenant of civil and another for criminal affairs, and a Biſhop for his Vicegerent in matters belonging to his epiſcopal function. 3. The Chancellor, who is always a Cardinal alſo. 4. The Cardinal Chamberlain. 5. The Prefect of the ſignature of juſtice, CHAP. XXIII. Pope's dominions.

ſtice, who is a Cardinal. 6. The General who commands the troops and fortified places of the State. 7. The Penitentiary. 8. The Maſter of the ſacred Palace. 9. The Sacriſtan, or Veſtry-keeper. 10. The Pope's Secretary, who is always a Cardinal, and frequently one of his nephews. There are beſides twenty-four Secretaries for briefs. 11. The Governor of Rome, who has cognizance of civil and criminal cauſes in the city, with a power to ſtay the proceedings of other courts. 12. The Treaſurer General. 13. The Marſhal of Rome, who has the cognizance of cauſes between the citizens and ſtrangers; he is always a foreigner, and wears a robe like an ancient Roman Senator in the execution of his office. 14. Four Maſters of the ceremonies. 15. The Major Domo, or Steward of the houſhold. 16. The Chamberlains of honour. 17. The Maſter of the ſtables. 18. The General of the Pope's guards.

The principal courts in Rome, next to the conſiſtory of Cardinals, are, 1. The congregation of the Holy office, conſiſting of twelve Cardinals, and ſeveral Prelates and Doctors, who are the ſupreme courts of inquiſition. 2. The Apoſtolical chamber, which conſiſts of the Cardinal-Chamberlain, the Treaſurer-General, and other inferior officers, who manage the revenues of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. 3. The court of Rota, conſiſting of twelve Prelates, who take cognizance of all cauſes, eccleſiaſtical and civil, relating to Clergymen, which come before them by way of appeal, the canonization of Saints, ceremonies of the church, diſputes about precedency, &c. This court takes its name, it is ſaid, from the pavement of the chamber where they ſit, on which there is the reſemblance of a wheel. 4. The court of Datary, which conſiſts of a Datary, Subdatary and Prefect, who have the diſpoſal of all vacant benefices, except thoſe called Conſiſtorial, or under four hundred ducats per annum, which are conferred without the Pope's knowledge, but the grants of benefices of a greater value muſt be ſigned by the Pope himſelf. 5. The court of the Penitentiary, which takes cognizance of all bulls and diſpenſations in caſes of conſcience, which are generally ſealed up and ſent to ſome confeſſor.

The Campania of Rome is under the immediate government of the Pope, the other provinces of the Eccleſiaſtical State are governed by Legates or Vice-legates, beſides which there is a Commander in chief of the forces in every province, and every city hath its Governor deputed by the Pope; but as to the Podeſta's, or Judges, and other inferior Officers, they are elected by the inhabitants. The great oppreſſion complained of in the Pope's territories, is his engroſſing all the corn in the country, obliging the owners and occupiers of lands to ſell his agents their corn at a very low rate, and retailing it out again at double the price; inſomuch that ſome gentlemen chuſe to let their lands lie uncultivated, rather than manure them, the charges of ploughing and ſowing exceeding the profits they make. But it can hardly be ſuppoſed that this is generally the caſe; for if the People were diſcouraged in this manner from ploughing their grounds, the Sovereign muſt loſe the duty ariſing by corn, which is one of the beſt branches of his revenue: neither does he hold up the price of grain ſo very high as ſome ſuggeſt when he retails it out; for travellers all agree that bread-corn is very reaſonable at Rome; and tho' there have been ſome oppreſſors among the Roman Pontiffs, there have been others who have diſtributed great quantities of grain to the poor *gratis*; ſo that to ſay with ſome, that the government is mild, and with others, that it is oppreſſive, is ridiculous. It is by all allowed to be deſpotical, and varies according to the diſpoſition and temper of the Pontiff who happens to be upon the throne. Only thus much is obſerved in general, that there is more liberty allowed in Rome to thoſe of a different communion than in any other Roman Catholick city whatever.

CHAP. XXIV.

Contains a deſcription of the reſt of the towns, and remarkable places in the Campania of Rome, and the other towns and provinces of the Pope's dominions.

CHAP. XXIV. Tivoli.

THE city of Tivoli, the ancient *Tibur*, ſaid to be built by the Greeks, is ſituated on the brow of a hill near the river Anio, or Teverone, about twenty miles to the eaſtward of Rome. The hill is covered with olive-trees for five or ſix miles together, and adorned with beautiful villa's or palaces; from hence there is a glorious proſpect over the Campania as far as Rome it ſelf. In the time of the ancient Romans it was eſteemed one of the moſt healthful, as well as pleaſant ſituations in Italy: on which account they had their villa's, or ſummer's retirements here. HORACE was ſo pleaſed with the ſituation, that he wiſhes it might be the retreat of his old age. The Teverone forms a caſcade, or rather cataract, near this town, falling from a rock; in one of the cavities whereof is ſaid to be the grotto of LEUCOTHEA, the Tiburtin Sibyl, from whence ſhe uttered her oracles. Here are alſo the ruins of an ancient round building ſurrounded with marble pillars, ſuppoſed to be the temple of HERCULES SAXANUS. One of the greateſt modern curioſities is the palace belonging to the family of ESTE or Modena, admired for its architecture, ſculpture, paintings, gardens and water-works. The gardens lie on the ſide of a hill, divided into four parts. The walks, labyrinths, grotto's, fountains and ſtatues, admirably diſpoſed; and there is a wilderneſs where artificial birds are made to fly and ſing, being put in motion by a ſtream of water. The Girandola, repreſenting a ſtorm of thunder, hail and rain, ſurprizes all that view it. There is not a place in Italy which affords ſo great a variety of curioſities of this kind. Mr. ADDISON admires the proſpect from the hill of Tivoli above all things, which opens, he obſerves, on one ſide into the Campania, where the eye loſes itſelf in a ſmooth ſpacious plain. On the other ſide is a more broken and interrupted ſcene, made up of an infinite variety of inequalities and ſhadowings, that naturally ariſe from an agreeable mixture of hills, groves and valleys; but the moſt enlivening part of all is the river Teverone, which is ſeen at about a quarter of a mile diſtance, throwing it ſelf down a precipice, and falling by ſeveral caſcades from one rock to another, till after a turbulent noiſy courſe of ſeveral miles, it gains the bottom of the valley, where the ſight would be quite loſt if it did not ſometimes diſcover it ſelf through the breaks and openings of the woods that grow about it; from hence it flows gently on till it falls into the Tiber. Tivoli is now reduced to a very little town, ſurrounded with an ordinary wall; but is ſtill the See of a Biſhop. Not far from it is the rivulet of Salforata, formerly *Albula*, from whoſe waters there ariſes a ſulphureous ſtench, which may be ſmelt at a good diſtance. The little lake from whence this river iſſues, is one of the greateſt natural curioſities about Rome: it lies in the very bottom of the Campania, and is the drain of theſe parts; the ſides are covered with a kind of ſtony cruſt, and in it are ſeveral floating iſlands, twenty or thirty yards over, ſuppoſed to be formed originally by parcels of rarified ſulphureous earth caſt up by the water, which ſticking to ruſhes and herbs have been augmented by degrees to this bigneſs. This lake is unfathomable, and yet not above a mile in compaſs at preſent; but Mr. ADDISON ſuppoſes the banks have grown over it in the ſame manner the iſlands have been formed in it, and that in time the whole ſurface will be cruſted over, as the iſlands are enlarged, and the banks cloſe in upon them; for all round the lake where the ground was dry, they diſcovered it to be hollow by the trampling of the horſes feet. Near Tivoli alſo are the ſtone-quarries from whence they fetch that ſtone uſed in their buildings at Rome, called Tiburtine ſtone, of which great part of St. PETER's is built, not comparable to Portland ſtone, of which the churches in London are built.

Paleſtrina.

Paleſtrina ſtands about nine miles to the eaſtward of Tivoli, and twenty-eight eaſt of Rome; at the foot of the ſame mountain on which the ancient *Præneſte* ſtood, famous for the Temple of Fortune, where the *Sortes Præneſtinæ* were kept; there are ſtill great pillars of granite and other ruins of this ancient temple, but the moſt conſiderable remnant of it is a very beautiful Moſaic pavement, the fineſt, ſays Mr. ADDISON, that I have ever ſeen in marble; the parts are ſo well joined together, that the whole piece looks like a continued picture. In it are the figures of elephants, a rhinoceros, and ſeveral other animals, with little landſkips, which look very lively, and well painted, tho' they are made out of the natural colours and ſhadows of the marble.

Freſcati.

Freſcati is a little town, ſituated on the brow of a hill, twelve miles to the eaſtward of Rome, the proſpects from whence are not ſo delightful as formerly, when the Campania was ſet thick with towns, villa's, and plantations. The Tuſculum of Cicero, called *Grotto Ferrate*, is about two miles from hence, though it is generally placed at Freſcati. There are ſeveral houſes of pleaſure in it, of which the three principal are Monte Dracone, belonging to the Prince BORGHESE; Belvidere, belonging to the Prince PAMPHILIO; and the Villa Ludoviſia, to the family of COLONNA. Mr. ADDISON is a great admirer of Freſcati alſo. Here, ſays he, I had the ſatisfaction of ſeeing the firſt ſketch of Verſailles in the walks and water-works: but MISSON, who is a native of France, deſpiſes them to the laſt degree, inſinuating that there is no compariſon between the one and the other. I am ſorry, ſays MISSON in one of his letters, that I cannot relate to you ſo many wonders of Tivoli and Freſcati, as you ſeem to expect. They are indeed very pleaſant places, and rather than give offence, I will venture to call them very fine. But if once this maxim be eſtabliſhed, that when we conſider things which are reputed beautiful, we ought to proportion the eſteem we have for them by comparing them one with another; I muſt ſincerely acknowledge, that if we compare Freſcati to Verſailles, or to ſeveral other pleaſant ſeats in France, which are not Royal houſes, I dare poſitively affirm that the celebrated wonders not only of Freſcati, but alſo of Tivoli, and all the moſt beautiful palaces about Rome, as to the gardens and water-works, deſerve no higher title than that of Pretty Things. Monte Dracone is a pretty large houſe, ſituated on a riſing ground, from whence we may ſee Rome and the whole extent of the plain; but the city is at too great a diſtance to be ſeen from hence with pleaſure. The avenues to this houſe alſo are very difficult: nor are there at preſent fountains or gardens about it that merit a particular deſcription. The ſituation of Belvidere is not unlike that of Monte Dracone: there is a pretty caſcade in it, and a grotto, in which are the figures of APOLLO with the nine muſes on Mount Parnaſſus, where the ſeveral ſtatues play on inſtruments when the water-works are in order. The caſcade at the Villa Ludoviſia is the principal ornament of that garden alſo. The furniture of all the three houſes was mean, and every thing about them appeared neglected when I was there in 1688. But whether things were put into a better condition when MISSON viſited them afterwards, or he was in a better humour than at firſt, he gives us a very different account of the Roman villa's within a very few pages. The Villa Borgheſe, ſays that gentleman, *pag.* 68. of the ſecond volume, is in my opinion kept in better order than any that I have hitherto ſeen. 'Tis certainly a very pleaſant place, and fit for a great Prince: the houſe is almoſt covered over on the outſide with baſſo-relievo's, which are diſpoſed in ſo natural an order, and with ſo much ſymmetry, that you would be tempted to think they had been purpoſely made to fill thoſe places where they are now ſet. The principal ſtatues, with which the apartments are repleniſhed, are, the JUNO of porphyry, ROMULUS's ſhe-wolf of fine red marble of Egypt; the buſts of HANNIBAL, SENECA and PERTINAX, the hermaphrodite; the old SILENUS holding BACCHUS in his arms; but eſpecially the Gladiator, of which there was a copy at the head of the canal in St. JAMES's Park, till the late King WILLIAM removed it. Here are alſo DAVID wounding GOLIAH with a ſtone; ÆNEAS with his father ANCHYSES on his back, and the tranſformation of DAPHNE. And my author is ſo exceeding indulgent to the Villa Borgheſe at this time, that he ſays, he cannot forbear repeating once more, *That it is a delicious place:* And if all the royal magnificence which adorns ſome other places (the French palaces he means) does not appear in this with ſo much ſplendor, yet it muſt be acknowledged, that it has beauties no leſs ſoft and charming, ſuch tender and natural beauties as touch our hearts very ſenſibly, if they do not inſpire us with ſome awe. Adding, that Rome being the ſource of antique ſtatues and ſculptures, ſome of which are reputed inimitable, all the world muſt yield the precedency in this point to a Roman Prince.

In the Villa Ludoviſia there is alſo a prodigious multitude of ancient ſtatues, among which the expiring Gladiator, known by the name of the dying MYRMILLO, is invaluable. The poor Prince to whom it belongs was once about mortgaging of it for fifteen thouſand crowns. The groupe, call'd Concord, the ſtatues of FULVIUS, ESCULAPIUS, ANTONINUS PIUS, the two APOLLO's, FAUNUS and VENUS, are admirable pieces. The gardens of the Villa Pamphilia, ſays the ſame Gentleman, would be the faireſt that I have ſeen, if they were kept in order; for here is more deſign, more ſymmetry, and a more regular diſpoſition of the parts than any where elſe. The houſe is adorn'd on the outſide with fine antique baſſo-relievo's, like that of the Villa Borgheſe, and no leſs repleniſh'd within; but the beſt ſtatues were much diſorder'd by the following accident: A young Prince of this family having a Jeſuit for the governor of his conſcience, who exclaim'd loudly againſt the indecency of thoſe naked marble figures which he kept in his palace, the poor young gentleman, to humour his confeſſor, cauſed all the ſtatues with nudities to be plaiſter'd over; only little BACCHUS had the good fortune to eſcape this holy fury; but the Prince returning to a better mind, and preferring the converſation of a Princeſs to the ſociety of the Jeſuits, order'd theſe fine ſtatues to be uncover'd again, when he found ſeveral parts of them had been broken by the workmen who were employ'd to cover them to make the clay ſtick the faſter, to his irreparable damage. Freſcati is a Biſhop's See, who is ſuffragan of Rome, and uſually poſſeſs'd by one of the ſix eldeſt Cardinals.

Caſtel Gandolpho.

Caſtel Gandolpho ſtands about ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Rome, near a lake of the ſame name, and is moſt conſiderable for a Villa or palace of the Pope's, where he reſides for ſome time in the Spring and Autumn.

Albano.

Albano, built out of the ruins of the ancient *Alba longa*, is ſituated twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Rome, famous for its excellent wine, and the ruins of an ancient mauſoleum, which according to the tradition of the place belong'd to ASCANIUS; but nothing is more remarkable at Albano than the proſpect from the Capuchins garden, which for the extent and variety of pleaſing incidents, Mr. ADDISON ſays, is one of the moſt delightful he ever ſaw. It takes in the whole Campania of Rome, and terminates in a full view of the Tuſcan ſea; you ſee at the ſame time part of the Alban lake, which lies cloſe by it in an oval figure, about ſeven miles in circumference, and by reaſon of the high mountains which encompaſs it, looks like the area of ſome vaſt amphitheatre. This together with the ſeveral green hills and naked rocks within the neighbourhood, makes the moſt agreeable confuſion imaginable. Not far from Albano lies Nemi, which takes its name from the *Nemus Dianæ*, the whole country about it being ſtill overſpread with woods and thickets. The lake of Nemi lies in a very deep bottom, ſo ſurrounded on all ſides with mountains and groves, that the ſurface of it is never ruffled with the leaſt breath of wind, which with the clearneſs of the waters, my author ſuppoſes, gain'd it the name of DIANA's Looking-Glaſs,

——*Speculumque Dianæ.* VIRG.

The places abovemention'd in the Campania were all of them formerly the cool retirements of the Romans, where, in my author's phraſe, they uſed to hide themſelves among the woods and mountains during the exceſſive heats of ſummer (as Baiæ was the general winter rendezvous) according to the Poet.

All ſhun the raging dog-ſtar's ſultry heat,
And from the half unpeopled town retreat;
Some hid in Nemi's gloomy foreſts lie,
To Paleſtrina ſome for ſhelter fly:
Others to catch a breeze of breathing air,
To Tuſculum or Algido repair:
Or in moiſt Tivoli's retirement find
A cooling ſhade, and a refreſhing wind.

On the contrary, as Mr. ADDISON obſerves, Rome is never fuller of nobility than in ſummer, for the country towns are ſo infeſted with unwholeſome vapours, that it is dangerous reſiding there during the heats; though the air of Campania no doubt would be as healthful as formerly, if there were as many fires burning in it, and as many inhabitants to manure the ſoil. Albano is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Rome, and held by one of the ſix eldeſt Cardinals.

Velitri.

Velitri is ſituated on a fruitful hill, eighteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Rome, anciently a conſiderable city of the Volſci, and is at this day a handſome little town, well inhabited, ſurrounded with a wall, and the See of a Biſhop, who is alſo Biſhop of Oſtia. The great AUGUSTUS was nurs'd, if not born near this place, and the Romans had ſuch a veneration for his memory, that they made it unlawful for any man to ſet his foot within the doors of that houſe.

Ciſternæ.

Ciſternæ is a caſtle between Velitri and Sermonieta, near which are the three taverns mention'd by St. PAUL, where the primitive Chriſtians, according to tradition, uſed to receive the communion.

Sermonieta.

Sermonieta is a little town which gives title to a Duke of the family of CAJETANO, and is ſituated on a hill near the Palus Pontina, about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Rome.

Anagni.

Anagni, anciently the capital of the Hernici, is ſituated upon a hill about two and thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Rome. It is now a ruinous place and ill inhabited, but is however a Biſhop's See.

Ferentini, &c.

Ferentini, Alatri and Veroli, are only conſiderable for being the Sees of as many Biſhops.

Piperno is ſituated in a fruitful country about thirty five miles from Rome, in the road to Naples.

Terracina.

Terracina, *olim Anxur*, ſtands about fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Rome, and fifteen north-weſt of Gaieta, on the ſame road, near the ſea, about two miles to the weſtward of the kingdom of Naples. The place is ſmall, and but thinly inhabited on account of the badneſs of the air, occaſion'd by the Palus Pontina which lies about it; but is ſtill a Biſhop's See.

Nettuno.

Nettuno, the *Antium Navale* of the ancients, ſituate on the Tuſcan ſea, about thirty miles to the ſouthward of Rome, and formerly a good harbour; but is now almoſt deſerted alſo on account of the badneſs of the air.

Oſtia.

Oſtia, ſituate at the mouth of the Tiber, twelve or fifteen miles to the weſtward of Rome; formerly a good port, but the harbour being choak'd up, it is now an inconſiderable place, and only remarkable for its being a Biſhop's See united to Velitri.

The Patrimony of St. PETER.

The ſecond province of the Pope's dominions, I propoſed to deſcribe, was that which goes by the name of the Patrimony of St. PETER, comprehending the dutchy of Caſtro, and the territory of Orvieto, bounded by Tuſcany and Umbria towards the north and eaſt; by Sabina, and the Campania on the ſouth-eaſt, and by the Tuſcan

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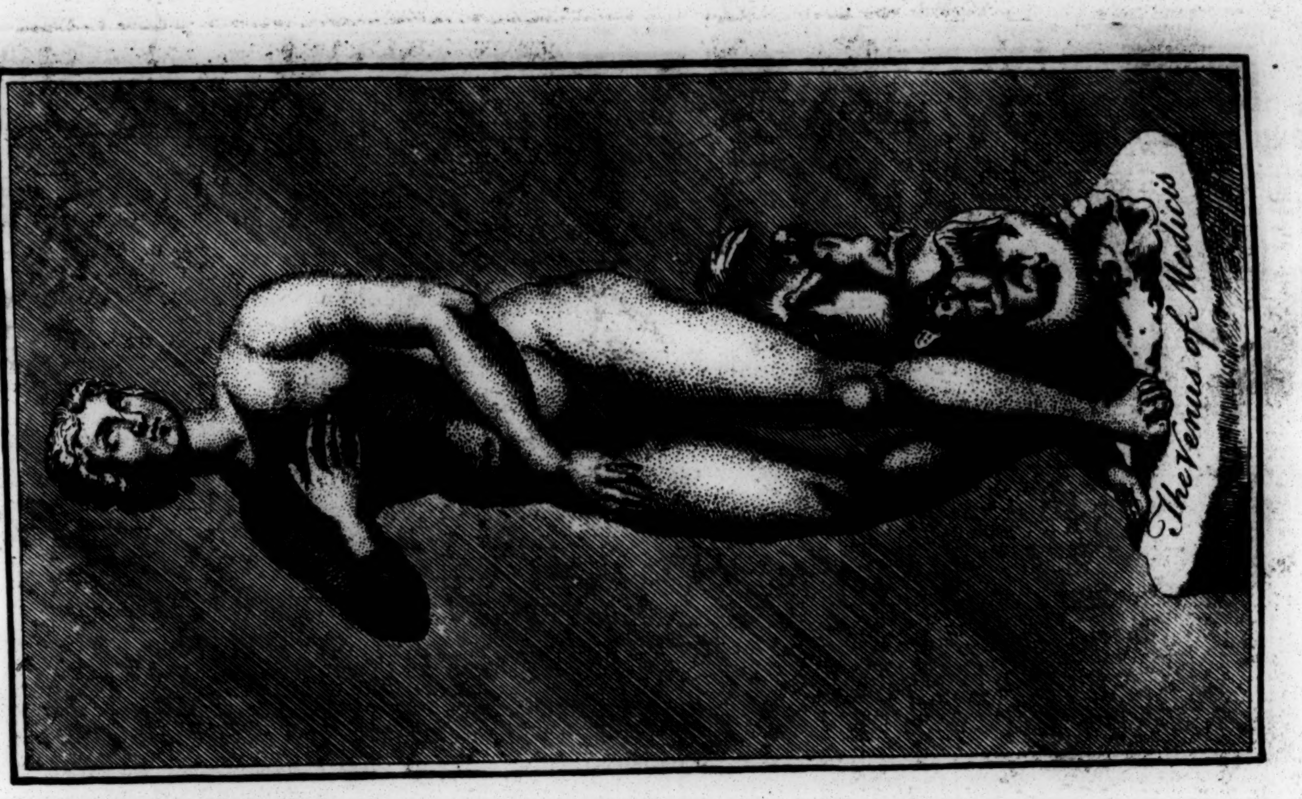
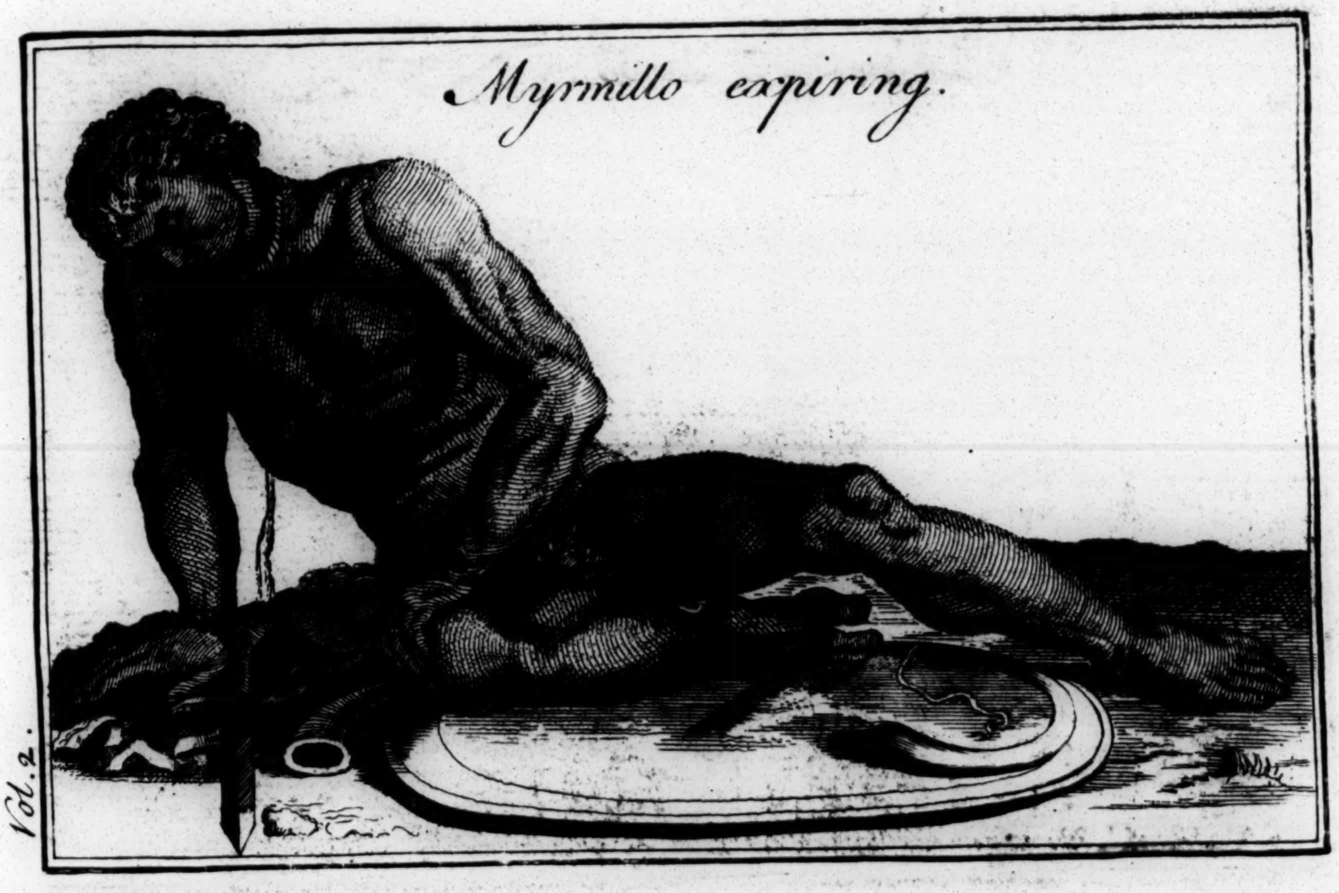


The Venus of Medicis



Myrmillo expiring.

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can ſea towards the weſt. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Viterbo. 2. Monteſiaſcone. 3. Bolſena, or Volſeno. 4. Vitorchiano. 5. Orta. 6. Citta Caſtellana. 7. Fiano. 8. Nepi. 9. Sutri. 10. Corneto. 11. Civita Vecchia. 12. Bracciano. 13. Bagni de Bracciano. 14. Ronciglione. 15. Caprarola. 16. Caſtro. 17. Caſtel Farneſe. 18. Toſcanella. 19. Montalto. 20. Orvieto. And, 21. Aquapendente.

Chief towns.

Viterbo.

Viterbo, the capital of this province, anciently called Tetrapolis, as it conſiſted of three towns united in one, is ſituated at the foot of mount Cyminus, about forty miles to the northward of Rome. The town is moderately large, built for the moſt part of ſtone, and defended by a wall and ſome antique ſquare towers of no great ſtrength. It is beautified with ſeveral handſom fountains, among which ſome are medicinal. It is a Biſhop's See, and hath been the reſidence of ſeveral Popes: the cathedral is a fine old church, but not equal to thoſe already deſcribed. Near Viterbo ſtands the caſtle of Soriano on an eminence, eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Italy.

Monteſiaſcone.

Monteſiaſcone is ſituated on a little fruitful hill near the lake of Bolſena, about eight miles north-weſt of Viterbo, and taken notice of by moſt travellers for its excellent Muſcatello-wine, which grows in the neighbourhood. They ſhow the tomb of a Dutchman here who was ſo fond of this liquor, that he killed himſelf in a few hours with it, as appears by his epitaph.

Bolſena.

Bolſena, or Volſeno, the ancient *Volſinium*, is ſituated on a lake of the ſame name, five miles north of Monteſiaſcone. It was one of the twelve cities of Etruria, and, according to Pliny, reduced to aſhes by lightning. It is now a little inconſiderable place, moſt taken notice of for the neighbouring lake, which is of an oval figure, and near forty miles in circumference.

Citta Caſtellana.

Civita, or Citta Caſtellana, is a little town ſituated fifteen mile, ſouth-eaſt of Viterbo; remarkable for little but its being a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Rome.

Civita Vecchia.

Civita Vecchia is ſituated on the Tuſcan ſea, about thirty miles north-weſt of Rome, being the port of that city, and one of the beſt harbours on the coaſt; and the Pope, in order to draw the trade that way, has made it a free port. It is defended by a caſtle and other works, and is the ſtation of the Pope's galleys. The great obſtacle to the trade of this place was the want of good water, and the unhealthfulneſs of it on that account: but the government have been at the charge of conveying water thither by aqueducts of late; whether it will anſwer their expectations, time muſt diſcover; but the Duke of Florence ſeems to be apprehenſive of its drawing the trade from Leghorn, and did what lay in his power to divert the Pope from making it a free port.

Bracciano.

Bracciano is the capital of a duchy to which it communicates its name, and belongs to the family of Ursini. It is ſituated on a hill near a lake of the ſame name, fifteen miles north-weſt of Rome. From this lake, which is of a circular figure, and about four miles over, iſſues the river Arone, which falls into the Tuſcan ſea.

Bagni di Bracciano.

Bagni di Bracciano is a little town ſituated on the ſame lake, famous for its baths, called by the ancients *Stiglianæ Thermæ*.

Ronciglione.

Ronciglione is the capital of a territory of the ſame name, about twenty five-miles north of Rome; a town of good trade, and one of the richeſt in this province: it belonged to the Duke of Parma till the year 1649, when Pope Innocent X made himſelf maſter of it, and his ſucceſſors have kept it ever ſince.

Caprarola.

Caprarola is a little town ſituated on the brow of a hill, four miles to the northward of Ronciglione, and belongs to the Duke of Parma, having one of the fineſt caſtles in Italy for its defence.

Caſtro.

Caſtro is the capital of a duchy which belonged to the Duke of Parma, till Pope Innocent X deprived him of it in the year 1649, when he demoliſhed the place, and removed the biſhoprick to Aquapendente. It lies about forty miles north of Rome, on the confines of Tuſcany.

Caſtel Farneſe.

Caſtel Farneſe is a little town two miles north-eaſt of Caſtro.

Tuſcanella.

Tuſcanella, anciently called Tuſcia and Tyrrhenia, ſituate on the confines of Tuſcany, and ſuppoſed to have communicated its name to that country.

Orvieto.

Orvieto, the capital of a territory called the Orvietan, is a large ſtrong city, ſituated on a high hill of a ſteep aſcent, near the river Paglia, about five and forty miles to the northward of Rome, and fifteen north-eaſt of Viterbo; the See of a Biſhop ſuffragan of Rome, and has one of the fineſt cathedrals in Italy.

Aquapendente.

Aquapendente is a large well-built town, ſituated on the top of a rock, from whence there falls a caſcade of water, which is thought to be the occaſion of its name. It was made a biſhoprick upon the deſtruction of Caſtro, but is ſtill a poor place, conſiderable only for the earthen ware made there.

The province of Sabina.

The province of Sabina is bounded by that of Umbria on the north-eaſt; by the kingdom of Naples on the ſouth-eaſt; by the Campania of Rome on the ſouth-weſt; and by the Patrimony on the north-weſt: being about twenty-five miles in length, and twenty in breadth, part of the ancient kingdom of the Sabins, and exceeding fruitful in wine and oil; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Magliano. 2. Vicovaro. And, 3. Correſe.

Chief towns.

Magliano.

Magliano, or Manliana, is ſituated on an eminence near the river Tiber, about twenty miles north-eaſt of Rome; the capital of the province, and made the See of the Biſhop of Sabina by Alexander VI, anno 1405, and is uſually poſſeſſed by one of the eldeſt Cardinals.

Vicavaro.

Vicavaro is ſituated on a mountain near the river Tiverone, not far from the confines of Naples, and gives the title of Duke to a branch of the family of Ursini.

Correſe.

Correſe, *olim Quiris*, from whence the Romans were called *Quirites*, is at preſent a ſmall place, ſituate on a rivulet, about twenty miles to the eaſtward of Rome.

The province of Umbria or Spoletto.

The province of Umbria, or duchy of Spoletto, is bounded by the duchy of Urbino and the marquiſate of Ancona on the north-eaſt; by the kingdom of Naples on the ſouth-eaſt; and by the Patrimony of St. Peter and Sabina towards the weſt and north; being ſixty miles and upwards in length from eaſt to weſt, and forty in breadth from north to ſouth, and had its name of Umbria from the river Umber. The country is diverſified with hills and plains, and produces wine, oil, fruits, and plenty of corn. The chief towns are, 1. Spoletto. 2. Trevi. 3. Foligno. 4. Ponte. 5. Spello. 6. Aſſiſo. 7. Bevagna. 8. Montefalco.

Chief towns.

co. 9. Todi. 10. Aqua Sparta. 11. Amelia. 12. Otriculi. 13. Narni. 14. Ceſis. 15. Terni. 16. Rieti. 17. Norcia. 18. Perugia. 19. Caſtiglione. And, 20. Paſſignano.

Spoletto city.

Spoletto is ſituated on the declivity of a hill, near the brook Teſſino, about five and forty miles north-eaſt of Rome, almoſt ſurrounded by rocks and mountains, on one of which ſtands the caſtle, of very difficult acceſs, much ſtronger by nature than art, and anciently repulſed the victorious HANNIBAL, after he had defeated the Romans near the lake of Thraſimene, which great event is ſtill commemorated by ſeveral inſcriptions in the place. It is but a poor city at this day, indifferently built and thinly peopled, and of a very uneven ſituation. The cathedral is a noble old fabrick, the front adorn'd with Moſaick work on a golden ground, and the pavement inlaid. The chapel of the Madona of St. LUKE is very fine, and has ſome excellent marble ſtatues in it. There are alſo ſome fragments of antiquity in the place, as part of a triumphal arch, and ſome remains of an amphitheatre; and there is an aqueduct three hundred and fifty paces in length, which joins the mountain of St. FRANCIS to that of Spoletto, lying ſeven hundred feet above the valley over which it runs. This town was terribly ſhaken by an earthquake in the year 1703.

Foligne.

Foligne, or Foligno, is ſituated ten miles north-eaſt of Spoletto, in one of the moſt fruitful plains of Italy, built upon the ruins of the *Forum Flaminii*, the little river Tupino running through it. It is a populous trading place, their principal manufactures are cloth, ſilk, gold and ſilver lace.

Narni.

Narni is ſituated on the ſide of a mountain near the river Nera, ſurrounded almoſt with hills, and makes a pretty appearance as we approach it from Terni. On the top of the hill on which it is built ſtands the caſtle, the reſidence of the Governor. It is very troubleſom walking in the city, people being obliged to go perpetually up or down hill. The houſes alſo are indifferently built, and their tatter'd paper windows make them look ſtill worſe. On the other hand, it ſtands in a fruitful ſoil, and their fruits are excellent in their kind: they have alſo ſome mineral waters. It is the See of a Biſhop, and the great altar in the cathedral is eſteem'd a fine piece of workmanſhip. Near Narni are the ruins of a magnificent bridge, ſaid to be built by AUGUSTUS, of large ſquare pieces of marble, without any cement. Of four arches it conſiſted of, there remains but one entire, the top of the largeſt is broken off, which is computed to have been an hundred and fifty feet high, and two hundred broad, much larger than the famous arch of the Rialto in Venice.

Ceſis.

Ceſis, or Cæſum, eight miles north-eaſt of Narni, remarkable for the cold winds that iſſue from the mountains in the neighbourhood, eſpecially in ſummer. They lie between Gemini and Terni, and are a chain of hills about eight miles long from eaſt to weſt, all huge rocks, wonderfully placed by nature one above another. The ſurface of theſe rocks is full of holes and chinks, from whence thoſe cold blaſts iſſue during the heat of ſummer, and at no other time; and the natives have a way by pipes and canals to convey it into their cellars, to cool their wines and preſerve their fruits.

Terni.

Terni, *olim Interamnia*, is ſituated ſeven miles north eaſt of Narni, in a fine fruitful plain, encompaſſed by two branches of the river Nera, from whence it derives its ancient name, and is ſaid to have been founded not long after Rome. It has a briſk trade in oil of olives, with which the country abounds, making, it is ſaid, three hundred charges of oil every day for ſix months in the year, every charge weighing ſix hundred pounds. Near this place is the famous caſcade, or water-fall from mount Marmore, where the river running with a prodigious ſwift current, throws it ſelf down a ſteep rock three hundred feet high, and falls into the cavity of another rock, againſt which the water daſhes with ſuch violence, that it riſes again like a cloud of water-duſt, in MISSON's phraſe double the height of the fall, and falls again in a perpetual rain over all the adjacent parts. This pulverized water forms with the ſun an infinite number of rainbows, which increaſe and diminiſh croſs each other, and dance about according to the various ſpouting and reboundings of the water, and as the watry ſmoak happens to be thicker or thinner. At length they fall into an abyſs hollowed by their own weight, from whence they break forth again impetuouſly through the jaws and crevices of the rock, from whence they run murmuring on a little way, and then mingle with the river Nera, which they enlarge above two thirds. Terni is a well built populous town, and a Biſhop's See, who is ſuffragan to Rome.

A remarkable natural caſcade, or cataract.

Rieti.

Rieti, or Reate, is ſituated on the river Velino, about twenty miles to the eaſtward of Terni, on the confines of the kingdom of Naples. It is a place of ſome trade, but has a very bad air, occaſioned by the neighbouring lakes and marſhes. It was miſerably ſhattered by an earthquake in the year 1703. The Biſhop of this place is ſuffragan to Rome.

Norcia.

Norcia, or Norcera, anciently called *Conſtantia Colonia*, is ſituated at the foot of the Apennine, ſixteen miles north-eaſt of Spoletto, and is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Rome. It ſuffered pretty much by the ſame earthquake in the year 1703.

Perugia.

Peruſa, or Perugia, capital of the territory which goes by the name of the Perutin, or Perugin, a country which abounds with excellent corn and wine, is ſituated on a hill near the Tiber, on the confines of Tuſcany, about thirty miles to the northward of Orvieto. It is a large well-peopled city, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Rome, and a Univerſity, and is defended by a citadel and other fortifications. About ſix miles from hence is the lake of Thraſimene ſeven leagues in circumference, near which the Romans were defeated by HANNIBAL.

Caſtiglione.

Caſtiglione del Lago, the capital of a territory called Il Contado di Caſtello, is a fortified town on the frontiers of Tuſcany, fourteen miles to the weſtward of Perugia.

Ancona marquiſate.

The marquiſate of Ancona is bounded by the duchy of Urbino on the north; by the gulph of Venice on the north-eaſt; by the kingdom of Naples on the ſouth-eaſt; by the province of Umbria or Spoletto on the ſouth-weſt; and by Tuſcany on the north-weſt; being about ſeventy miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and fifty in breath from north to ſouth: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Ancona. 2. Loretto. 3. Oſimo. 4. Recanati. 5. Macerata. 6. Fermo. 7. Ripa Tranſone. 8. Mont Alto. 9. Offida. 10. Aſcoli. 11. Tolentino. 12. St. Severino. 13. Camerino. 14. Fabriano. 15. Saſſoferato. 16. Jeſi. It is one of the moſt fruitful provinces of the Pope's dominions, producing plenty of corn, wine, flax, hemp and fruits.

Ancona city.

Ancona ſtands on a promontory in the Adriatick ſea, on two little ſteep hills, about an hundred and twenty miles to the eaſtward of Rome; and ſixty ſouth-eaſt of Urbino, having a good harbour, and a citadel which commands both that and the town. It makes a tolerable figure at a diſtance, but the ſtreets are narrow and uneven, and neither the publick or private buildings equal to thoſe of other great towns in Italy. Their trade alſo is at a very low ebb, but poſſibly may revive again now the Pope has made it a free port, as well as Civita Vecchia. Proviſions, travellers complain, are dear and ſcarce here, though the town ſtands in a plentiful country; one reaſon whereof may be, that it is a common thorough-fare from the north of Italy to Loretto, a place as much frequented by pilgrims and travellers as any in Europe, either out of devotion or curioſity. The harbour was made by the Emperor Trajan, on which account there was a triumphal arch erected to his honour by the ſea-ſide, which ſtill remains almoſt entire, and looks white and freſh, being expoſed to the winds and ſalt ſea-vapours, which by continual fretting it, in Mr. Addison's opinion, preſerves it from that mouldy colour which others of the ſame materials have contracted. There was ſome diſtinction made by the Romans, my author thinks, between theſe honorary arches erected to Emperors, and thoſe that were raiſed on account of ſome victory, and were properly triumphal arches; but he does not hint wherein the difference conſiſted; only commends the wiſdom of the Romans, who to encourage their Emperors in their inclinations of doing good to their country, gave the ſame honours to the great actions of peace which turned to the advantage of the publick, as to thoſe of war; and this, he obſerves, is very remarkable in the medals that were ſtamped on the ſame occaſions. The medal ſtruck for Trajan in memory of his beneficence to Ancona, is ſtill very common, on the reverſe whereof is a port with a chain running croſs it, and a boat with this inſcription, *S. P. Q. R. optimo Principi S. C.*

The habits of the people of Ancona, according to Misson, are very particular. He obſerved on one of their feſtivals, he ſays, when they were better dreſſed than uſual, that the principal citizens wore black cloaks lined with green, blue ſtockings, ſhoes whited with chalk, and tied with coloured ribbon; their waiſtcoats were unbuttoned, and the facing of the ſleeves embroidered; their ſhirts full, and hung over their fingers ends. The ordinary citizens wives and daughters had head-dreſſes with long fringes hanging over their faces; the body of their gowns of red and yellow ſilk, laced before and behind, and on both ſides, and overlaid with galloon like a livery; their petticoats ſhort, and of forty different colours. The Ladies of quality were dreſſed after the French mode, but ſo aukwardly, that they made a more ridiculous figure than their inferiors in their native dreſs, how fantaſtical ſoever it might appear to foreigners. The exchange where the merchants meet is a handſom ſquare portico, in which is an equeſtrian ſtatue of Trajan, and four other figures at the four corners, repreſenting religion, faith, hope, and charity: but an earthquake which happened not many years ſince, has done conſiderable damage to theſe ſtatues, by breaking or overturning them. Ancona is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Rome. It is obſervable here that the tide does not riſe above a foot, though it riſes above four feet at Venice and the bottom of the gulph, and in that part of the gulph of Venice which lies next the Mediterranean there is no tide at all to be diſcerned.

Loretto.

The city of Loretto, *olim Lauretum*, taking its name from a grove of laurel there, is ſituated on an eminence three miles to the weſtward of the gulph of Venice, fifteen ſouth of Ancona, and an hundred and forty-five to the eaſtward of Rome, in a pleaſant fruitful ſoil; but there cannot be worſe roads for the poor pilgrims to wade through, than there are near this celebrated place. The city is ſmall, conſiſting only of one large ſtreet within the gate, and another without; and is defended by a wall and other fortifications, which may be ſufficient to prevent a ſudden ſurprize, but would not be able to hold out a long ſiege. Some have wondered, ſays Mr. Addison, that the Turk never attacks this place, where ſo vaſt a treaſure is repoſited, ſince it lies ſo near the ſea-ſhore, and is ſo weakly defended: But beſides that he has formerly attempted it without ſucceſs, the Venetians keep too watchful an eye over him at preſent, to ſuffer him to enter the Adriatick. It would, as that gentleman obſerves farther, be an eaſy matter for a Chriſtian Prince to poſſeſs himſelf of it, who has ſhips continually paſſing by; eſpecially if he had a party in the town diſguiſed like pilgrims: for it is computed there have been no leſs than an hundred thouſand pilgrims in this place in the compaſs of a day's time; but it is probable that their veneration for the Holy Houſe, and the horrour of an action that would be reſented by all Catholick Princes, will be as great a ſecurity to the place as the ſtrongeſt fortification: And there is no doubt but the Pope would make uſe of theſe treaſures in caſe of an unfortunate war with the Turk, or a powerful confederacy among the Proteſtants againſt the Holy See. The vaſt heaps of wealth amaſſed together here and in other religious places in Italy, may be looked upon as ſo many hidden reſerves and magazines of the church, that ſhe would open upon any preſſing occaſion for her laſt defence and preſervation. But I proceed to give an account of the Holy Houſe, which drew ſo great a treaſure hither.

It is called here, *Sacratiſſimo Sacello. Glorioſa Cella. Domus Aurea. Domus Sapientiæ. Vas Inſigne Devotionis. Sanctuarium Dei. Propitiatorium Altiſſimi. Civitas Refugii. Puteus Aquarum Viventium. Terror Dæmonum. Spes Deſperantium. Gloria Jeruſalem. Tabernaculum Fæderis. Solium Gloriæ Dei. Sacrarium Divinitatis. Sacroſancta Caſa, &c.*

The hiſtory of the tranſlation, or tranſportation, of this houſe from the Holy Land to Loretto, is hung up in the cathedral of Loretto in ſeveral languages; the ſubſtance whereof is as follows, viz. That this was the bleſſed Virgin's chamber near Jeruſalem, in which ſhe was born and ſaluted by the angel; that ſhe conceived and brought up her ſon Jesus here till he was twelve years of age; that after the aſcenſion of our Saviour, the Apoſtles conſecrated it to the honour of the Bleſſed Virgin, and St. Luke drew a picture of her, which is preſerved here to this day: that the natives apoſtatizing from the faith of Chriſt, and becoming the diſciples of Mahomet, the Angels carried it into Dalmatia, and placed it on a mountain there called Terſatto, near the Gulph of Venice; (but as to the time of this memorable event, they are not perfectly agreed, whether it was on the ninth, tenth, or the twelfth day of May 1291, or in the year 1294) But the people of the country not expreſſing a due veneration for it here; three years and ſeven months after, the Angels tranſported it over the ſea to a wood in the territory of Recanati (which is about three miles from Loretto) the territory belonging to a noble Lady named Loretto, from whence it obtained the name of *Our Lady of Loretto*. After it had remain'd here eight months, on account of the wickedneſs of the natives, it was remov'd a third time to the hill where it ſtands at preſent; but a controverſy ariſing between two brothers to whom the ground belong'd, four months after it was remov'd a little farther into a highway; and here they built over it a magnificent church, the preſent cathedral, under the middle of the cupola whereof it now remains. They alſo erected four walls of white Parian marble, which ſurrounded the Holy Chamber at the diſtance of half a foot, the better to preſerve it. Here, ſays my author, all the beauties of ſculpture and architecture may be ſeen, the greateſt artiſts in Italy having been employ'd in the work. It is of the Corinthian order, with excellent baſs-reliefs, in which the hiſtory of the Virgin is repreſented; and there being two rows of niches one above another between the double columns, in the ten below are the ſtatues of ten Prophets, and in thoſe above the images of ten of the Sibyls, who propheſy'd of our Saviour's birth. There remains no more now of the Virgin's chamber than the four walls, compoſed of a reddiſh ſtone, which the legend ſays is no where to be found but near Nazareth. The roof has been remov'd to give light within, and a door made on each ſide; nor is there any of the foundation. The chamber is about forty foot long, twenty broad, and about twenty in height. My author ſays, he view'd the wall on the inſide, which they were prevented from doing without by the marble encloſure; and whatever they may pretend, it appears to be built of brick. MISSON alſo relates, that he has examin'd the matter, and that they have on purpoſe made choice of bricks of different ſhapes and unequal bigneſs, together with ſome flat greyiſh and reddiſh ſtones, which are common every where, and that the cement is common lime and ſand, as in other ordinary houſes, but ill join'd and fitted together; which ſeems to evince that the work was done in haſte. But to go on with the tradition concerning this houſe, which the Roman Catholicks believe as firmly as their creed: They ſay, that it was not known from whence it came till the bleſſed Virgin appeared to a devout man in his ſleep, and declar'd the manner of its removal in the year 1296, who diſcovering it to the Governor and other conſiderable men of the province, they ſent ſixteen perſons of good reputation to Nazareth, who meaſur'd the foundations from whence it was taken, and found them to be exactly of the ſame dimenſions with the walls of the Holy Houſe. They ſaw alſo an inſcription on an adjoining wall, which ſignified that it had left that place; which demonſtrated to them, that this was the chamber of the Virgin MARY: and it has been reverenc'd by Chriſtians accordingly, and many miracles wrought there, ſays the legend. PAUL SILVA a hermit of great ſanctity, who liv'd in the neighbourhood, alſo declar'd, that going there conſtantly to mattins for ten years on the eighth of September annually, two hours before day, he ſaw a light deſcend from Heaven upon the Holy Houſe, which was the bleſſed Virgin, who ſhewed herſelf there on the day of her nativity. Another man of credit, named PAUL RENALDUCI, atteſted, that his Grandfather ſaw the Angels convey it over the ſea, and place it in the wood, where he had often viſited it. One FRANCIS PRIOR alſo atteſted, that his Grandfather's Grandfather being an hundred and twenty years old, had much frequented it in the ſame place, and that in his time it was carried from thence to the mountain of the two brothers.

The Holy Houſe is ſituated eaſt and weſt. Towards the eaſt is the little chimney of the chamber, and over it ſtands the Lady of Loretto, with a little Jeſus on her right arm: the image of our Lady is ſaid to be of cedar wood, the workmanſhip of St. LUKE, and brought hither with the houſe. It is about four foot high, and adorn'd with a particular kind of veil (of which they have ſeveral of various colours for change) all rich and glittering with precious ſtones; one of theſe, LASSELS relates, has ſix rows of diamonds down before, to the number of three thouſand; and is wrought over with a kind of embroidery of little pearl, ſet thick every where, within the flowers, with great round pearl, to the number of twenty thouſand pearls in all. Her triple crown, cover'd with precious ſtones, was the preſent of LEWIS XIII, King of France. The crown on the head of our Saviour, alſo is ſet with diamonds. Before the breaſt of the bleſſed Virgin hangs a royal toiſon or fleece of rich jewels; a collar of rubies, pearls and diamonds, and a rich croſs hanging at it. And round the nich where the ſtatue ſtands, is a cloſe row of precious ſtones of ſeveral kinds and luſtres of great bulk and value, forming a kind of rainbow of various colours. Before the image of our Lady hang twelve lamps of beaten gold, each as big as a man's head: all the reſt of the chapel is loaden with the rich vows and preſents of great Princes. The altar is of pure beaten ſilver, ſcarce any thing of leſs value is to be ſeen here. There is ſtill remaining ſome ancient paintings, ſaid to be done in the primitive times, particularly ſeveral pictures of the Virgin, with our Saviour in her arms. On each ſide of the Virgin's image are preſſes fill'd with her ancient ornaments, and on another in the ſouth ſide they preſerve ſome earthen diſhes and houſhold utenſils, ſaid to be uſed by the Virgin and her family, many of which are cover'd with gold plate. Over againſt the image of our Lady, at the end which looks weſtward, is the window at which, 'tis ſaid, the Angel enter'd when he brought her the joyful tidings of being the mother of our Saviour; this window is about three foot high, and almoſt the ſame breadth; and according to tradition, the Virgin was telling over her beads when the Angel appear'd to her.

As for the old roof of the houſe, and the little ſteeple, with which it is painted in ancient pictures, they can give no account of them; the preſent vaulted roof they acknowledge to be a modern fabrick, but the old bells they pretend to have, which are never uſed for fear of wearing them out: they add, that the altar made by the hands of the Apoſtles, and the ſtone on which St. PETER ſaid his firſt maſs, were tranſported hither with the houſe, which are now cover'd with ſilver. The pavement conſiſts of ſquare pieces of red and white marble; but this alſo is modern: for the old floor

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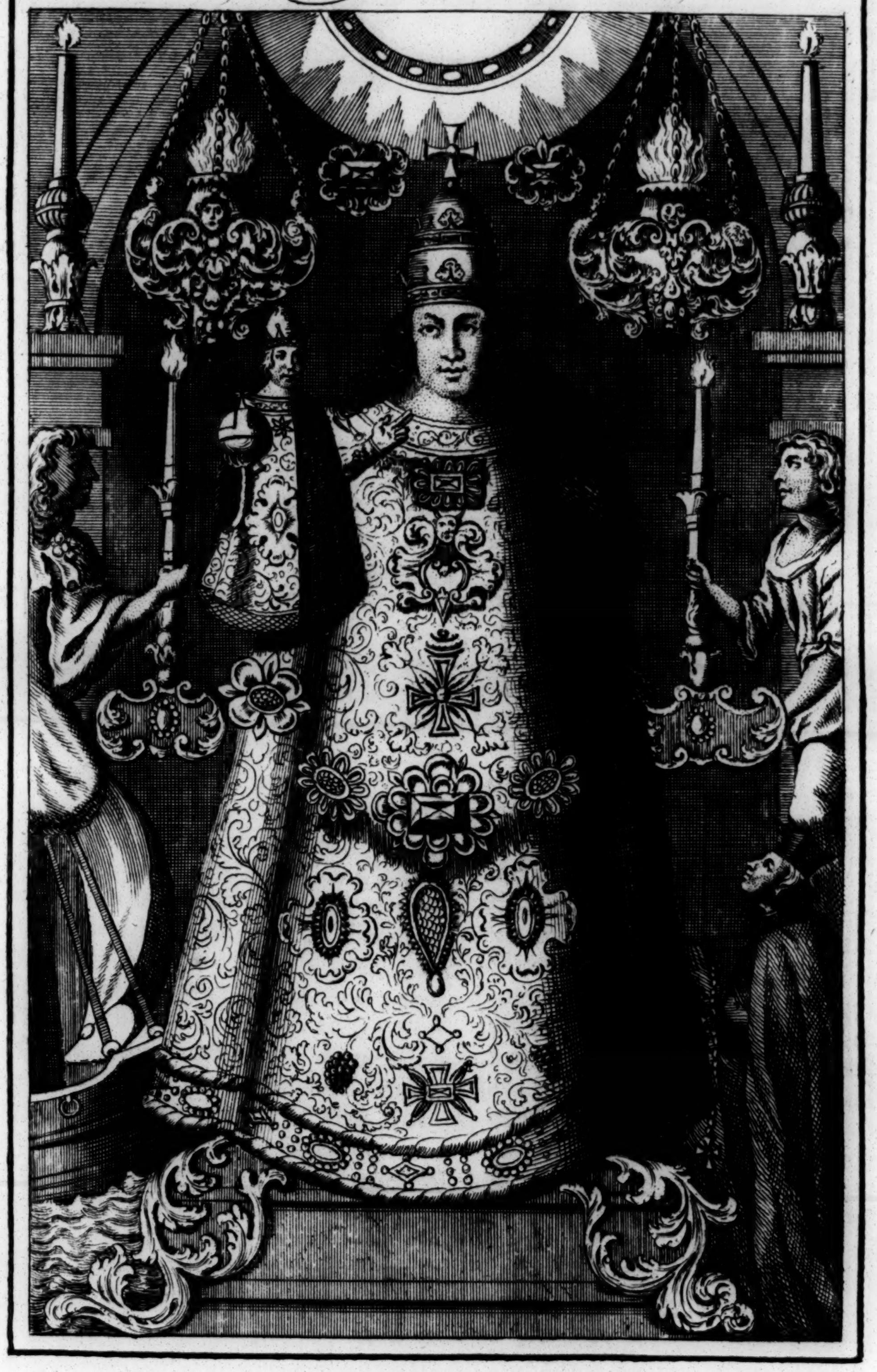
The Lady of LORETTO.



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they ſay was left at Nazareth with the foundation of the houſe. The entrance of this chapel is by three doors at preſent, viz. one on each ſide, and one behind the altar, though originally there was but one. The place between the altar and our Lady's ſhrine is called the ſanctuary: upon this altar maſs is celebrated from four in the morning to one in the afternoon; and before it hangs a lamp of gold as big as two men can carry; there are alſo all round the chapel lamps, ſtatues, buſts, and other figures of gold and ſilver, and particularly eight and twenty large ſilver candleſticks gilt. The laſt rich offering is always laid before the ſhrine of our Lady for ſome time, and then removed into the treaſury. All round the walls that incloſe the houſe are a great number of candleſticks and branches; and theſe walls the pilgrims ſurround on their knees, ſome five, ſome ſeven, and others twelve times, as they are diſpoſed, ſaying over their Pater-Noſters and Ave-Marias, and telling their beads, all endeavouring to get as near the wall as they can; and as ſome ſurround it one way, and others the contrary, this occaſions frequent joſtling, and muſt not a little diſturb their devotions; but this is never done when there are great numbers of Pilgrims aſſembled. From the Sancta Caſa foreigners are led to view the treaſury, in compariſon of which, ſays Misson, all the riches of the Holy Houſe are but of ſmall value. It is a gallery with a rich vaulted roof, forty paces long, and fifteen broad, on one ſide of which are large preſſes with folding-doors, which ſerve inſtead of wainſcoat when ſhut. The ſilver works are not thought worthy to be admitted into theſe preſſes, but are laid in heaps in other repoſitories, while the preſſes are filled with pure gold, rich jewels, or veſſels and ornaments more precious than gold; being the votive donations of Emperors, Kings, Popes, Princes, and other perſons of diſtinction, for ſeveral hundred years paſt. Here are whole ſervices for the altar of amber, agate, lapis lazuli, coral and cryſtal, Prieſts veſtments adorned with pearl and precious ſtones. A ſpread eagle covered with diamonds, ſeveral crowns of gold enriched with pearls and diamonds, a heart ſet with diamonds, and a great emerald in the middle of it of an exceſſive bigneſs. Several ſingle diamonds of an immenſe value; images of our Saviour and the Samaritan woman in gold; a golden dove with two crowns above it covered with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, and other precious ſtones; a cup of Lapis Lazuli, with a lid of rock cryſtal, on the top whereof is an Angel in relievo, having a lilly ſet with diamonds in his hand: the border of this lid is adorned with four large diamonds, and as many rubies: the foot is oriental jaſper and gold artfully intermixed and embelliſhed with precious ſtones; three Satyrs of gold ſitting upon it glittering with rubies and diamonds, intermixed with pearls; and there are three golden Syrens for the baſis, holding each of them a child, with this diſtich,

Ut quæ prole tua mundum Regina beaſti,
Et Regnum & Regem prole beare velis.

This glorious cup Henry III of France offered to our Lady for a ſucceſſor. And here are two crowns in form of Tiara's, which Lewis XIII of France offered on the ſame acconnt.

Theſe are both of gold embelliſhed with diamonds and pearls, which, it is ſaid, coſt eighty thouſand crowns. Another preſent the ſame King offered after the birth of Lewis XIV, being an Angel of ſilver with a young infant of gold in his arms, which he preſents to the Virgin. Among the golden ſtatues are thoſe of the Duke of Savoy, with a royal mantle on his knees, and that of Stanislaus King of Poland: and there is an altar-cloth preſented by the Lady of the Great Chancellor of Poland, the jewels whereof are computed to be worth an hundred and fifty thouſand crowns, with a multitude of other valuable preſents; among which I muſt not forget one that Misson ſays was ſent by King James II's Queen in 1688, viz. an Angel of gold, holding a heart bigger than an egg covered with diamonds of great value, which, he ſays, ſhe offered to the Virgin juſt before ſhe became pregnant of the Chevalier. On the other ſide of the gallery is a range of windows, between every one of which are the plans of ſeveral great towns in baſs-relief in ſilver. But not to weary the reader with a tedious enumeration of more particulars, I ſhall conclude the deſcription of this treaſure in the words of Mr. Addison: The riches in the Holy Houſe and treaſury, ſays that gentleman, are ſurprizingly great, and as much ſurpaſſed my expectation as other ſights have fallen ſhort of it: ſilver can ſcarce find admiſſion, and gold it ſelf looks but poorly among ſuch an incredible number of precious ſtones. There will be in a few ages more the jewels of the greateſt value in Europe, if the devotion of its Princes continues in its preſent fervour. The laſt offering (when he was there) was made by the Queen Dowager of Poland, and coſt her eighteen thouſand crowns.

The church, in which the Holy Houſe ſtands, is a magnificent fabrick, built in the form of a croſs, with a cupola in the middle, adorned with ſtucco work and exquiſite paintings by the greateſt hands; particularly in the chapel of the Annunciation, is the hiſtory of her viſitation and marriage; and in the chapel of St. John Baptiſt an incomparable picture of our Saviour's baptiſm. In the great ſquare before the church is a vaſt marble fountain, with the brazen ſtatue of Pope Sixtus V; and four other ſtatues repreſenting the cardinal virtues. All the doors of the church are of braſs, and have ſeveral hiſtories engraven upon them. The cellars belonging to the houſe are very ſpacious, and repleniſhed with variety of wine, not only for the ſervice of the Biſhop's palace, but for all thoſe numerous bodies of Pilgrims which reſort hither, to whom they are always open. After the cellar ſtrangers are ſhewn the Apothecaries ſhop, where all pilgrims are furniſhed with ſuch medicines as they want; but the pots which contain them are the greateſt curioſity here, having been painted by the admired Raphael Urbin, and containing ſeveral pieces of ſacred and prophane hiſtory. The palace where the Governor, the Biſhop, and Penitentiaries of all nations reſide, is large and commodious; and here are apartments always ready for the reception of Princes, Cardinals, and other perſons of diſtinction, whoſe devotion brings them hither. In the ſquare of this palace is an octangular fountain of braſs thirty foot high, conſiſting of three ſtories one above another: into the uppermoſt four Eagles throw the water; four Dragons pour it into the ſecond; and four Tritons mounted on the backs of dolphins convey it to the third. The inhabitants of Loretto, notwithſtanding the vaſt concourſe of pilgrims hither, are not rich, moſt of them being maintained by the charity of the houſe, and laying out but little money, unleſs it be in beads, croſſes, and medals, the making whereof are the principal employment of the inhabitants. Turcelinus, in his hiſtory of Loretto, relates, that in ſome years between Eaſter and Whitſuntide there have reſorted hither five or ſix hundred thouſand pilgrims; and in the ſpace of two days in September, when they celebrate the feaſt of the Virgin's nativity, not leſs than two hundred thouſand. Theſe pilgrims ſet out in bodies from the ſeveral Catholick cities of Italy, and other parts of Europe, each body or ſociety being diſtinguiſhed by the arms of the city they come from, and by the colour of their clothes: they wear a kind of linen frock with a cowl, which quite covers their heads, leaving only three holes for their eyes and mouth; they have large chaplets of beads, girdles, pilgrims ſtaves, and the arms of the ſociety painted or embroidered before and behind, on the back and breaſt of every brother. The men uſually ride on aſſes, probably in imitation of our Saviour, which animals, ſays my ludicrous author, on account of their frequent journeys to the Holy Houſe, are ſuppoſed to have ſome ſmack of ſanctity. They are very ſure-footed, and travel better in that uneven country about Loretto than horſes would. As to the female pilgrims, their habits are the richeſt they can procure, and they faſten to the body of their gowns a little pilgrim's ſtaff of gold, ſilver or ivory, ſome of them ſet with pearls or precious ſtones; and theſe being about ſix inches long, ſays the ſame merry writer, give occaſion for many pretty thoughts, ſerving for diverſion for the company on the way. The Ladies uſually ride in calaſhes and chaiſes, ſurrounded with a croud of gentlemen mounted on aſſes, and dreſſed in the manner above deſcribed, who ſhow a thouſand antick tricks, and ſing merry ſongs for their diverſion, which muſt make the women extremely fond of theſe expeditions in a country where they are never permitted to converſe with the men but on ſuch occaſions; though there are few of them but have a governante, a brother, or ſome other relation near them, who ſerve as ſpies to ſee that they do not carry their gallantry too far. But to return to Loretto, beſides the jewels, plate and ornaments already mentioned, it is ſuppoſed there are vaſt ſums of ready caſh laid up in the treaſury of the Holy Houſe, for no pilgrim ſcarce comes thither but gives ſomething to the box; and to incite them to be liberal, they deliver out printed papers, wherein they ſuggeſt that the revenues of this church amount to but twenty ſeven thouſand crowns per ann. and that in their charges inmaintaining the clergy and officers which belong to the Holy Houſe, and the pilgrims who reſort hither, they annually expend above thirty eight thouſand crowns, ſo that there is a deficiency of eleven thouſand crowns every year; from which repreſentation they endeavour to move the compaſſion of devout pilgrims; tho' it is ſuppoſed the lands and revenues appropriated to Loretto, are much beyond what they are pleaſed to diſcover. It is true, the numerous clergy who conſtantly attend here, muſt occaſion a very great expence; there being above an hundred and twenty maſſes founded to be ſaid every day in the church and chapel, beſides caſual ones celebrated for particular perſons; for which purpoſe only they maintain near fourſcore extraordinary Chaplains; and the Madona or Saint herſelf is continually ſerved by twenty Canons, thirteen Eccleſiaſticks, called Incumbents, twelve Clerks, and other inferior officers. Sixtus V firſt made Loretto a City and Biſhoprick; and ſo great is the dignity of this place (ſay the Catholicks) ſo ſublime is its majeſty, that before all the holy places under heaven, the chapel of Loretto is to be preferred.

Oſimo.

Oſimo is a ſmall city, about fifteen miles weſt of Loretto, remarkable only for being a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Rome.

Recanati.

Recanati, the ancient *Helvia Recina*, united to the See of Loretto, is ſituated on the top of a hill, about three miles ſouth-weſt of Loretto. In the territories of this city it was that the Holy Houſe firſt reſted on its tranſportation from Dalmatia.

Macerata.

Macerata is ſituated on a hill between Loretto and Tolentino, twenty miles ſouth of Ancona. It is a Biſhop's See, united to Tolentino, ſuffragan of Fermo, and has a little Univerſity.

Fermo.

Fermo is ſituated on a riſing ground near the gulph of Venice, fifteen miles ſouth of Loretto, a large place, and made an Archbiſhoprick by Sixtus V, who had been Biſhop of this city.

Ripa, Tranſone, Montalto, Tolentino, &c.

The cities of Ripa, Tranſone, Montalto, Aſcoli, Tolentino, Camerino, and Jeſi, are all Biſhops Sees; but do not deſerve a particular deſcription.

Fabriano.

Fabriano, on the confines of the duchy of Urbino, is taken notice of for a manufactory of fine paper there.

Urbino duchy.

The duchy of Urbino, including the Republick of St. Marino, is bounded by the province of Romania, and the gulph of Venice, towards the north and eaſt; by the marquiſate of Ancona towards the ſouth; and by the duchy of Florence or Tuſcany and Perugia towards the weſt: being about ſeventy miles in length from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and of a very unequal breadth, in ſome places fifty, and in others ſcarce twenty, particularly that part of it which lies between Tuſcany and the gulph of Venice is very narrow. The chief towns are, 1. Urbino. 2. St. Angelo. 3. Urbanea. 4. Cagli. 5. Fombrone. 6. Fano. 7. San Leo. 8. Penna de Billi. 9. Gubio. 10. Senigaglia. And, 11. Peſaro.

Urbino city.

Urbino, the capital city, is ſituated on a hill near the river Foglia, about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of the gulph of Venice, and an hundred north-eaſt of Rome; a little well-peopled city, and hath ſome handſom buildings in it, particularly the Ducal Palace, Pope Urban VIII being an intimate friend of the laſt Duke's, and having, among other favours, given him an hundred thouſand ducats, ſo entirely won the Duke's heart, that he bequeathed this city, and the whole duchy belonging to it, to the See of Rome about the year 1630, and it has ever ſince been part of the Eccleſiaſtical State. In this city the famous Painter Raphael was born, from hence called Raphael Urbin. It was made an Archbiſhoprick, by Pope Pius IV, anno 1563.

Sinigaglia.

Sinigaglia, or Senegallia, ſaid to take its name from the Galli Senones, is a little pleaſant town, ſituate in a plain near the gulph of Venice, about twenty miles north-eaſt of Ancona, and has a harbour of no great conſequence.

San Leo.

San Leo is a fortreſs ſituated on a mountain fifteen miles north of Urbino, capital of the county of Montefeltro, which has its name from its mountainous ſituation.

Cita de Caſtello. Fano.

Cita de Caſtello is the capital of a county of the ſame name, ſituated about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Urbino, a little fortified town, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Rome.

Fano is ſituated on the gulph of Venice, about twenty miles to the eaſtward of Urbino, anciently called *Fanum Fortunæ*, or the Temple of Fortune, on account of a temple erected to the honour of that Goddeſs here, of which there is nothing remaining but the ruins at preſent. There is alſo here a magnificent triumphal arch, pretty much defaced, conſiſting of three arches of marble, the loftieſt that are to be met with any where, each of them, as it is ſaid, being thirty cubits high; the plan of it, with all its inſcriptions, is neatly cut upon the wall of a neighbouring building. In this, as in almoſt every other town in this part of Italy, is a beautiful marble fountain, where the water runs continually through ſeveral little ſpouts, which, my author obſerves, looks very refreſhing in this hot country, and gives a coolneſs to the air about them.

Peſaro.

Peſaro is pleaſantly ſituated alſo upon the gulph of Venice, about ten miles north-eaſt of Fano; and was the capital of a territory, governed by its own Princes till the year 1631, when it came under the dominion of the See of Rome. It is one of the largeſt and beſt-peopled towns in the Pope's dominions; and has a very good trade; the churches and houſes are for the moſt part modern and well built. Pope CLEMENT XI. who was a native of this place, built a magnificent cathedral here, whoſe Biſhop is ſuffragan to Urbino. The country about Peſaro is exceeding fruitful, and every thing extremely cheap, but the air is bad in ſummer-time.

Gubio.

Gubio is the capital of a little mountainous territory, ſituate near the foot of the Apennine, about thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Urbino, and is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of that city.

Fombrone.

Fombrone, or Foſſombrone, is ſituated about ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Urbino, and about as much to the weſtward of Fano, and is the See of a Biſhop, Suffragan of Urbino.

St. Angelo, &c.

St. Angelo, Urbanea, Cagli and Penna de Belli, are Biſhops Sees, but remarkable for little elſe; and indeed every town of Italy almoſt of the bigneſs of an Engliſh market-town is a Biſhop's See.

The republick of St. Marino.

The territories of the Republick of St. Marino are ſituated on the north part of the duchy of Urbino, near the confines of Romania. They conſiſt of one mountain, and ſome neighbouring hillocks which lie ſcattered about the bottom of it, being about three miles over, and about ten in circumference, containing one little city of the ſame name, four or five villages, eight corn-mills, and two powder-mills, in which little State there are about ſix or ſeven thouſand ſouls. There is not a ſpring or fountain, according to Mr. ADDISON, in their dominions, which defect is ſupplied by vaſt ciſterns or reſervoirs of rain-water. Their wine that grows towards the bottom of the mountain is the beſt on the north ſide of the Apennines.

St. Marino city.

The town of St. Marino ſtands on the top of the mountain, which is exceeding high and ſteep, it is generally hid among the clouds, and lay under ſnow, ſays Mr. ADDISON, when I ſaw it, though it was clear and warm weather in all the country about it. The city is walled on one ſide, and defended by a dreadful precipice on the other, on which ſtand three towers or caſtles on a line. The ſtreets are narrow, and the houſes but indifferently built: There are five churches and four convents in their limits, but not conſiderable enough to deſerve a particular deſcription. There is a ſuburb at the foot of the hill, where they have a good weekly market, and four annual fairs, in which great herds of live cattle are bought and ſold. Their principal fair is on the feaſt of St. BARTHOLOMEW, when all the natives that are fit for military ſervice are under arms, to the number of twelve or fifteen hundred. There are but two aſcents from the ſuburbs to the city, by one of which, winding about, a coach may get up to the gate; the other is very ſteep; and there is a law that none ſhall enter the town by any other paths, leſt new ones ſhould be worn on the ſides of the mountain, and foreigners find an acceſs to it. The town ſtands about nine miles ſouth of Rimini, twenty north of Urbino, and five or ſix weſt of the gulph of Venice. This little republick has continued twelve or thirteen hundred years; and was founded by St. MARINO, a hermit who retired hither, and practiſed ſuch rigours and auſterities upon himſelf, as gave the people of the neighbourhood a great opinion of his ſanctity. It being given out at length that heaven had conferred on him a power of working miracles, the Princeſs of the country gave him the mountian he had choſen to erect his hermitage upon; and his reputation ſoon drew people enough thither to people it, who formed themſelves into a republick, which has been ever ſince called by the name of their founder, whoſe ſtatue ſtands on the high altar in their principal church, which is dedicated to him. He holds a mountain in his hands, crowned with three caſtles, which is the arms of the common-wealth. They attribute to his protection the long duration of their ſtate, and eſteem him the greateſt Saint next to the bleſſed Virgin.

The ſovereign power was originally lodged in the Arengo, or great council, wherein every houſe had its repreſentative, but was afterwards devolved on the council of ſixty, or rather forty, for it conſiſts of no more at preſent, of which one half are of noble families, as they are called, and the other half plebeians, and all matters are decided in this aſſembly by ballotting. By theſe are all miniſters and officers of the common-wealth appointed, and no ſentence is executed which is not confirmed by two thirds of this council. The two principal officers of the common-wealth are ſtiled Capitaneo's, which our writers reſemble to the Roman Conſuls: theſe are elected every ſix months. The next officer is the Judge in civil and criminal matters, and becauſe of the many alliances, friendſhips and intermarriages, as well as the perſonal feuds and animoſities which muſt of neceſſity happen among ſo ſmall a people, and might obſtruct the courſe of juſtice, if one of their own number was poſſeſſed of this poſt, they always entruſt a foreigner with the adminiſtration of juſtice, who is a Doctor of law, and has a reputation for his integrity; they change him every three years. The fourth man in this petty ſtate is the Phyſician, who is alſo a foreigner, and maintained by a publick ſalary, and changed alſo every three years. A fifth officer, who makes no ſmall figure in the republick, is the ſchool-maſter, and the natives in general, it is ſaid, have ſome ſmattering of learning. They are eſteemed an honeſt well-meaning people, and according to ſome of our modern travellers, live much more happy and contented among their rocks and ſnows than any other Italians do in the moſt fruitful valleys. Nothing, ſays Mr. ADDISON, can be a greater inſtance of the naturallove mankind have for liberty, and of their averſion to an arbitrary government, than to ſee ſuch a ſavage mountain cover'd with people, when the Campania of Rome (under a Monarch) in the ſame country, is deſtitute of inhabitants. From which and many other inſtances it is evident, that Mr. ADDISON preferr'd a republican form of government to any other, and inſinuates, that no ſuch thing as liberty can be expected under a monarchy. But it is to be obſerv'd, that theſe very people lie in the midſt of the Pope's dominions, are under his protection, and ſo much in his power, that he might at any time put an end to their boaſted liberties if he ſaw fit. And after all, why people ſhould be happier under forty tyrants or governors than one, is not eaſy to be conceived. Nor does it proceed ſo much from the excellency of their conſtitution, as from the poverty of their country, and their cold uncomfortable ſituation, that they have ſo long remain'd a ſtate. The richeſt and the happieſt countries ever ſuffer the moſt frequent revolutions. It it not worth any Prince's while to make a conqueſt of a mountain eternally cover'd with ſnow, tho' 'tis very natural for people to have an eſteem and fondneſs for their native place, how miſerable ſoever. At the iſland of St. Helena, which is but twenty miles in circumference, and above five hundred from any continent, where the natives are of Britiſh extraction, and ſubject to a Governor appointed by the Eaſt-India company, who acts as deſpotically as any Prince upon earth, the natives ſeem no leſs contented than theſe are repreſented to be at St. MARINO, and will tell you that they have very little inclination to remove to any other part of the world. They repreſent that their ſmall fortunes that maintain them in neceſſaries here, would probably be ſpent before they could fix themſelves to any advantage elſewhere; that they and their families muſt run great hazards and ſuffer many hardſhips in the attempt: But what is more than all, they have ſuch a fondneſs for the ſpot of earth where they were born and bred, that they cannot think of leaving it, any more than the mountaineers of Marino can of deſcending into the rich vales about them; not on account of the mildneſs of the government, but for ſome ſuch reaſons as keep the natives of St. Helena at home. And indeed, it is no eaſy matter for poor people to leave their country with their families and fix in other places, whatever the nature of the government may be, they live under, or whatever oppreſſions or hardſhips they may ſuffer from their Governors. And that the reſt of the people of Italy are not leſs contented than thoſe of Marino, how miſerable ſoever ſome travellers may repreſent them, or they may in reality be in our opinion, appears from MOTRAYE, Vol. I. p. 74. The picture ſeveral travellers have drawn, ſays that gentleman, of the meanneſs and poverty of the Italian peaſants, render'd ſo by their rich maſters, is apt to make any one look upon them who bear the burthen to be as miſerable as thoſe who impoſe it ſeem to be happy; but as the felicity of people conſiſts chiefly in being contented with their condition, or more in believing themſelves happy than in being really ſo, they complain leſs themſelves than travellers do for them; they are born for the moſt part with their chains, (as we denominate them) which grow habitual and light by education. *They are taught to expect a true happineſs in the next world from the very ſacrifice of riches and wealth in this; from their obſervance of religion, contributions to the church, and ſubmiſſion to their ſuperiors. And being born in great plenty of all things neceſſary to life, in the midſt of ſo many ſorts of delicious wines, they are always more ſober by choice, more quiet, and better content with what is ſufficient, than thoſe of other nations, who in the midſt of riches, even to a ſuperfluity, are tyranniz'd over by the love of money, ſlaves to their ambition, never pleaſed, but always uneaſy with their maſters.* It is ſurprizing, ſays the ſame author, how much theſe people give to the church in proportion to what they have, and this very willingly, notwithſtanding what they are obliged to pay to the temporal power, of which they complain but little. The peaſant pays religiouſly tythes to his curate, and has maſſes ſaid for his health, for the fertility of his lands, and for the ſouls of his deceaſed relations; nor does he refuſe a part of his corn, wine and fruit to the Mendicant Fryars, though without making any vow of poverty, he lives poorer than they that do it. And though theſe people ſhould be deem'd to have fallen into one extreme, both in their religion and politicks, yet whether the contrary extreme, where people deny any ſubjection to the eccleſiaſtical or civil Magiſtrate, but when they act ſuitably to their own whimſies, be not the more troubleſom and dangerous of the two, will ſcarce be made a queſtion by any conſidering man. But 'tis time to proceed in the deſcription of the reſt of the Pope's dominions.

The province of Romania.

The province of Romania, or Romandiola, in which I include the Bologneſe and Ferrareſe, is bounded by the territories of Venice towards the north; by the gulph of Venice on the eaſt; by the province of Urbino and Tuſcany on the ſouth; and by Modena and Mantua towards the weſt; being about fourſcore miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and near as much in breadth from north to ſouth.

Romania proper.

Romania Proper, call'd anciently *Æmilia Regio*, and *Flaminia*, is bounded by the Ferrareſe on the north; by the gulph of Venice on the eaſt; by Urbino and Tuſcany on the ſouth; and by the Bologneſe on the weſt; and is about ſixty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and forty in breadth from north to ſouth. It is diverſified with hills, woods, arable, meadow and paſture, and abounds in corn, wine, oil, figs and other fruits: but the ſalt-pits are its principal riches. Here are alſo ſeveral good rivers, as the Savio, Santerna, Piſatello and Rubicon; the laſt of which will be remember'd as long as JULIUS CÆSAR, who by paſſing it with his army, manifeſted his deſign of ſubduing the Roman republick. This province was part of the ancient *Gallia Ciſpanada*, and ſaid to be call'd Romania from its firm adherence to the Roman Empire, and not from its being in the neighbourhood of Rome, for it lies on the oppoſite ſide of Italy, at above an hundred and forty miles diſtance from that city. The chief towns are, 1. Ravenna. 2. Cervia. 3. Rimini. 4. Sarcina. 5. Seſena. 6. Bertinora. 7. Forlimpopoli. 8. Forli. 9. Faenza. 10. Caſtel Bologneſe. And, 11. Immola.

Chief towns.

Ravenna.

Ravenna is ſituated in a flat country, three miles weſt of the Adriatick ſea; an hundred north-weſt of Ancona; and fourſcore ſouth of Venice, being encompaſs'd with two ſmall rivers. Its ancient ſituation is ſaid to have been like that of Venice, upon certain iſlands, when it was one of the beſt harbours the Romans had on this ſide; but the waters are retired above three miles from it, and theſe plains which formerly were under water, are now ſome of the moſt fruitful grounds in Italy. It was the reſidence of the Emperor HONORIUS, and of many of the Gothick Kings, and afterwards the capital of the eaſtern Emperors dominions in Italy, where their Viceroys or Exarchs held their courts from the year 568, to the year 728. It was taken by the Lombards in 752, and by PEPIN King of France, anno 756, who gave this city, with moſt of the territories belonging to the eaſtern Emperors in Italy, to the Pope; but it never ſuffer'd more than when it was ſtorm'd by the French about the year 1512, ever ſince which it has been in a declining condition. The buildings are generally mean, the magnificent churches and palaces which it anciently contain'd, are now run to ruin, its trade loſt, and the place but thinly peopled. Good water was always ſo ſcarce here, that it was preferred to wine, according to MAR. l. 5.

Sit ciſterna mihi quam vinea malo Ravennæ,
Cum poſſim multo vendere pluris aquam.

Lodg'd at Ravenna, water ſells ſo dear,
A ciſtern to a vineyard I prefer. ADDISON.

Callidus impoſuit nuper mihi caupo Ravennæ
Cum peterem mixtum vendidit ille merum. Ibid.

By a Ravenna vintner once betray'd,
So much for wine and water mix'd I paid;
But when I thought the purchas'd liquor mine,
The raſcal fobb'd me off with only wine. *Ibid.*

The place which is ſhewn for the haven is level with the town at preſent, and is ſuppoſed to have been fill'd up by ſand and dirt brought thither by the ſea; for all the ſoil on that ſide of Ravenna, it is obſerv'd, has been made by the ſea diſcharging it ſelf upon it for ages paſt. The ruins of the Pharos, or light-houſe, ſtand about three miles from the ſea, and two from the town, the foundations whereof were cover'd ſeveral yards deep. It was a ſquare tower, about twelve yards in breadth, as appears by that part of it which ſtill remains entire. Without the town, on that ſide where the ancient harbour is ſuppoſed to have been, is the Mauſolæum which Queen AMALASUNTHA erected for her father THEODORICK, King of the Oſtrogoths, who kept his court at Ravenna. This building is now converted into a little church which they call the Rotunda; the moſt remarkable thing in it is the roof, which conſiſts of one large ſtone, hollow'd almoſt into the form of a cupola, with a round hole to let in the light. Mr. MISSON ſays, he meaſured this ſtone, and that it was thirty-eight feet in diameter, and fifteen in thickneſs; but I ſuppoſe he means that the cavity or cupola was fifteen feet deep, for Mr. ADDISON ſays, the ſtone is but four feet thick, ſo uncertain are the accounts we receive ſometimes from thoſe who pretend they have been eye-witneſſes. On the out-ſide of this little cupola was placed the porphyry tomb of THEODORICK above-mention'd, ſurrounded by the ſtatues of the twelve apoſtles, but it was broken in pieces by a cannon-ball when Lewis XII beſieg'd it. The ſame ſhot, 'tis ſuppoſed, made a flaw in the cupola; though, according to the tradition of the place, it was crack'd by thunder. The cathedral is an ancient fabrick, the nave whereof is ſupported by fifty-ſix pillars of Grecian marble, which form a double row on each ſide of it, and the roof of the choir is inlaid with fine Moſaick work. Another curoiſity in this church is the great door, which is made of the planks of vines, ſome of them twelve feet in length, and five in breadth. The ſoil which has been made by the ſea is ſo agreeable to vines, that they grow to an incredible ſize here. In the church of the Theatins, travellers are ſhewn a little window over the high altar, with the figure of a white pigeon in the middle of it, which was placed there as a memorial, that after the death of St. APOLLINARIUS, the firſt Biſhop of Ravenna, the Prieſts being aſſembled to chuſe a ſucceſſor, the Holy Ghoſt in form of a dove (as they ſay) came in at this window, and ſat upon the head of him who was to be elected; and that the ſame thing happen'd afterwards at eleven elections ſucceſſively. In the churches of St. VITALIS, St. APOLLINARIUS, St. ROMOALDUS, and St. ANDREW, are ſome very fine pieces of marble and porphyry, ſuppoſed to be brought from Greece during the time of the exarchate. In the church of St. CELSUS is a noble tomb of GALLA PLACIDIA, ſiſter to the Emperors ARCADIUS and HONORIUS; and in the great ſquare a fine brazen ſtatue of Pope ALEXANDER VII. Upon two columns in the ſame ſquare were ſet the patron and arms of Venice formerly, when Ravenna was in the poſſeſſion of that ſtate; but the Pope has ſince placed the ſtatues of St. VICTOR and APOLLINARIS, the patrons of Ravenna, on the ſame pillars. This city is the See of an Archbiſhop, but is neither conſiderable for its bulk or fortifications at preſent.

Rimini.

Rimini, the ancient *Ariminum*, ſtands in a plain near the coaſt of the Adriatick Sea, at the mouth of the river Ariminus, about four and twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Ravenna, and twenty north-weſt of Peſaro. Between Ravenna and Rimini runs the famous river Rubicon, which ſome take to be the modern *Piſatello*, and others another ſmall ſtream near it; but however that be, the Rubicon was the boundary between Gaul and Italy, and it was made treaſon either for the Roman officers or ſoldiers to paſs this river in their military habits. This it was that made JULIUS CÆSAR halt here for ſome time in his march towards Rome, but having weigh'd the conſequence, he cried out at length, EATVR QVO DEORVM OSTENTA, ET INIMICORVM INIQVITAS VOCAT: IACTA EST ALEA.

Jam gelidas Cæſar curſu ſuperaverat Alpes
Ingenteſque animo motus, bellumque futurum
Cæperat ut ventum eſt parvi Rubiconis ad undas.
LUCAN.

This river, ſays Mr. ADDISON, who takes it to be the modern Piſatello, is not ſo very contemptible as it is generally repreſented, and was much encreaſed by the melting of the ſnows when Cæſar paſs'd it, according to the ſame Poet:

Fonte cadit modico parviſque impellitur undis
Puniceus Rubicon, cum fervida conduit æſtas,
Perque imas ſerpet valles, & Gallica certus
Limes ab auſonis diſterminat arva colonis.
Tunc vires præbebat hyems atque auxerat undas,
Tertia jam gravida pluvialis Cynthia cornu,
Et madidis Euri reſolutæ flatibus Alpes. LUCAN.

While ſummer laſts the ſtreams of Rubicon
From their ſpent ſource in a ſmall current run,
Hid in the winding vales they gently glide,
And Italy from neighbouring Gaul divide.
But now with winter ſtorms increas'd they roſe,
By wat'ry moons produc'd and Alpine ſnows,

That melting on the hoary mountains lay,
And in warm eaſtern winds diſſolv'd away.

Addison.

Rimini is in a declining condition at preſent, having neither trade nor harbour, for both which it was conſiderable anciently; but the ſea is retired a mile from it, and, according to Mr. Addison, it has nothing modern to boaſt of. The antiquities are, 1. A marble bridge of five arches, built by Augustus, as appears by the inſcription, viz. *Cæſar. Divi F. Auguſtus Pontifex Maxim. Coſ.* 14. *Imp.* XX. *Tribunitiæ poteſtat.* XXVII. *p. p.* On the other ſide, *Ti. Cæſar Divi Auguſti F. Divi Juli N. Auguſt. Pontif. Maxim. Coſ.* 4. *Imp.* 8. *Trib. poteſt.* 17 *Dedere.* 2. A triumphal arch erected by Augustus, which makes a noble gate to the town; on which is the following inſcription, viz. *Coſ. ſept. Deſignat. Octavum* V *Celeberrimis Italiæ Viris Conſilio Senatus pop. Ta. CS. US. Nileis.* Here are alſo the ruins of an amphitheatre, and they pretend to ſhew the Suggeſtum on which Julius Cæsar ſtood when he harangued his officers after he had paſſed the Rubicon. Rimini is a Biſhop's See ſuffragan to Ravenna.

Cervia. Cervia, the ancient *Phyocle*, ſtands in a moraſs near the ſea, about ten miles to the ſouthward of Ravenna; conſiderable on account of the ſalt-pits about it; and for its being a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Ravenna: but is not very well peopled, on account of the badneſs of the air.

Faenza. Faenza is ſituated on the river Amone, about twenty miles weſt of Ravenna, a little neat town, and a Biſhop's See ſuffragan to Ravenna, moſt conſiderable on account of its manufacture of earthen ware.

Sarcina, Forli, &c. Sarcina, Bertinoro, Forlimpopoli, Forli and Imola, are only remarkable as they are the Sees of ſo many Biſhops.

The province of Bologna. The province of Bologna, or the Bologneſe, is bounded by the Ferrareſe on the north; by Romania proper on the eaſt; by Tuſcany on the ſouth; and by the Modeneſe on the weſt; being about forty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and five and twenty in breadth from north to ſouth; and is watered by the rivers Reno, Saveno and Quadraco: being a fruitful country, abounding in corn, wine, oil, flax and fruits. It was anciently part of Lombardy, and afterwards of the exarchate of Ravenna, and given to the Pope by King Pepin and Charlemain. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Bologna. 2. Budri. 3. Bentivoglio. 4. Fort Urbin. And, 5. Caſtel-Franco.

Bologna city. Bologna, or Bolonia, in Latin *Bononia*, and anciently *Felſina*, is uſually ſurnamed the *Fat*, from its ſtanding in one of the moſt fruitful plains in Italy. It is ſituated upon ſeveral little rivulets and a navigable canal, by which it has a communication with Ferrara, and a branch of the Po; lying about ſeven or eight miles to the northward of the Apennines, which in the way from Florence ſink gradually into little mounts or eminences till we arrive at the plain in which Bologna ſtands. This city is about ſixty miles north-weſt of Florence, and ſomething more than two hundred north-weſt of Rome, thirty ſouth-weſt of Ferrara, and an hundred and thirty ſouth-eaſt of Milan. The country between Florence and Bologna is as barren as the country on the ſide of Lombardy is fruitful, being one continued chain of the Apennine mountains, over which the road would be intolerable if the Italians did not take more care of their highways than any nation in Europe, in which they imitate their anceſtors the old Romans; but this road is ſtill ſo incommodious for wheel-carriages, that thoſe who travel between Bologna and Florence chuſe either litters or mules to ride on, rather than calaſhes in which they travel in the plain country. Bologna is of a round figure, about five or ſix miles in circumference, ſurrounded with a ſingle wall of very little ſtrength; for it is ſaid, when they put themſelves under the Pope's protection about the year 1278, they ſtipulated particularly againſt citadels and fortifications, leſt they ſhould be uſed as a conquered people; and the Popes have religiouſly obſerved this part of the treaty to this day. The town is remarkable for its magnificent monaſteries and churches, and the riches and fine paintings in them. The ſtreets are tolerably wide, and have piazza's on each ſide: the private houſes are not lofty, or comparable to thoſe of Venice or Genoa, but are handſom and convenient enough; they are either built of ſtone or brick plaſtered over in imitation of ſtone. They have ſeveral fine ſquares with noble fountains in them; and all manner of proviſions are extremely plentiful; but what they are moſt remarkable for are their hams and ſauſages, in which moſt towns in Europe endeavour to imitate them. The wealth of Bologna, ſays Dr. Burnet, appears in every corner of the town; there are many noble palaces all over it, and the churches and convents are incredibly rich. The inhabitants are computed to amount to ſeventy thouſand ſouls. The place is much colder in winter than thoſe towns to the ſouthward of the Apennines, which, Mr. Addison ſuppoſes, is the reaſon that their wines are not ſo good; ſo ſweet I ſuppoſe he means, for they have excellent white wine, and they do not lie ſo cold as France and ſome other countries, where we meet with the beſt of wines; and, according to Misson, the heats are almoſt as troubleſom here in the ſummer, as they are to the ſouthward, accordingly they uſe ice with their wine, and all manner of cooling liquors; the men alſo have fans as well as the women all over the country, and little machines at table to drive off the flies. Here Misson takes an opportunity to acquaint us, that they drive away the flies from the Pope's face (when he is carried in publick on men's ſhoulders, ſeated in a chair of ſtate) in hot weather with an engine, called *Muſcaria Pavonina*, being a kind of open fan, made with the feathers of a peacock, and faſtened to the end of a gilt ſtaff about ſix foot long, and adorned with ſeveral toys; two officers on each ſide hold theſe implements near his face to drive away the flies; they ſerve alſo inſtead of a fan, producing with a little motion a gentle gale of wind. But however this may be looked upon as an extravagant piece of ſtate in Europe, it is no more than every gentleman and tradeſman in the Eaſt-Indies has whenever he goes abroad; the Eaſt-India company's factors have their men to run by them and beat off the flies as they travel, and others with umbrellas to ſcreen them from the ſun; as Misson obſerves the Pope alſo has, upbraiding him that St. Peter, whom he pretends to ſucceed, was never thus attended. But to return to Bologna, their trade conſiſts chiefly in ſilks and velvets, in which manufactures, and thoſe of flax and hemp, it is ſaid, there are not leſs than four hundred mills employed to put the machines in motion with which they are wrought. One of theſe kinds of mills, I am informed, is erected on a ſtream at Derby, which ſaves abundance of hands, and were they more general in England, our ſilks might be afforded much cheaper: the Italians, French and Dutch underwork us more by the machines they employ, than by their frugal living. Bologna is alſo moſt famous for its ſoap, ſnuff and perfumes; but there is one ſpecies of goods almoſt peculiar to this town, and that is Lap-dogs for Ladies, which it ſeems are very ſmall, and ſold at an exceſſive price here. One of theſe was preſented to ſome of the Biſhop of Rocheſter's family by the Chevalier's people, as it is ſaid, and was an evidence of the Biſhop's correſpondence with that court. There is another thing almoſt peculiar to Bologna, and that is their boiling their wines, which I preſume is in order to make them keep, for ſome of their wines grow ſour as ſoon as ſmall cyder: but I muſt not forget their olives, which are excellent in their kind, and bought up as much as their white wine. I proceed now to be a little more particular in the deſcription of the publick buildings in Bologna: To take a full proſpect of the town, ſays my author, you muſt go a little out of it, to the convent of St. MICHAEL in Boſco, which ſtands upon a neighbouring hill, and is itſelf one of the moſt magnificent monaſteries in Italy: there are few ſovereign Princes whoſe Palaces are near ſo beautiful, nor are the monaſteries of the Dominicans, and that of St. SAVIOUR inferior to this. In the church of the Dominicans is a glorious monument of St. DOMINICK their founder, of fine alabaſter, beautified with baſs-reliefs, containing the hiſtory of his life; and the picture of St. DOMINICK over the tomb, is an exquiſite piece done by the famous GUIDO RHENI; but as for the inlaid work of the choir, ſo much admired by travellers, MISSON obſerves, that the modern performances of that kind are much better done, now they have found out the art of imprinting natural colours on wood. The church of St. PETRONIUS is the largeſt in the city, in which the moſt remarkable thing is CASSINI's meridian line, which is drawn on a copper-plate, ſet in the pavement two hundred and twenty two foot long; directly over the noon-point of this line is a little hole in the arched roof of the nave, at which a ray of the ſun enters, and marks the ſolſtices and equinoxes upon the line. At the Church of Corpus Domini they ſhew an embalmed body, which is black and dry like a mummy, and pretend that it is the body of a deceaſed Nun, called KATHERINE DE VIGRI, who died about the year 1463, which frequently works miracles; ſhe ſits in a chair clothed in a Nun's habit, a crown of gold on her head, rings on her fingers, a crucifix in her right hand, and a book of her own compoſing in her left; her hair and nails, as her votaries pretend, grow as when ſhe was alive, and are often cut: Mr. MISSON ſays, ſhe is a diſmal ſpectacle, and cannot be looked upon without horrour. At the church of St. SALVATOR, amongſt abundance of exquiſite paintings, the beſt are an aſſumption and a picture of our Saviour. At St. GIOVANNI del Monte is an admirable picture of St. CECILIA, a maſter-piece of the divine RAPHAEL, as he is called, and eſteemed one of the greateſt treaſures of the city. The church of the Mendicants alſo abounds in fine paintings, the principal and moſt beautiful pieces are the calling of St. MATTHEW, a dead Chriſt, and the re-eſtabliſhment of JOB's fortunes. The Religious of this city have a profound veneration for an image of our Lady, which, according to tradition, was drawn by St. LUKE, and go in proceſſion annually five miles out of town to the mount La Guardia to bring her hither; and they are making a kind of piazza, or covered way, from the city to the mount, that they may never be interrupted in their proceſſion by the weather. When they have brought this image of our Lady into the city, they carry it about with all imaginable pomp: all the companies in the corporation, the fraternities, convents, pariſhes, Magiſtrates, Gonfalonier, and the Pope's Legate, all aſſiſt at the ſolemnity; and as the Madona paſſes by, who is carried under a rich canopy, the ſpectators fall upon their knees, and expreſs the utmoſt devotion. As to the palaces of Bologna, that of General CAPRARA is eſteemed the fineſt in the city, where are ſhewn abundance of rich plunder which he took from the Turks. In the palace of the State, or the Pope's palace, in which are abundance of noble apartments richly furniſhed, the Cardinal Legate has one, and the Gonfalonier another; the counſellors of State alſo have their ſeveral apartments here. Over the gate is a brazen ſtatue of Pope GREGORY XIII, which weighs eleven thouſand pound, and is in great eſteem for the workmanſhip; but the greateſt curioſity in this palace is the cabinet of ULYSSES ALDROVANDUS, the prodigy of his time. It contains a multitude of natural and artificial curioſities, with two or three hundred great manuſcripts of his own writing, fifteen of which are filled with the figures of beaſts, birds, fiſhes and plants, all illuſtrated with their proper colours: and though one would imagine he had done nothing but write all his lifetime; his works ſufficiently teſtify his great reading, profound ſcience, and an immenſe progreſs both in ancient and in modern learning; which ſhews what may be done where a great genius and an indefatigable induſtry meet in the ſame perſon.

The Univerſity here is reckoned one of the beſt in Europe. It was founded by the Emperor THEODOSIUS in the year 425, and augmented by CHARLEMAIN and LOTHARIUS the French Emperors. The ſtudy of law is in the greateſt reputation here. The learned Azo was a member of this Univerſity, whom they ſtile the light of Bologna, and oracle of the canon and civil law, in whoſe time the number of ſtudents amounted to ten thouſand. The famous BARTOLUS commenced Doctor here, and taught publickly in this Univerſity. Here alſo ACCURSIUS compoſed the Gloſſa, Pope GREGORY IX and BONIFACE VIII their Decretalia, and JOHN XXIII, the Clementinæ. The publick ſchool is a magnificent ſtructure, and has a noble portico before it, ſupported by a great number of marble pillars; the rooms and galleries within being adorned with admirable ſtatues and paintings. Among the ſtatues the moſt remarkable are thoſe of ÆSCULAPIUS, APOLLO, and the famous phyſician and ſurgeon GABRIEL TAGLIACOZZO, or TALIACOTIUS, who had an art, as it is ſaid, of ſupplying people with artificial noſes, lips, ears, and other members where their own happened to be mutilated or defaced, out of living human fleſh; to which purpoſe he publiſhed his *Chirurgia Curtorum*, where he relates a ſtory of a certain gentleman who loſt his noſe, and had it ſupplied by him with a piece of fleſh cut from another man's back-ſide, and ſo artificially ſhaped and joined, that every body took it to be natural, till unluckily the fellow whom it was taken from happened to die, and then the gentleman's noſe rotted off by ſympathy, according to the ingenious Butler, author of Hudibras.

—Learned Taliacotius from
The brawny part of porter bum
Cut ſupplemental noſes, which
Would laſt as long as parent breech;
But when the date of nock was out,
Off dropt the ſympathetick ſnout.

The two towers of Aſinelli and Gariſendi, ſo named from their reſpective founders, are looked upon as great curioſities by travellers who viſit this place; the former is 376 feet in height, and the latter 130. The leaning poſition of that of Gariſendi, which bends like the tower of Piſa, is thought by ſome to have been ſo erected to ſhew the dexterity of the architect; but is more likely to have been diſordered by ſome earthquake, or the ſinking of one ſide of the foundation. Bologna is the See of an Archbiſhop, and eſteemed the ſecond city in the Pope's dominions, equal, if not ſuperior to Florence in its riches, trade, and dimenſions. It threw it ſelf under the protection of the Pope about the year 1278, and procured very advantageous terms, which have not been infringed to this day; to which the flouriſhing of this city beyond any other in the Pope's territories is aſcribed. They are allowed to appoint an Auditor of the Rota (the great Court which receives appeals from inferior Courts at Rome) and to have an Ambaſſador there to take care of their privileges: Civil cauſes are determined by the Magiſtrates of the city, and criminal by Judges of the Pope's appointing; but then their eſtates are not liable to be confiſcated to the government for any offences whatever. As to the reſt, the Pope's Legate is his Viceroy here, as in other provinces of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. The curioſities that pleaſed Mr. Addison moſt when he viſited Bologna, he ſays, were an authentick ſilver medal of the young Brutus, in the hands of an eminent antiquary there; wherein he imagined he could ſee the character of the perſon in the features of the face, it was ſo exquiſitely cut. On the reverſe is the cap of Liberty, with a dagger on each ſide of it, ſubſcribed, *Id. Mar.* for the Ides of March, the memorable date of Cæsar's murder. The next was the picture of St. Cecilia, already mentioned, in which he ſays there is ſomething wonderfully divine. The third thing he admired was a ſtair-caſe, where the eaſineſs of the aſcent within a ſmall compaſs, the diſpoſition of the lights, and the convenient landing-places are admirably contrived. And there is ſcarce a traveller but mentions the ſhining ſtones found about three miles from the city in the hill Paderni, which go by the name of Bologna Stones; but theſe, I find, after they have been taken ſome time out of the earth, loſe their ſhining quality. The reſt of the towns of Bologna do not merit a particular deſcription.

The Ferrareſe.

The third ſubdiviſion of Romania is the Ferrareſe, bounded by the Venetian territories on the north; by the gulph of Venice on the eaſt; by Romania Proper and the Bologneſe on the ſouth; and by the duchies of Modena and Mantua towards the weſt; being near ſeventy miles in length from eaſt to weſt, but of a very unequal breadth, towards the gulph of Venice fifty, and in others ſcarce fifteen miles over. The country produces corn, flax and hemp, except that part of it next the ſea, which is a perfect bog, and very unhealthful. This was part of the exarchate of Ravenna, and about the tenth century conferred on the Marquis of Este by the Emperor Otho, and by an heireſs of that family was given to the See of Rome about the year 1077. The Lords of a ſecond branch of the family of Este held it as Vicars to the Pope, till the time of Pope Paul II, who transferred it to Nicholas Borso, another branch of the houſe of Este, and made him Duke of Ferrara; whoſe poſterity failing about the year 1597, the Pope re-united it to the eccleſiaſtical State, but gave Modena and Reggio to Cæsar de Este, who alſo claimed a right to the Ferrareſe, but wanted power to ſupport his pretenſions. The chief towns are, 1. Ferrara. 2. Francolino. 3. Buendino. 4. Cento. And, 5. Comachio.

Chief towns.

Ferrara city.

The city of Ferrara ſtands in a plain, on a branch of the Po, called *Po Morto*, about four miles diſtant from the main ſtream, with which it has a communication by a navigable canal, and is about fourſcore miles ſouth-weſt of Venice, and fifty north-weſt of Ravenna, being four or five miles in circumference. It has a citadel, and ſomething like a fortification (in the phraſe of my author) round it; but the town is ſo large, that it would require more ſoldiers to defend it than the Pope has in his dominions. The ſtreets are as beautiful as can be ſeen, as to their length, breadth, and regularity, but it is very thinly peopled, and can neither boaſt of its wealth or trade: formerly it was eminent for both. When Dr. Burnet travelled through it, he tells us it was almoſt deſerted; that there were whole ſides of ſtreets without inhabitants; that the poverty of the place appeared ſignally in their churches, which were mean and poorly adorned; for the ſuperſtition of Italy is ſo *ravenous*, ſays that reverend author, and makes ſuch a progreſs in this age, that one may juſtly take the meaſures of the wealth of any place from their churches: and yet the ſame writer tells us in other parts of his travels, that "Italy is in general exceeding poor, tho' " their churches are vaſtly rich;" ſo conſiſtent is he with himſelf. As to the miſerable poverty of Ferrara, he is indeed ſupported by the concurrent relations of every perſon who writes of the ſtate of Italy, and therefore we have no reaſon to doubt the fact. I could not, ſays the ſame reverend writer, but aſk all I ſaw, how it came to paſs that ſo rich a ſoil was ſo ſtrangely abandoned? Some ſaid the air was become ſo unhealthy, that thoſe who ſtay in it are very ſhort-lived: but it is well known, that fourſcore years ago it was well peopled, and the ill air is occaſioned by the want of inhabitants; for there not being people to drain the ground, and to keep the ditches clean, this occaſions a great deal of water to lie on the ground and rot, which infects the air in the ſame manner as is obſerved in that vaſt and rich, but uninhabited Champaign of Rome; ſo that the ill air is the Effect, rather than the Cauſe, of diſpeopling the Pope's dominions. "The true " cauſe, (according to this author) is the ſeverity " of the government, and the heavy taxes and " frequent confiſcations;" by which the nephews of ſeveral Popes, as they have devoured many of the families of Ferrara, ſo they have driven away many more. As I came down one of the branches of the Po from the Ferrara, ſays Mr. Addison, all the fields lay miſerably incultivated till I came near Ravenna, where the ſoil is made extremely fruitful, and ſhews what the other might be, were there hands enough to manage it to the beſt advantage. From whence it appears, that there are ſome places in the Pope's territories in a flouriſhing condition, though others are thus wretchedly deſerted. And though I do not doubt but *heavy taxes and a deſpotick government* contribute in a great meaſure to the impoveriſhing any place, yet there ſeems to remain ſome other hidden cauſes to be aſſigned, why theſe oppreſſions ſhould have had a worſe effect on the Ferrareſe, than on any other province in the Pope's dominions. Trade once in an hundred years receives very great alterations in other countries as well as this; a city dwindles to a village, and a village improves into a city under the mildeſt adminiſtrations. The conveniency or inconveniency of land or water-carriage, the incouraging or diſcouraging a manufacture, and ten thouſand accidents may advance and ruin trade, and conſequently people or depopulate a place, beſides the tyranny of the government: and yet I find our travellers in general agree, not to aſſign any other reaſon for the decay of any one Italian city, but the oppreſſions of the government. Should foreigners viſit Sandwich, Rye, Winchelſea, and many of our inland as well as maritime corporations, and immediately conclude we were under a *Tyrannical Adminiſtration*, becauſe theſe places are now in a miſerable ruinous condition, which formerly made a figure in the world; ſhould we not with reaſon look upon it as an ill-natured ſuggeſtion, and to be founded in ignorance as well as prejudice? And the ſame reflections no doubt the Italians frequently make on our unthinking voyage-writers. When Rome was empreſs of the world, and the Princes and great men of every nation had a dependance on her, no wonder that Italy was crouded with inhabitants, when Italy was almoſt the only country in Europe that had a manufacture of ſilk: And when the Venetians, Genoeſe, and other Italian ſtates only furniſhed the reſt of Europe with the rich productions of the Eaſt, with the merchandize of China, India and Turkey; it is no wonder if their country abounded more in wealth and inhabitants, that it was better drained and cultivated than it is at preſent. Nay, before the reformation, when all the Chriſtian Princes of Europe, their clergy, and the reſt of their ſubjects were on many occaſions obliged to appeal to Rome, and to reſort thither for a determination of their differences, and on many other occaſions; it is very natural to ſuppoſe the eccleſiaſtical ſtate was in a better condition than it is now, when the Proteſtants have all withdrawn their contributions and attendance; and thoſe of the ſame communion are grown much cooler in their devotion than they were in thoſe days of darkneſs. Theſe are ſome of the reaſons that occurred to me as the occaſion of the decay of the Italian cities and ſtates, beſides the ſeverity of their reſpective governments, when I was conſidering the miſerable condition of the Ferrareſe: this might have happened to them, let the adminiſtration of their reſpective governments have been never ſo mild. But to return to the deſcription of this city: Their churches and palaces are not yet ſo deſpicable but they would make a figure out of Italy, though, it is true, they were miſerably ſhattered by an earthquake which happened in the year 1570. The palace of the ancient Dukes, where the Pope's Legate keeps his court, is a ſtately old fabrick, to which belongs a good library, adorned with ſtatues, painting, medals, and other antiquities, after the manner of Italy. The Domo, or Cathedral, ſays my author, is rather venerable than beautiful: in the piazza before it ſtands the ſtatue of Pope Alexander VII, and two others, which repreſent two Princes of the family D'Este, one on horſeback, and the other in a ſitting poſture. In the church of St. Benedict is a monument erected to the memory of that celebrated Poet Ariosto, who like his brethren wanted neceſſaries in his life-time. The Carmelites church is famous for its exquiſite paintings. The Univerſity of this place, which was founded about the year 1390, is dwindled to one college of Jeſuits; but they have a philoſophical academy here, as in other Italian cities, who ſtile themſelves *Elevati*. Ferrara is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Rome.

Comachio.

Comachio is a little city in the middle of a moraſs, called the valley of Comachio, a town of ſome ſtrength on account of its watery ſituation, and lies about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Ferrara, near the coaſt of the Adriatick Sea, in a very unhealthful air. This town the Imperialiſts took poſſeſſion of in the laſt war, and held for many years, as well to facilitate the march of their troops to and from the kingdom of Naples, as to compel the Pope to grant the inveſtiture of the Spaniſh dominions to King Charles III, the preſent Emperor, but they have yielded it up to his Holineſs again. It is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Ravenna, from whence it is about thirty miles diſtant. The reſt of the towns of the Ferrareſe are not very conſiderable. The deſcription of ſuch of the Pope's territories as lie in Naples, Tuſcany, France, or any other foreign State, will be met with in the reſpective countries where they are ſituated. I proceed now to enquire into the State of the kingdom of Naples.

The Kingdom of NAPLES.

CHAP. XXV.

Treats of the ſituation and extent of the kingdom of Naples; the air, ſeas, ports, lakes, rivers and mountains; and enquires into the genius aud temper of the natives; and the ſeveral provinces it is divided into.

CHAP. XXV. Kingdom of Naples.

The ſituation and extent.

THE kingdom of Naples is the ſouth-eaſt part of Italy, which being very properly reſembled to a leg, Naples makes all that part of the leg and foot which is below the calf, and is a peninſula, bounded by the Adriatick ſea, or gulph of Venice on the north-eaſt; by the Ionian ſea on the ſouth-eaſt; by the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt; and by the lands of the church, or the Pope's dominions on the north-weſt; extending two hundred and forty miles in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt; an hundred and ſixty in breadth in the broadeſt place, and eighty about the inſtep, or the narroweſt part of it.

The air.

If we conſider the ſoutherly ſituation of this country, we muſt conclude it to be exceſſive hot;

and ſo indeed it is in many of their valleys, but as the Apennine mountains run the whole length of it, from whence there fall innumerable cooling ſtreams, and it is well watered with lakes, and as the ſea almoſt ſurrounds it, from whence they ſeldom want refreſhing breezes, the air is exceeding healthful and pleaſant, and more pure and ſerene than in any of our northern countries which lie near the Ocean.

Seas.

Ports.

Their ſeas, as I have intimated already, are the Adriatick, the Ionian, and the Tuſcan ſea: on which their principal ports are thoſe of Naples, Baya, Maremonto, Gaeta, Trani, Brindiſi, and Tarento.

Lakes.

The moſt conſiderable lakes are Agnano, Averno, Lucrino, Patria, Leſina, Varano, Focino, Andronico, Anſanto, Vignola, Perito, and Baccino.

Rivers.

Their chief rivers, the Volturno, Garigliano, Tronto, Piſcara, Sangro, Tortore, Candeloro, Ufente, Vaſento, Acriſino, Sarno, and Riofredo; beſides which, they reckon up an hundred and forty more: but it is true, as their courſe is ſhort and ſteep, falling chiefly from the Apennine into one or other of the ſeas above-mentioned, which are not far diſtant from their ſource, ſcarce any of them are navigable, though they enrich the ſoil prodigiouſly in this warm climate, and produce an inconceivable abundance of the moſt delicious fruits and wines, ſcarce equalled in this reſpect by any country in the known world, being ſtiled the garden of Italy, as that is of Europe.

Soil.

Mountains.

The principal mountains are thoſe of the Apennine, Veſuvius, Pauſilippo, and Falerno.

Genius and temper of the natives.

As to the character of the Neapolitans, it differs but little from that of their neighbours, except it be that they are charged with being more lazy, more inclined to venereal pleaſures, and more given to change their maſters than any other State in Italy; and they have actually changed them very often: but this may be aſcribed rather to the amiableneſs of their ſituation, and the fertility of the ſoil, which invites the neighbouring powers to contend for it, than to the fickleneſs or diſcontents of the people. It is an infallible ſign that it is worth the conqueſt, becauſe it has been ſo often conquered; and it is very reaſonable alſo to believe, that where people live in ſo agreeable a ſoil and climate, they will naturally be diſſolved in pleaſures, and conſequently ſeldom be in a condition to defend themſelves againſt a foreign force, and on that account are apt to become a prey to every invader. Mr. Addison, and ſome other travellers alſo relate, that this people are of a litigious temper: it is incredible, ſays that gentleman, how great a multitude of retainers to the law there are at Naples. It is ſaid that when Innocent XI had deſired the Marquis of Carpio to furniſh him with thirty thouſand head of ſwine; the Marquis anſwered him, that for his ſwine he could not ſpare them, but if his Holineſs had occaſion for thirty thouſand lawyers, he had them at his ſervice. Theſe gentlemen find continual employment for the fiery temper of the Neapolitans, and prevent their uniting into ſuch common friendſhips and alliances as are obſerved in other places. There are very few perſons of conſideration who have not a cauſe depending: for when a Neapolitan Cavalier, ſays my author, has nothing elſe to do, he gravely ſhuts himſelf up in his cloſet and falls a tumbling over his papers to ſee if he can ſtart a law-ſuit, and plague any of his neighbours. Which is very different from the character of the natives anciently, according to the Poet,

Nulla foro rabies aut ſtrictæ jurgia legis,
Morum jura viris ſolum & ſine faſcibus æquum.
Sil. L. 3.

Rendered into Engliſh thus by Mr. Addison,

By love of right and native juſtice led,
In the ſtrait paths of equity they tread;
Nor know the bar, nor fear the judge's frown,
Unpractis'd in the wranglings of the gown.

But the inhabitants of Naples, as that gentleman truly obſerves, have been always remarkable for leading a life of lazineſs and pleaſure; which he conceives ariſes partly out of the wonderful plenty of their country, that does not make labour ſo neceſſary to them; and partly out of the temper of the climate, that relaxes the fibres of their bodies, and diſpoſes the people to ſuch an idle and indolent humour,

——*Et in otia natam*
Parthenopen—— . Ovid. Met. L. 15.
Otioſa Neapolis——— Hor. Ep. 5.

Parthenope, for idle hours deſign'd,
To luxury and eaſe unbends the mind.

Another paſſage out of Silius the ſame author renders into Engliſh thus,

Here wanton Naples crowns the happy ſhore,
Nor vainly rich, nor deſpicably poor;
The town in ſoft ſolemnities delights,
And gentle Poets to her arms invites.
The people free from cares, ſerene and gay,
Paſs all their mild untroubled hours away.
Parthenope the riſing city nam'd,
A Siren for her ſongs and beauty fam'd,
That oft had drown'd among the neighb'ring ſeas,
The liſtning wretch, and made deſtruction pleaſe.

Grand diviſion of Naples.

Subdiviſion.

The kingdom of Naples is uſually divided into four large portions, viz. 1. The Terra di Lavoro. 2. Abruzzo. 3. Apuglia. And, 4. Calabria.

1. The Terra di Lavoro is ſubdivided into, 1. The Terra di Lavoro Proper. 2. The Principato Citerior. And, 3. The Principato Ulterior.

2. The Abruzzo is ſubdivided into, 1. The Abruzzo Citerior. 2. The Abruzzo Ulterior. And, 3. The county of Moliſa.

3. Apuglia is ſubdivided into, 1. Apuglia Capitinata. 2. The Terra de Barri. And, 3. The Terra di Otranto.

4. Calabria is ſubdivided into, 1. The Baſilicate. 2. Calabria Citerior. And, 3. Calabria Ulterior. And theſe I ſhall endeavour to deſcribe in their order.

CHAP. XXVI.

Treats of the firſt grand diviſion, the Terra di Lavoro, with the ſubdiviſions or provinces comprehended in it, and their reſpective chief towns; and particularly of the city of Naples, the capital of the kingdom.

CHAP. XXVI.

The Terra di Lavoro.

THE Terra di Lavoro, the firſt grand diviſion, ſtretches itſelf along the coaſt of Tuſcany from the Campania of Rome to Calabria, being about an hundred and forty miles in length, and five and thirty in breadth.

Lavoro Proper.

Lavoro Proper is bounded by Abruzzo and the Campania of Rome on the north; by the county of Moliſa and the Principato Ulterior towards the eaſt; by the Principato Citerior towards the ſouth; and by the Tuſcan ſea, or ſea of Naples, towards the ſouth-weſt; extending about ſeventy miles in length. The chief towns whereof are,

Chief towns.

1. Naples, the capital. 2. Puzzoli. 3. Baia. 4. Cuma. 5. Procita. 6. Iſchia. 7. Carniola. 8. Seſſa. 9. Mola. 10. Gaeta. 11. Itri. 12. Fondi. 13. Aquino. 14. Arce. 15. Sora. 16. Arpino. 17. Monte Caſſino. 18. St. Germano. 19. La Cervara. 20. Venafro. 21. Prezenzano. 22. Tiano. 23. Aliſi. 24. Cerrito. 25. Cajazze. 26. Calvi. 27. Capua. 28. St. Mary. 29. Caſerta. 30. Matalon. 31. Averſa. 32. Acerra. 33. Nola. 34 Avella. 35. Caſtella Mare de Strabia. 36. Vico. 37. Sorento. 38. Maſſa. And, 39. Capri.

Naples city.

The city of Naples, Neapolis, the ancient Parthenope, was ſo named, according to tradition, from Parthenope, a ſea nymph or ſiren, whoſe charms Ulysses and company very narrowly eſcaped. The name of Neapolis was given it by Augustus, according to ſome; while others hold that the Greeks, who rebuilt and beautified it, called it Neapolis. But theſe are trifles not worth ſearching after; and therefore I proceed to the deſcription of the city it ſelf, leaving people of more leiſure to contend about the name.

Naples is ſituated on the declivity of a hill, and on one of the fineſt bays that ever the ſea formed. The bay is of a circular figure, about thirty miles in diameter, three parts of it ſheltered with a noble circuit of woods and mountains; the iſland Capræa ſtanding as a vaſt mole, which ſeems to have been planted there on purpoſe to break the violence of the waves that run into the bay, and ſtretches it ſelf in a line almoſt parallel to Naples. This bay was called the Crater by ancient Philoſophers, which Mr. Addiſon thinks might proceed from its reſemblance to a round bowl half filled with liquor; and that Virgil, who compoſed great part of his Æneids here, took his firſt plan of the beautiful harbour deſcribed in the firſt book from hence, which deſcription Mr. Dryden thus renders into Engliſh:

Within a long receſs there lies a bay,
An iſland ſhades it from the rolling ſea,
And forms a port ſecure for ſhips to ride,
Broke by the jetting land on either ſide,
In double ſtreams the briny water glide.
Between two rows of rocks a ſylvan ſcene
Appears above, and groves for ever green.

And as Naples lies on the boſom of this charming bay in form of a creſcent towards the ſouth, there are on the north little fruitful hills, which riſe inſenſibly into the Campania Felice. On the eaſt is a large plain, which leads towards Mount Veſuvius, and on the weſt is a high hill, on which the caſtle of St. Elmo and the Carthuſian monaſtery are ſituated, from whence the proſpect is inexpreſſibly fine. It is ſcarce ever cold in winter, and in ſummer they have refreſhing breezes both from the mountains and the ſea, which is not ſubject to ſtorms, and has ſo bold a ſhore, that veſſels of burthen may lie cloſe to the keys. Wine and oil, and all manner of proviſions excellent in their kind, are exceeding plentiful. The air is pure, ſerene and healthful; the buildings beautiful beyond compariſon, inhabited by people of diſtinction, remarkable for their parts and education, as well as their quality, inſomuch that we can ſcarce frame an idea of a more deſirable abode. But every thing has a dark as well as a bright ſide; and as this city is remarkably happy in many reſpects beyond any other town, perhaps in the univerſe, it has its allays and inconveniences alſo to ſuch a degree, that no conſidering man, who had any other place to live in, would chuſe to reſide in it; the principal of which are the frequent earthquakes and eruptions of Mount Veſuvius, the apprehenſions of which muſt ſpoil all the pleaſures and beauties already enumerated. The litigious temper of the inhabitants is another great objection to the place; and if they are as wicked as ſome of our travellers would make them, particularly Burnet and Misson (whoſe relations I do not entirely credit in this particular) few people will be inclined to leave their native country and tranſplant themſelves to Naples. But to be a little more particular in the deſcription of this city.

Naples is ſituated in forty-one degrees of north latitude, fifteen degrees to the eaſtward of London, and about an hundred and forty miles ſouth-eaſt of Rome, being ſeven or eight miles in circumference within the walls, and as much more including all the ſuburbs, and is ſuppoſed to contain about three hundred thouſand inhabitants. It has three caſtles, which ſerve rather to bridle the inhabitants than for its defence, and indeed the town takes up too great an extent of ground to be defended by any thing leſs than an army. Accordingly we find the Spaniſh Viceroy quitted it without ſtriking a ſtroke, and threw himſelf into Gaeta, that was more tenable, when the Imperialiſts laſt invaded this kingdom. The ſtreets are generally broad and ſtraight, and paved with ſtones about a foot ſquare. The buildings are of ſtone, lofty and uniform, with flat roofs, ſurrounded with battlements or balluſters, on which the inhabitants take the air in an evening. And as the houſes in Naples are generally large and well built, without any mixture of mean ones, there are great numbers of them which well deſerve the name of Palaces; ſcarce a great family in the kingdom but has one here. The fountains in the ſtreets, and the many fine gardens about it, are no ſmall addition to its beauty. The Viceroy's palace ſtands in a large open ſquare, with a regular front, compoſed of three orders of architecture, and is near four hundred feet in length. The three caſtles, the academies, hoſpitals, arſenal and magazines, are noble edifices: but what is moſt extraordinary, is the number and magnificence of their churches and convents, which are not to be parallelled. Some reckon up and hundred and twenty convents, forty nunneries, and three hundred churches, every one of which are remarkable for their architecture, ſculpture, painting or ornaments. The Domo, or cathedral, dedicated to St. Januarius, is a magnificent old fabrick, and hath a little modern chapel, eſteemed one of the fineſt in Europe, adorned with brazen ſtatues, and the moſt exquiſite paintings. In this chapel is the tomb of St. Januarius, Biſhop of Benevento, whoſe blood being kept in a glaſs and congealed, grows liquid, as the people are taught to believe, on the approach of the Saint's head. Mr. Addison relates, that he had twice an opportunity of ſeeing the operation of this pretended miracle, which was one of the moſt bungling tricks that ever he ſaw. The Jeſuits church is eſteemed the beſt that ſociety has in Italy; all parts of it are beautified with the richeſt ornaments from the pavement to the roof. The ſame may be ſaid of that of St. Mary's della Annunciata, which belongs to the famous hoſpital of that name, which entertains two thouſand infirm people, and above eight hundred orphans, having a revenue of two hundred thouſand crowns per annum,

num, and upwards. The churches of St. Philip of Neri, Santa Maria la Nova, St. Severius, St. Paul's, St. Dominick's, and St. Maria della Sanitate, are all ſurprizingly rich and beautiful. The frontiſpieces, the gates, the chapels, the tombs, the ſculpture, painting, gilded roofs, Moſaick-work, and baſs-reliefs are exquiſite pieces of workmanſhip. The veſſels of gold, ſilver, jaſper and porphyry, are innumerable. The plate alone in the churches of Naples, upon a moderate eſtimate, ſays Dr. Burnet, amounts to eight millions of crowns; and the gildings and paintings in ſome of the churches above mention'd, according to the ſame writer, have coſt millions. The great convent of the Carthuſians on St. Martin's hill, near the caſtle of St. Elmo, is a moſt glorious fabrick, and immenſely rich. The Monks relate, that in one priorate there was laid out five hundred thouſand ducats in ſilver-plate, pictures and ſculptures alone. Their church is not large, but nothing, ſays my author, can be added to the value of the matter, or the excellence of the workmanſhip. The nativity of Chriſt by Guido is an ineſtimable piece; and there are four pictures of the Lord's ſupper done by the greateſt hands. The cloyſter is an hundred paces ſquare, built and paved with marble, the four galleries ſupported by ſixty fine white marble pillars, each of them of one entire piece. Every Monk here has his chamber, cloſet, library, and a pretty garden to himſelf, and the Prior a palace fit to entertain a Prince. Among other rarities, they pretend to have a crucifix drawn from the life, as they call it, by Michael Angelo, who having hired a peaſant to let him tie him to a croſs, that he might the better deſcribe the dying agonies, ſtabbed the fellow to the heart: but this ſtory does not meet with univerſal credit. Here is alſo a St. Laurence by Titian, ſome deſigns by Rubens and Albert Durer, which they ſet a great value upon. And there cannot be a greater variety of glorious proſpects than are to be ſeen from hence, as has been intimated already; for here you have a view of the ſea and ſeveral iſlands, among which is that of Capræa, whither Tiberius retired with his court. Here alſo we have a diſtinct view of the city of Naples, its caſtles, harbour, mole and pharos, and the gardens and fruitful hills which ſurround it. On the other ſide you have a proſpect of the ſea-coaſt, with its little bays and capes, ſet thick with pretty villages and houſes of pleaſure. A little further you diſcern the air darkned with the ſmoak of Mount Veſuvius, which muſt ſtrike a damp to all their enjoyments, if they reflect on the many eruptions and earthquakes that have happened within a few years paſt, ſome of which it may be proper to give the reader an abſtract of, after having deſcribed the ſituation of this mouth of hell, as it is called.

Mount Veſuvius deſcribed.

Mount Veſuvius, according to Mr. Addison, ſtands about ſix Engliſh miles to the eaſtward of Naples, (Misson ſays eight) tho' its height makes it appear much nearer to thoſe who ſurvey it from the town. The firſt part of the way lies upon a level, through ſeveral good villages along the ſea-coaſt; afterwards we begin to aſcend till we come within a mile and half of the top, when we are obliged to quit our horſes, the hill grows ſo ſteep, and covered thick with the burnt earth as ſmall as duſt, which makes it very difficult aſcending it, even on foot. In our way to Veſuvius, ſays Mr. Addison, we paſſed by what was one of thoſe rivers of burning matter that run from it in a late eruption. It looks at a diſtance like a new-ploughed land, but as you come nearer it you ſee nothing but a long heap of heavy disjointed clods, lying one upon another. There are innumerable cavities and interſtices among the ſeveral pieces, ſo that the ſurface is all broken and irregular. Sometimes a great fragment ſtands like a rock above the reſt, ſometimes the whole heap lies in a kind of channel, and in other places has nothing like banks to confine it, but riſes four or five foot high above the ſurface, without ſpreading on either ſide. This, ſays my author, is demonſtration to me, that theſe rivers were not, as they are uſually repreſented, ſo many ſtreams of running matter; for how could a liquid that lay hardening by degrees, ſettle in ſuch a furrowed uncompact ſurface? Were the river a confuſion of never ſo many different bodies, if they had been all actually diſſolved, they would at leaſt have formed one continued cruſt, as we ſee the ſcorium of metals always gathers into a ſolid piece, let it be compounded of never ſo many heterogeneous parts. I am apt to think therefore, that theſe huge unweildy lumps that now lie one upon another, as if thrown together by accident, remained in the melted matter rigid and unliquified, floating in it like cakes of ice in a river; and that as the fire and ferment gradually abated, they adjuſted themſelves together as well as their irregular figures would permit, and by this means fell into ſuch an interrupted and diſorderly heap as we now find it: what was the melted matter, lies at the bottom out of ſight. After having quitted the ſide of this long heap, ſays Mr. Addison, which was once a ſtream of fire, we came to the foot of the mountain, and had a very troubleſom march to gain the top of it. It is covered on all ſides with a kind of burnt earth, very dry, and crumbled into powder, as if it had been artificially ſifted. It is very hot under foot, and mixed with ſeveral burnt ſtones and cakes of cinders, which have been thrown out at different times. One ſinks almoſt a foot into the earth, and generally loſes half a ſtep by ſliding backwards. When we had climbed this mountain, we diſcovered the top of it to be a wide naked plain, ſmoaking with ſulphur in ſeveral places, and probably undermined with fire, for we concluded it to be hollow by the ſound it made under our feet. In the midſt of this plain ſtands a high hill in the ſhape of a ſugar-loaf, ſo very ſteep that there would be no mounting or deſcending it, were it not made up of ſuch a looſe crumbled earth as is already deſcribed. The air of this place muſt be very much impregnated with ſalt-petre, as appears by the ſpecks of it on the ſides of the mountain, where one can ſcarce find a ſtone that has not the top white with it. After we had with great labour gained the top of this hill, we ſaw in the midſt of it the preſent mouth of Veſuvio, which goes ſhelving down on all ſides above an hundred yards deep, and is about three or four hundred in the diameter, for it ſeems a perfect round. This vaſt hollow is generally filled with ſmoak, but by the advantage of a wind that blew from us we had a very clear and diſtinct ſight of it. The ſides of it appear all over ſtained with mixtures of white, green, red, and yellow, and have ſeveral locks ſtanding out of them that look like pure brimſtone. The bottom was entirely covered, and though we looked very narrowly, we could ſee nothing like a hole in it, the ſmoak breaking through ſeveral imperceptible cracks in many places. The very middle was firm ground, when we ſaw it, as we concluded from the ſtones we flung upon it; and I queſtion not but one might then have croſſed the bottom and have gone up on the other ſide of it with very little danger, unleſs from ſome accidental breath of wind. In the late eruptions this great hollow was like a vaſt cauldron, filled with glowing and melted matter, which as it boiled over in any part, ran down the ſides of the mountain, and made five ſuch rivers as are above mentioned. In proportion as the heat ſlackned, this burning matter muſt have ſubſided within the bowels of the mountain, and as it ſunk very leiſurely, had time to cake together and form the bottom, which covers the mouth of that dreadful vault that lies underneath it. The next eruption or earthquake will probably break in pieces this falſe bottom, and quite change the preſent face of things. This whole mountain, ſhaped like a ſugar-loaf, has been made at ſeveral times, by the prodigious quantities of earth and cinders which have been flung up out of the mouth that lies in the midſt of them; ſo that it increaſes in bulk at every eruption, the aſhes ſtill falling down the ſides of it like the ſand in an hour-glaſs. A gentleman of Naples relates, that in his memory it had gained twenty foot in thickneſs; and I queſtion not but in length of time it will cover the whole plain, and make one mountain with that on which it now ſtands. In thoſe parts of the ſea which are not far from the foot of this mountain they find ſometimes a very fragrant oil, which is ſold very dear, and makes a rich perfume: The ſurface of the ſea is for a little ſpace covered with its bubbles during the time it riſes, which they ſkim off into their boats, and afterward ſet a ſeparating in pots and jars. They ſay its ſources never run but in calm warm weather. Thus far Mr. Addison, who viſited this mountain in the year 1702. Several ancient authors relate, that the roaring noiſe of this mountain at an eruption has been heard as far as Rome; that the thickneſs of the ſmoak has in a manner eclipſed the ſun, and made it dark at noon-day; that ſtreams of brimſtone have run down from it into the ſea, and that the ſea it ſelf hath ſwelled and boiled with heat. I proceed now to give an account of ſome of thoſe earthquakes and eruptions that have happened at Mount Veſuvius and Naples.

Eruptions of Mount Veſuvius.

The earthquake in 1688.

Before the reign of Auguſtus hiſtorians have not recorded above five eruptions of this burning mount, though we can reckon up more than that number within forty years laſt paſſed; particularly in the years 1688, 89, 94, 96, 1701, 1707, and 1727. The earthquake which happened the fifth and ſixth of June 1688, overturned ſeveral of their churches and religious houſes, particularly the fine church of the Jeſuits, with a third part of the city, and deſtroyed ſeveral ſhips in the harbour, of which we meet with the following account from a perſon who was then on the ſpot, viz. A little after four in the afternoon we were put into ſuch a confuſion as cannot be expreſſed, we perceived the houſes ſtoop and recover again, to part from one another, and in ſome places to fall; ſoon after a more violent earthquake ſucceeded, and a ſubterraneous noiſe ſurpaſſing that of thunder was heard, while our houſhold goods at the ſame time clatter'd about our ears, the bells rung in the ſteeples, the reſervoirs and ciſterns threw out their waters, many houſes fell, and others ſtood ſtooping juſt ready to fall; whereupon were heard the moſt hideous ſhrieks from all parts of the town, ſome embraced and took an eternal farewel of their friends; others threw themſelves headlong out of the windows, not knowing what they did; but before the third ſhock, people being a little recovered from their conſternation, began to conſider how to ſave themſelves by flight. When the earthquake was over, thoſe who had run out into the fields and gardens returned to ſee what was become of their houſes and acquaintance they left behind; but the next morning their conſternation was renewed by the thunder, lightning and ſtorms which laſted for two or three days. The ſtreets were filled with proceſſions of penitents, women, children, old men, eccleſiaſticks, and other, cloathed in ſackcloth, and crowned with thorns, with ropes about their necks, and their feet chained, whipping themſelves, and often ſinking under the burthens of croſſes, great ſtones, and other things, with which they had loaded themſelves to atone the wrath of heaven; ſome of them were perfectly naked, covering only what decency required, their bodies diſcoloured with blood and dirt, weeping and lamenting themſelves, and redoubling their blows and cries when they paſſed by any ruins occaſioned by the earthquake. The Archbiſhop Cardinal Pignatelli in the mean time ſat in a balcony of his palace, where he ſpent three whole days in diſtributing his bleſſings among the people, his arms relieving each other, which were wearied with making the ſign of the croſs. He authorized all the Prieſts in the city to confeſs and abſolve all ſins without diſtinction; ſo that every where people were ſeen upon their knees confeſſing in the ſtreets, that they might take the advantage of ſo general an abſolution. The Monks and Prieſts themſelves having aſhes upon their heads, and halters about their necks, preached to the people from the ſhops and ſtalls in every ſtreet of the town. As I was paſſing by the pyramid of St. Januarius, ſays the writer of this relation, a Capuchin was preaching there with a croud about him, when on a ſudden a woman, whoſe brains were ſtill turning, cried out ſhe ſaw the pyramid ſhake, whereupon another without examining the truth of it, cried out, *Miſericordia!* Whereupon the *Miſericordia* went round, and occaſioned ſuch confuſion, that the whole aſſembly diſperſed in a minute; while the poor Monk, with his cord about his neck, and his feet chained, ſwooned for fear, and was with difficulty brought to himſelf again. Theſe ſubterraneous attacks, which thus diſturb us here, we look upon to be the effects of the rage of Mount Veſuvius, when the fires are pent up and cannot find a vent at the mouth of it.

On the ſixth of April 1694, there was a terrible irruption, the mountain was on fire the greateſt part of the month, and threw out the burning matter with that force, that ſome of it reached Benevento, above thirty miles diſtant; but what was moſt extraordinary, was the prodigious quantity of melted minerals mixt with other matter, which it poured out at ſeveral places, and which run for the ſpace of three miles ſlowly like melted tallow, which begins to cool, but at the ſame time carried every thing before it which lay in its way. One of theſe ſlow floods running over a great rock fell down a precipice with ſuch violence, and occaſioned ſo great a ſmoak, that every one began to think there had been a new opening. The Viceroy ſet great numbers of men to clear the way for theſe rivers of melted minerals to prevent their overflowing their banks, which at length congealed and raiſed themſelves into little hills, but the matter they were compoſed of was good for nothing, not ſo much as to make cannon-bullets of; ſome people attempted to make little cups, and other things of it, but it was as brittle as earthen ware.

Another relation I have before me of this irruption ſays, that the people were at firſt alarmed with roaring ſubterranean noiſes, attended with rolling flames intermixed with ſmoak, which broke forth from the mountain; that the breadth of thoſe torrents of melted matter above mentioned, was about fifty fathom, and that the fire raiſed itſelf above two and twenty fathom; that the wind coming about to the eaſt, the ſtreets and houſes in Naples were covered with cinders; that the ſtone and pieces of rock which lay in the way of theſe fiery rivers, were preſently kindled and calcined, and afterwards floated upon the torrent.

Other Objections to Naples beſides earthquakes, &c.

Wine ſold by retail by the Clergy.

Cool'd in ſnow.

In the year 1707, when they were in the midſt of their rejoicings for the ſucceſs of the Imperialiſts in reducing the kingdom of Naples, they were interrupted by a dreadful eruption of Mount Veſuvius, which began on the 29th of July to ſend out vaſt ſtreams of flame and ſmoak, and throw out ſtones. On the third of Auguſt it raged with greater violence, throwing out ſuch quantities of cinders and aſhes that it was dark at noonday, and they were forced to light up candles: When the Archbiſhop happily carrying St. JANUARIUS, the Saint of the place, in proceſſion, attended by all the nobility and people, the eruption ceaſed in a few hours, which confirmed them in their devotion for their Patron. They immediately therefore ſolemnized a thankſgiving, and illuminated the ſtreets for three nights ſucceſſively; which ſufficiently ſhews the dread the natives have of theſe eruptions, and with a great deal of reaſon, as they ſometimes carry whole towns and villages before them, and will probably in time lay this fine city in aſhes. In 1727, they had a violent ſhock of an earthquake; the ſea ſwelled in an extraordinary manner, and flames of fire iſſued from Mount Veſuvius, which terrified the braveſt of them, and brought them upon their knees before the head of St. JANUARIUS their Patron. Mr. MISSON I find has other objections to the town of Naples, beſide the danger of earthquakes and fiery eruptions. There are many things, ſays that gentleman, which are not ſuitable to its beauty, and cloud the pleaſant countenance it would otherwiſe have; among which, the keeping up their women, and not ſuffering them to appear in the ſtreets, or the company of men, he eſteems none of the leaſt: *They hide the faireſt part of the creation from the world*, which he looks upon as an inſupportable grievance. Then the habits and equipages of the people of Naples are generally black and diſmal; they are prohibited wearing gold and ſilver, or ſilk upon ſilk; nor is a perſon of the greateſt quality allowed more than two footmen: Their coaches alſo are drawn by ſlow-footed mules, with odd kind of harneſſes; and the ſtiff Spaniſh dreſs is generally worn. The Viceroy ſeldom appears, and his court has a very dull air in the eyes of thoſe that have ſeen other courts. But were there no other objections againſt Naples, than theſe laſt mentioned, moſt men would eſteem it a very deſirable place, I believe, however it may appear in the eyes of that reverend gentleman. The wines of Naples, it has been already obſerved, are the beſt in Italy; and the clergy it ſeems are the greateſt wine-merchants in this city. The wine-cellar belonging to the Jeſuits, if we may credit Dr. BURNET, is a vaſt vault, that contains above a thouſand hogſheads, and the beſt wine is ſold by them; tho' they do not retail it out in ſo ſcandalous a manner as they do who live in the great ſquare, and ſell it in the ſame manner our publick houſes do. It is true, the people of the town are no great drinkers; they do not ſet tipling for hours together, as they do with us, but only go in for a draught now and then, when they are thirſty, and then go about their buſineſs; however, the fathers grow very rich by this retail trade. The people here, from the higheſt to the loweſt, drink no wine or other liquors, not ſo much as water, if it has not lain ſome time in ſnow, which they uſe inſtead of ice, and affirm that it cools any liquor much ſooner; and a ſcarcity of ſnow, according to Mr. ADDISON, would raiſe a mutiny at Naples as ſoon as a dearth of corn or proviſions in another country. To prevent which the government has ſold the monopoly of it to certain perſons, who have contracted to furniſh the city with it at ſo much per pound. There is a high mountain about eighteen miles from Naples, in which ſeveral pits are dug; and here labourers are employed at proper ſeaſons to roll in vaſt balls of ſnow, which they ram cloſe together, and cover from the ſun; and out of theſe reſervoirs of ſnow they cut great lumps as they have occaſion, and ſend them on aſſes to the ſea-ſide where they are received into boats and carried to Naples, and diſtributed to the ſeveral ſhops which deal in it at a ſettled price.

The catacombs of Naples.

Without the city towards the church and hoſpital of St. GENNARO are the catacombs, which are of much larger dimenſions than thoſe of Rome. They are, according to Dr. BURNET, vaſt long galleries cut out of the rock, three ſtories of them one above another. Theſe galleries are generally about twenty foot broad, and fifteen foot high, noble ſpacious places; and as my author was informed on the ſpot, went into the rock eight or nine miles; but he had no mind to go ſo far under ground to ſatisfy his curioſity, though he walked a great way in them, and ſaw galleries going off on all hands without end. And whereas in the catacombs of Rome there are not above three or four rows of niches cut out of the rock one above another, into which the dead bodies were laid; in thoſe of Naples there are generally ſix or ſeven rows of thoſe niches, and they are both larger and higher: but this reverend writer could ſee no marks of a cover or facing to ſhut up the niches when the dead bodies were laid in them; from whence he concludes they were monſtrous unwholeſom places, where thouſands of bodies lay rotting without any thing to ſhut in ſo loathſom a ſight, and ſo odious a ſmell; for the niches ſhew plainly that the bodies were laid in them wrapped only in their burying-clothes, they being too low for coffins. But as to the niches being open, and not ſhut up when dead bodies were put in them, this reverend divine ſeems abundantly confuted by Mr. ADDISON. The catacombs, ſays this gentleman, muſt have been full of ſtench and loathſomeneſs, if the dead bodies that lay in them were left to rot in open niches; *as an eminent author of our own country imagines*. But upon examining them I find, they were each of them ſtopped up (without doubt as ſoon as the corps was laid in it) for at the mouth of the nich one always finds the rock cut into little channels to faſten the board or marble that was

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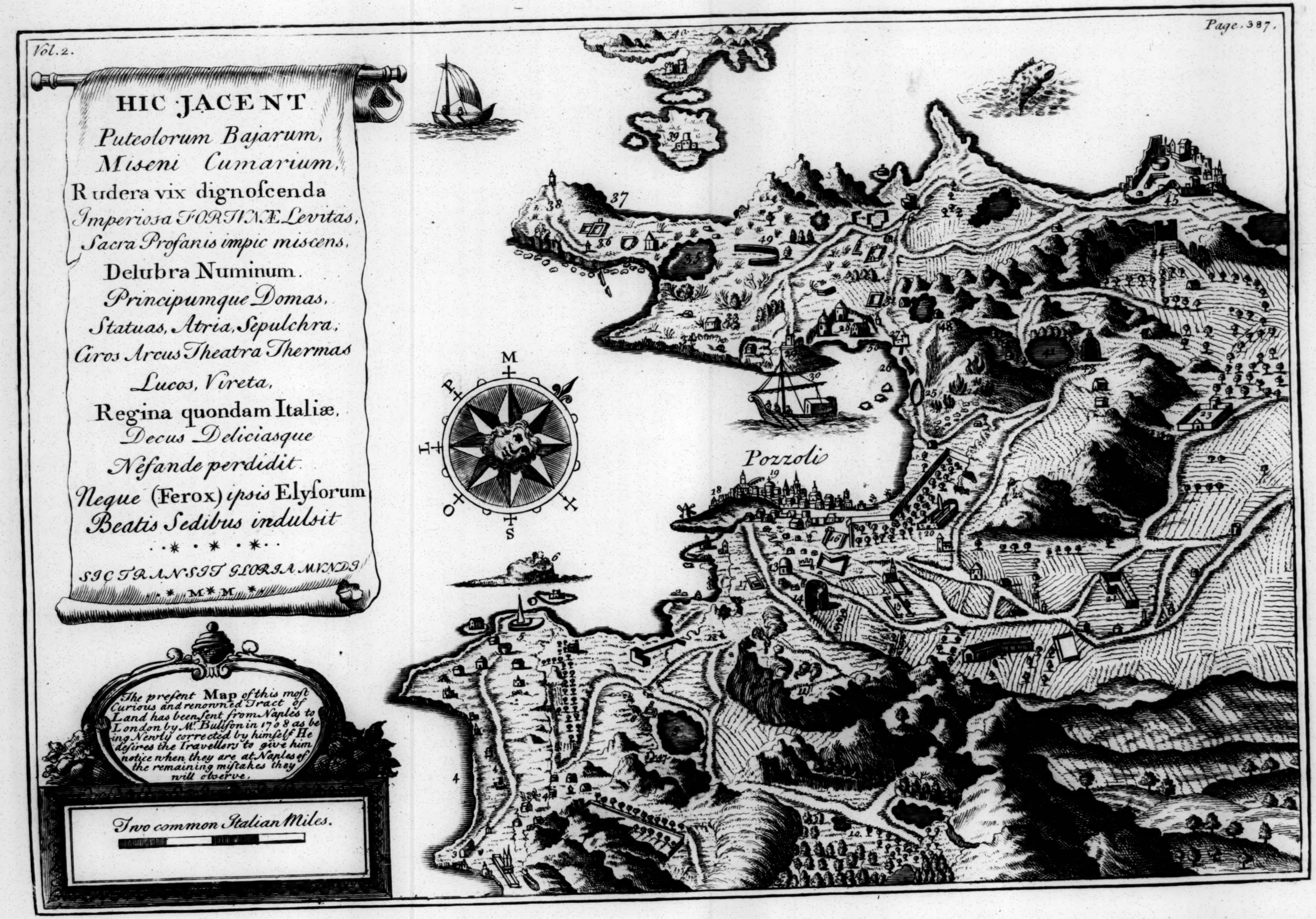
HIC JACENT
Puteolorum Bajarum,
Miseni Cumarium,
Rudera vix dignoſcenda
Imperioſa FORTUNÆ Levitas,
Sacra Profanis impie miscens,
Delubra Numinum.
Principumque Domas,
Statuas, Atria, Sepulchra;
Ciros Arcus Theatra Thermas
Lucos, Vireta,
Regina quondam Italiæ,
Decus Deliciasque
Nefande perdidit
Neque (Ferox) ipsis Elyſorum
Beatis Sedibus indulsit
SIC TRANSIT GLORIA MUNDI
M M
The preſent Map of this moſt Curious and renowned Tract of Land has been ſent from Naples to London by Mr. Buliſon in 1708 as being Newly corrected by himſelf He deſires the Travellers to give him notice when they are at Naples of the remaining miſtakes they will obſerve.
Two common Italian Miles.
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was to cloſe it up: and I think *I did not ſee one which had not ſtill ſome mortar ſticking in it.* In ſome I found pieces of tiles that exactly tallied with the channel, and in others a little wall of bricks, that ſometimes ſtopped up above a quarter of the nich, the reſt having been broken down. St. Proculus's ſepulchre ſeems to have a kind of Moſaick work on its covering; for I obſerved at one end of it ſeveral little pieces of marble ranged together after that manner. Mr. Addison thinks it is probable they were adorned more or leſs, according to the quality of the dead. One would indeed wonder, he ſays, to find ſuch a multitude of niches unſtopped; and he cannot imagine any body ſhould take the pains to do it who was not in queſt of ſome ſuppoſed treaſure. From this, and a multitude of other inſtances, it is evident that Dr. Burnet did not ſee many things and places he pretends to have viewed perſonally; or that he did not make uſe of his ſenſes in examining them: or, laſtly, that he concealed or diſguiſed things he was acquainted with when they would not ſerve an opinion he had advanced; for inſtance, he brings the ſtench and noiſomeneſs of the catacombs where ſo many carcaſſes *lay open and putrifying*, as an undeniable argument, that the primitive Chriſtians never could aſſemble in thoſe places for divine worſhip. Whereas Mr. Addison produces very good proof, that all thoſe places were ſo cloſe walled and ſhut up, that there could ariſe no greater inconvenience from them than there does from dead bodies buried in the vault of a church.

Statues and antiquities.

Statues and other pieces of antiquity, Mr. Addison obſerves, are not ſo common at Naples as might be expected in ſo ancient a city of Italy, their Viceroys having ſent almoſt every thing that is valuable of this kind into Spain: or, as Mr. Misson obſerves, it has been demoliſhed and plundered ſo often, that great part of its antiquities probably lie buried in its ruins. The front of St. Paul Major however is ſuppoſed to be the old frontiſpiece of the temple of Apollo. The portico was ſupported by eight channelled pillars of the Corinthian order, and on the baſe were ſome baſſo-relievo's, which repreſented heathen deities; but this portico was thrown down by the earthquake in 1688. There are alſo ſome remains of an amphitheatre; an ancient ſtatue of the Nile leaning againſt a crocodile; and the neck of a large brazen horſe, that ſtood formerly in one of the ſquares of the city. The two fineſt modern ſtatues are thoſe of Apollo and Minerva on each ſide of Sannazarius's tomb, who at his own expence at the foot of Mount Pauſilippus erected a temple to the memory of the Bleſſed Virgin, whom he thus invokes at the beginning of his *De partu Virginis:*

Thou bright celeſtial Goddeſs, if to thee
An acceptable temple I erect,
With faireſt flow'rs, and richeſt garlands deck'd;
On tow'ring rocks whence Mergilline ſpies
The ruffled deep in ſtorms and tempeſts riſe:
Guide thou the pious poet, nor refuſe
Thine own propitious aid to his unpractis'd muſe.

University and ſocieties of Virtuoſi.

The city of Naples is the ſeat of the Viceroy, and an Archbiſhop's See; it has alſo a univerſity founded by Frederick II, which is not ſo much admired by our modern travellers as the Philoſophical Academy of Virtuoſi, at whoſe meetings our countryman Mr. Ray ſays he was preſent, and was not a little ſurprized to find ſuch a company of learned men in a place where he was taught to believe they would ſcarce allow a reaſonable latitude of judgment. They were not only well acquainted, he obſerved, with the beſt and moſt refined authors of the preceding age, ſuch as Galilæus a Galilæo, Des Cartes, Gassendus, Harvey, Verulam, &c. but alſo with Boyle, Dr. Willis, Wharton, Hoeck, Perquet, &c. Dr. Burnet, who will not allow the clergy of Naples any great ſhare of learning, obſerves however, that there are ſocieties of men in this city of freer thoughts than can be found in any other part of Italy. The Greek learning flouriſhes there, and the new philoſophy is much ſtudied; he inſtances in one aſſembly (that had a vaſt collection of well choſen books) and was compoſed of men that had a right taſte of true learning and good ſenſe; tho' indeed they were repreſented as a ſet of Atheiſts by the clergy: but he had the honour of meeting twice or thrice with a good number of them, and could not obſerve they deſerved ſuch a charge. Few clergymen however came into this attempt for reviving learning among them: on the contrary they dreaded nothing more. Some phyſicians in Naples alſo lay under the ſcandal of Atheiſm when he was there; and certain it is, ſays this reverend writer, that in Italy men of ſearching underſtandings, who have no other idea of the Chriſtian religion but that which they ſee received among them, are very naturally tempted to diſbelieve it quite; finding ſuch cheats in many parts of their religion, they are thereby induced to queſtion the whole.

Puzzoli.

Puzzoli, anciently called *Puteoli*, and more anciently *Dicæarchia*, and *Delos Minor*, on account of a temple here dedicated to Apollo, is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, about nine miles to the weſtward of Naples, and was in the time of the Romans the moſt conſiderable harbour on that coaſt, and ſtill between this town and Baia the ſea forms a noble bay. The city is almoſt dwindled to nothing, but is ſtill a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Naples, and there are ſome noble ruins about it, which ſtill afford us an idea of the Roman grandeur. The cathedral is built on the place where Jupiter's temple ſtood, and there are ſome other churches and houſes which do not make a deſpicable figure.

Baia.

Baia, the ancient *Baiæ*, ſtands alſo by the ſea-ſhore, on the other ſide of the Bay, about three miles to the weſtward of Puzzoli, and is now but a ſmall village, whoſe principal ornament is an inconſiderable caſtle.

The antiquities and natural curioſities about Puzzoli and Baia.
The grotto of Pauſilippus.

There is a noble ſcene of antiquities, as Mr. Addison obſerves, about Naples, Puzzoli and Baia, viſited by every traveller almoſt. The firſt they mention in the way from Naples to Puzzoli, is the grotto of Pausilippus. This is a little ſteep hill, which lies about four miles to the weſtward of Naples, by the ſea-ſide, through which the Romans dug a highway large enough for carriages to paſs. To form a juſt idea of this place, we muſt fancy, ſays the gentleman above-mentioned, a rock undermined from one end to the other, and a way running through it as long and as broad as the Mall in St. James's park; that is, according to others, half a mile in length, and eighteen feet in breadth. The entrance at both ends is higher than the middle parts of it, and ſinks by degrees to fling in more light upon the reſt; and towards the middle are two large funnels bored through the roof of the grotto to let in light and freſh air: and ſtill it is ſcarce poſſible to diſcern the way thro' it, as well on account of the clouds of duſt that are raiſed by the carriages, as the want of windows to this ſubterraneous paſſage; inſomuch that when two companies meet, they cry out, *To the mountain*, or, *To the ſea*, to give notice on which ſide they are of, that they may not fall foul of one another. SENECA complains of the duſt and darkneſs of this paſſage as well as the moderns, and with more reaſon it is thought, it having been enlarged at each end ſince his time.

Virgil's tomb.

Over the entrance of the grotto, as we go from Naples, is an ancient little monument in form of a pyramid half deſtroyed, called the tomb of VIRGIL. It is certain, ſays Mr. ADDISON, this Poet was buried near Naples, but I think it is almoſt as certain that his tomb ſtood on the other ſide of the town which looks towards Mount Veſuvius. The common people of Naples believe that VIRGIL was a magician, and that he made this grotto by the aſſiſtance of ſome infernal powers. The hill of PAUSILIPPUS ſtands mighty pleaſantly on the ſea-ſide, and is beautified with fine houſes, gardens and vineyards, where the quality of Naples ſpend their time part of the year.

The lakes of Agnano, Lucrine, and Avernus.

The grotto del Cane.

A little beyond the cave of PAUSILIPPUS, in the way to Puzzoli, lies the lake of Agnano, between two little hills, about a mile in circumference, the water whereof is clear, and has no ill taſte at preſent, and produces fiſh in abundance. Neither this, the Lucrine lake, or Avernus, which lie a little diſtance from each other, have any thing remarkable in them now, though anciently, it is ſaid, the poiſonous ſteams would kill the birds that flew over Avernus. Near the lake of Agnano is the grotto del Cane, a little cave at the foot of a hill, about ten foot long, five broad, and five in height, famous for the ſuffocating or poiſonous ſteams, which float within a foot of its ſurface. The ſides of the grotto are marked with green as high as the malignity of the vapour reaches. The common experiments made here are theſe: a dog that has his noſe held in the vapour, loſes all ſigns of life in a very little time; but if he is carried into the open air, or thrown into the neighbouring lake, he immediately recovers, if he is not quite gone. A torch with the ſnuff goes out in a moment, if dipped into the vapour; nor will a piſtol take fire in it. Dr. CONNOR made a diſcourſe in one of the academies at Rome upon the ſubject of this grotto, which was printed in England, and he attributes the death of animals and the extinction of lights, to a great rarefaction of the air, cauſed by the heat and eruption of the ſteams. But how is it poſſible for theſe ſteams, ſays Mr. ADDISON, though in never ſo great quantity, to reſiſt the preſſure of the whole atmoſphere? and as for the heat, that is but very inconſiderable. And though this vapour is generally ſuppoſed to be ſulphureous, I can ſee no reaſon for ſuch a ſuppoſition, ſays the ſame author; for if a man dips his hand in it, he finds no ſmell that it leaves upon it; and if you put a whole bundle of lighted brimſtone matches to the ſmoak, they will all go out in an inſtant, as if immerſed in water. The experiment has been made upon other animals, and even upon men, on whom the vapour has the ſame effect: but it is called the grotto *del Cane*, from the experiment being uſually tried on dogs, to ſatisfy the curioſity of ſtrangers: and the dogs in the neighbourhood have been ſo tormented with this cuſtom, that they no ſooner ſee a ſtranger, but they get out of the way and hide themſelves. The Viceroy Don PEDRO DE TOLEDO made the experiment on two ſlaves, who both died: and there is an account of one TOURNON, a traveller, who ſtooping down in the grotto to take up a ſtone, was ſeized with the vapour, and immediately loſt all ſigns of life; being carried into the lake, he recovered his ſpirits a little, but died a few minutes after: one may walk however ſafely in any part of the grotto, ſo that he keeps his head above a foot from the ground, for the vapour never riſes higher. Thoſe who ſuppoſe this to be a ſulphureous vapour, have this to ſupport their opinion, That all the adjacent country is nothing but brimſtone.

The baths of St. Germains.

Solfatara, and other burning hills.

The baths of St. Germains, which lie near this grotto, ſmell ſtrong of brimſtone, and before you have entered them three ſteps, you fall into a violent ſweat. They are frequented for many diſtempers, but principally for the gout, rheumatiſm and venereal diſeaſes. It would be endleſs, ſays Mr. ADDISON, to reckon up the different baths to be met with in a country that ſo much abounds in ſulphur. There is ſcarce a diſeaſe that has not one adapted to it. The mountains of Secco and Solfatara are full of brimſtone and allum; here ſmoak and flame iſſue through the cracked earth with noiſe and ſtench continually. On Solfatara, the ſurface of which is yellow and white, burnt and worn by its own fires, they prepare roch-allum, making their cauldrons boil without any other fire than what iſſues out of the crevices of the earth. The top of the hill is worn into a kind of oval baſin, about twelve hundred foot long, and a thouſand broad. The fumes which iſſue from it are often ſmelt at Naples, and ſo taint the waters in the neighbourhood, that the Capuchins, who have a cloyſter here, are forced to raiſe their ciſterns high upon pillars, to prevent their water's being ſpoil'd. Mr. ADDISON, and all our travellers obſerve, that the country about Puzzoli and Baiæ has been miſerably torn to pieces by ſubterraneous fires and earthquakes, and the whole face of it entirely changed from what it was formerly. The ſea has drowned a multitude of palaces, the ruins whereof may be ſeen at the bottom of the water in a calm day. Mount Gaurus, from one of the fruitfulleſt parts of Italy, is now become the moſt barren. The fields which were in the time of the old Romans laid out in beautiful groves and gardens, are now naked plains, ſmoaking with ſulphur, or encumbered with hills, thrown up by eruptions of fire. The works of art lie in no leſs diſorder than thoſe of nature. This, which was once the moſt beautiful ſpot in Italy, covered with temples and palaces, embelliſhed by many of the Roman Emperors, and celebrated by the beſt of their Poets, has now nothing to ſhew, ſays Mr. ADDISON, but the ruins of its ancient ſplendor, and a great magnificence in confuſion.

The Mole of Puzzoli.

The Mole of Puteoli, or Puzzoli, the ſame gentleman obſerves, having been built upon arches, is uſually miſtaken for CALIGULA's bridge, between Puzzoli and Baia; whereas that bridge, it is evident from ancient authors, was made of boats. Of all the ſcenes of noble objects that preſent themſelves in the bay of Puzzoli, ſays Dr. BURNET, the remains of CALIGULA's bridge are the moſt amazing; for there are yet ſtanding eight or ten pillars that ſupported the arches, and of ſome of the arches the half is yet entire, the furtheſt of them on the Puzzoli ſide ſtanding ſeven fathom deep in water, and on the other ſide he ſuppoſes them to ſtand twenty fathom deep in water. *This was a noble monument of the profuſe and extravagant expence of a brutal tyrant, who made one of the vaſteſt bridges that ever was attempted, over three or four miles of ſea, merely to ſacrifice ſo great a treaſure to his vanity.* But notwithſtanding this grave cenſure of the doctor's, theſe arches were only made to ſupport a mole for the defence and conveniency of the harbour, as Mr. ADDISON and ſome late travellers have demonſtrated, for CALIGULA's bridge was a bridge of boats. But to proceed: Beſides the antiquities already mentioned, we find the ruins of a theatre near Puzzoli, the area whereof was an hundred and ſeventy-two foot long, and eighty-two broad: and between the city and theatre are the ruins of a temple, ſaid to be conſecrated to DIANA. The ſea ſometimes throws up ſeveral rich ornaments of the ancient palaces, which ſtood hereabouts, conſiſting of jaſper, agate, amethiſts, cornelians, &c, This bay, it is ſaid, was anciently called *Venereum*, from the lewdneſs practiſed in their baths, over which they built magnificent edifices, and near them temples dedicated to VENUS and other deities, whom they imagined pleaſed with ſuch actions. But however that be, 'tis evident, as Mr. ADDISON obſerves, that Baiæ was the winter retreat of the Romans, that being the proper ſeaſon to enjoy the *Baiani Soles*, and the *Mollis Lucrinus*; as on the contrary, Tivoli, Tuſculum, Alba, Freſcati, Anxur, &c. were their retirements during the heats of ſummer. (Dr. BURNET *forgets himſelf therefore, when he makes the Romans reſide at Baiæ in ſummer.*) To confirm which, Mr. ADDISON gives us a paſſage in MART. L. I. Ep. 116. which he thus tranſlates;

While near the Lucrine lake conſum'd to death
I draw the ſultry air and gaſp for breath,
Where ſteams of ſulphur raiſe a ſtifling heat,
And thro' the pores of the warm pumice ſweat,
You taſte the cooler breeze, where nearer home
The twentieth pillar marks the mile from Rome.
And now the ſun to the bright lion turns,
And Baia with redoubled fury burns;
Then briny ſeas and taſteful ſprings farewel,
Where fountain Nymphs confus'd with Nereids
In winter you may all the world deſpiſe, [dwell,
But now 'tis Tivoli that bears the prize.

Monte Nuovo produced by an earthquake.

The Elyſian Fields.

Near the lake of Lucrine is another road wrought through a rock, like that of PAUSILIPPUS, and in it ſome grotto's, which they call the apartment of the Cumæan Sibyl. They ſhew alſo the ruins of buildings about Baiæ, which they call the palaces of CÆSAR, POMPEY, CICERO, and other Romans of diſtinction; but the face of this country has been ſo altered by earthquakes, that there is very little to be depended on of this kind, particularly on the 19th of September 1538, at night there happened an earthquake, which produced the Monto Nuovo, or the new mountain, which is four hundred fathoms high, and three thouſand paces in circumference; at which time, ſays my author, the neighbouring ſea retired, the Lucrine lake was almoſt filled up, churches and houſes were ſet on fire and ſwallowed up, great numbers of men and beaſts periſhed, and there was a general conſternation through all the country; but this mountain has never thrown out fire or ſmoke, or occaſioned any diſorder ſince that time. That little ſpot of ground called the Elyſian Fields, lies about a mile from Baia, and has not much to render it admired at preſent. Two miles to the weſtward of Baia are the ruins of the ancient *Miſenum*, on a promontory which runs into the ſea, and ſtill retains the name. Here, it is ſaid, LUCULLUS had his country ſeat, and is ſuppoſed to have dug the many grotto's and caves in the rocks which are upon this coaſt. Near this place alſo is the Piſcina Mirabilis, built upon arches ſupported by forty-eight ſquare pillars, ſuppoſed to be the work of the ſame LUCULLUS: and not far off lies Bauli, the ſeat of AGRIPPINA, NERO's mother, with that of HORTENSIUS, and the ruins of his famous fiſh-ponds. But not to enumerate more particulars, I ſhall refer the reader to the map of Puzzoli and Baia, bound up with this volume, where he will find the ſituation of moſt of the remarkable places in the neighbourhood of that city, mentioned by the Claſſicks.

Miſenum.

Cuma.

Cuma, or rather the ruins of it, lie two miles to the northward of Baia, partly on a mountain, and partly on the ſea-ſhore, and formerly gave name to the bay, now called the bay or gulph of Naples. From this place one of the Sibyls was denominated the Cumæan Sybil.

Capua.

Capua is ſituated in the Campania Fœlix, on the river Vulturnus, about two miles from the ancient Capua, in a pleaſant plain, ſixteen miles to the northward of Naples, and above an hundred and twenty ſouth of Rome. The town is in a declining condition at preſent, and remarkable for little but being the See of an Archbiſhop. Here the famous HANNIBAL waſted his time and his army, while the Romans recovered from their conſternation after their defeat at Cannæ, and not long afterwards compelled him to quit Italy.

Carinola.

Carinola ſtands about ten miles north-weſt of Capua, a poor ruinous city, in an unhealthful air, conſiderable only for being a Biſhop's See, and for the Mount Falernum in its neighbourhood, which produces that delicious wine ſo much admired by HORACE.

Gaieta.

Gaieta is ſituated on a rock, near a bay of the ſea to which it communicates its name, about fifty miles north-weſt of Naples, and eight ſouth-eaſt of Rome. The harbour is one of the beſt in the kingdom, and is defended by two caſtles. It was almoſt the only town that made any defence when the Imperialiſts invaded Naples in the year 1707, when it was taken by ſtorm, and the gariſon retiring into the caſtles, was obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion; whereby the Viceroy, the Duke of ESCALONA, and all the Grandees in the Spaniſh intereſt who had ſhut themſelves up in Gaieta, were made priſoners.

Fondi.

Fondi is ſituated about ten miles to the northward of Gaieta, and gives name to a neighbouring lake and moraſs, which makes this a very unhealthful country. It is now a poor place, and only conſiderable for its being a Biſhop's See.

Aquino.

Aquino ſtands on the river Garigliano, about fifteen miles north-eaſt of Gaieta, on the confines of the Eccleſiaſtical State, and is a Biſhop's See, but remarkable for little, unleſs the birth of the famous THOMAS AQUINAS, who firſt ſaw the Light here.

Sora.

Sora is ſituated on the Garigliano, fifteen miles to the northward of Aquino, and is a pretty little town, and the See of an Archbiſhop.

Monte Caſſino.

Monte Caſſino lies three miles to the eaſtward of Aquino, and is remarkable for the fine abbey of Benedictines, their founder St. BENNET being interred here about the year 543. The church belonging to the convent is one of the moſt magnificent fabricks in Italy.

St. Mary's.

St. Mary's is a large town near the ruins of old Capua, remarkable on account of the antiquities which ſtill remain there, particularly the ruins of two amphitheatres, ſeveral Pagan temples, columns, and one of the gates of the ancient city.

Venafro.

Venafro, Tiano, Aliſi, Cerrito, Cajazze, Calvi, Caſerta, Averſa, Nola, Caſtella Mare de Strabia, Vica and Sorento, are all Biſhops Sees, but not conſiderable enough to deſerve a particular deſcription.

The Principato Citerior.

The Principato Citerior, or the hither principality, is bounded by the Terra di Lavoro and the Principato Ulterior towards the north; by the Baſilicata on the eaſt; by Calabria towards the ſouth-eaſt; and by the Tuſcan ſea towards the ſouth-weſt: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Salerno. 2. Cava. 3. Minuri. 4. Amalfi. 5. Scala. 6. Lettere. 7. Nocera. 8. Sarno. 9. Campagna. 10. Evoli. 11. Cangiano. 12. Satriano. 13. Marſico. 14. Policaſtro. 15. Caſtella Mare della Bruca. 16 Acerno; and, 17. Capaccio.

Chief towns.

Salerno.

Salerno, the capital, ſtands at the bottom of a bay of the Tuſcan ſea, from hence called the bay of Salerno, twenty ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Naples: the town has a good harbour, and is an Archbiſhop's See; they have alſo a univerſity, where phyſick was chiefly ſtudied; but I don't find it is a town of any great conſequence at preſent.

Amalfi.

Amalfi is ſituated on the ſame bay, about ten miles to the weſtward of Salerno: It is an Archbiſhop's See, and is a tolerable harbour. Here, it is ſaid, FLAVIUS BLONDUS was born, who invented the ſeaman's compaſs; and, according to the tradition of the place, the corpſe of St. ANDREW the Apoſtle lies buried here.

Policaſtro.

Policaſtro lies at the bottom of a bay, to which it communicates its name, about fifty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Salerno; being a Biſhop's See, but a very inconſiderable town at preſent.

Scala, &c.

Scala, Lettere, Nocera, Sarno, Campagna, Satriano, Marſico, Acerno and Capaccio, are all Biſhops Sees, but too inconſiderable to deſerve a particular deſcription.

The Principato Ulterior.

The Principato Ulterior, or further principality, is bounded by the Moliſe and Capitanata on the north-eaſt; by the Baſilicata on the eaſt; by the hither principality towards the ſouth; and by the Terra di Lavoro towards the weſt. The chief towns whereof are, 1 Benevento. 2. Monteſoſcolo. 3. Ariano. 4. Trevico. 5. Cedogna. 6. Biſaccia. 7. Monte Verde. 8. St. Angelo de Lombardy. 9. Friventi. 10. Luſco. 11 Conza. 12. Avellino. 13. Volturara. 14 St. Agatha di Goti. 15. Monte Marano; and 16. Trimaldi.

Chief towns.

Benevento.

Benevento, anciently a colony of the Samnites, is ſituated at the conflux of the rivers Sabato and Colore, about an hundred and thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Rome, and thirty-four north-eaſt of Naples. It was given with the territory belonging to it to Pope Leo IX, by the Emperor HENRY III, in exchange for Bamberg in Germany. The earthquakes and eruptions of Mount Veſuvius have been more fatal to this city than to Naples. The ſame earthquake which ſhook Naples ſo terribly in the year 1688, made this a heap of rubbiſh; and the preſent Pope, who was then Archbiſhop of Benevento, for ſome time lay buried under the ruins of his palace, as has been already related at large. This city is an Archbiſhop's See, and generally poſſeſſed by a Cardinal: The revenues being very large, and the city belonging to the Pope, his Holineſs having in a manner rebuilt the city ſince the earthquake, and conferred many privileges upon the place; it is now in a very flouriſhing condition, and the cardinals find ſome difficulty in perſuading the Pope not to make it the place of his reſidence.

Monteſoſcolo.

Monteſoſcolo is a ſmall city, five miles ſouth-eaſt of Benevento; the reſidence of the Governor of the province, and on that account eſteemed the capital.

Conza.

Conza is ſituated on the river Ofanto, about twenty-five miles to the ſouthward of Benevento, the See of an Archbiſhop; but almoſt ruined by an earthquake in the year 1694. Ariano, Trevico, Cedogna, Biſaccia, Monte Verde, St. Angelo de Lombardy, Luſco, Avellino, Volturara, St. Agatha de Goti and Monte Marano, are all Biſhops Sees, but not remarkable upon any other account.

The Abruzzo.

The Abruzzo is bounded by the Pope's dominions on the north-weſt; by the gulph of Venice on the north-eaſt; by Capitanata in Apulia on the ſouth-eaſt; and by the Terra di Lavoro on the ſouth-weſt; being about an hundred miles in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, and about fifty miles in breadth, divided into three parts, *viz.* the Abruzzo Citerior, the Abruzzo Ulterior, and the county of Moliſa.

The Abruzzo. Citerior.

The Abruzzo Citerior, or the hither Abruzzo, is bounded by Abruzzo Ulterior towards the north-weſt; by the gulph of Venice on the north-eaſt; by the county of Moliſa on the ſouth-eaſt; and by the Terra di Lavoro on the ſouth-weſt; being about fifty miles in length, and forty in breadth. The chief towns are, 1. Civita di Chieti. 2. Lanciano Anxanum. 3. Sulmona; and 4. Ortona de Mare.

Chief towns.

Civita de Chieti.

Civita de Chieti, the capital of the province, ſtands about ten miles to the weſtward of the gulph of Venice, and is a large populous place, and the See of an Archbiſhop; it was anciently called *Theatea*, and gave name to the Theatin Monks, as it is ſaid, for JOHN PETER CARAFFA their founder was Archbiſhop of this place, and afterwards advanced to the pontificate by the name of PAUL V.

Theatea.

Lanciano.

Lanciano is ſituated on the gulph of Venice, about fourteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Civita di Chieti; a large populous place, and an Archbiſhop's See, conſiderable for its trade, eſpecially at their Fairs, when it is frequented by merchants from both ſides the gulph of Venice.

Sulmona.

Sulmona ſtands about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Civita Chieti; and is conſiderable only as it is a Biſhop's See, and the town where OVID was born.

Ortona.

Ortona is ſituated on the ſea coaſt, about twelve miles to the eaſt-ward of Civita di Chieti: It has a tolerable harbour, and is the See of a Biſhop.

Abruzzo Ulterior.

The Abruzzo Ulterior, or the further Abruzzo, is bounded by the Pope's dominions on the north; by the gulph of Venice on the eaſt; by Abruzzo Citerior towards the ſouth-eaſt; and by the Campania of Rome towards the weſt; being about ſixty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and forty in breadth, the middle of it a mountainous country, but the reſt abounds in corn, cattle, ſaffron and fruits. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Aquila. 2. Terano. 3. Atri; and, 4. Civita di Penna.

Chief towns.

Aquila.

Aquila is ſituated at the foot of the Apennines on the river Piſcara, about eighty miles north-eaſt of Naples, and twenty-five to the weſt-ward of Civita di Chieti; being the capital of the province, and an Archbiſhop's See, but miſerably deſtroyed by an earthquake in the year 1703, together with ſeveral other towns in the neighbourhood. In the Pope's dominions at the ſame time ſeveral towns were deſtroyed, and fifteen thouſand people periſhed; Rome itſelf was alſo terribly ſhaken by the ſame earthquake, abundance of houſes and buildings in that city ſhattered and damaged, particularly the churches of St. Paul, St. Carlo, and St. Gregory. This happened on the fourteenth of February in the night-time; and it was obſerved that the ſun had not ſhone out in two months time before. The Pope on this occaſion proclaimed a jubilee, with plenary indulgence to all who confeſſed their ſins, and viſited the three principal churches in Rome; all orders and ſocieties thereupon went in proceſſion, tearing their fleſh with whips and cords; the Pope and Cardinals ſupplied the place of confeſſors themſelves, and adminiſtred the ſacrament of repentance. And what increaſed the general conſternation, was a pack of villians who had diſperſed themſelves all over the city in order to plunder the houſes of the affrighted inhabitants: they knocked at every door almoſt, crying out, that the Pope had juſt received a revelation that the town would be ſuddenly ſwallowed up by another earthquake; whereupon the people fled half-naked into the fields and gardens, leaving their houſes to be plundered by theſe fellows. And it was a conſiderable time before they were undeceived, by the Pope's ordering his guards to patrol along the ſtreets, and declare that he had no ſuch revelation.

Terano.

Terano ſtands twenty miles north-eaſt of Aquila; it is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan of Civita Chieti, but not remarkable on any other account.

Atri.

Atri, or Atria, the town where the Emperor Hadrian was born, is ſituated four miles weſt of the gulph of Venice, and ten ſouth-eaſt of Terano, and is a Biſhop's See, united to that of La Penna, a ſmall town five miles ſouth-weſt of Atri, which belongs to the Duke of Parma.

La Penna.

The county of Moliſe.

The County of Moliſe, or Moliſa, is bounded by the Abruzzo Citerior and the gulph of Venice on the north and eaſt; by Apulia on the ſouth; and by the Terra di Lavoro towards the weſt; and is about forty miles in length, and thirty in breadth; fruitful in corn and wine, and produces great quantities of ſilk: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Iſernia. 2. Moliſa. 3. Trivento. 4. Garda Alferez. 5. Larina; and, 6. Boiano.

Chief towns.

Iſernia.

Iſernia is ſituated on the confines of the Terra di Lavoro, thirty miles to the northward of Capua; and is a populous place, the See of a Biſhop, and capital of the county.

Moliſa.

Moliſa is a little fortified town, in a ruinous condition, twelve miles to the eaſtward of Iſernia. Trivento, Garda, Alferez and Boiano, are all Biſhops Sees, but conſiderable for little elſe.

Trivento, &c.

Apulia or la Puglia.

La Puglia, or Apulia, is bounded by the Abruzzo towards the north; by the gulph of Venice on the eaſt; by the Ionian ſea on the ſouth-eaſt; and by Calabria and the Terra di Lavoro on the weſt; being near two hundred miles in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, ſixty in breadth in ſome places and in others ſcarce twenty; and is divided into, 1. The Capitanata. 2. The Terra di Barri; and, 3. The Terra di Otranto.

The Capitanata.

The Capitanata is bounded by the Moliſe and the gulph of Venice on the north and eaſt; by the Terra di Barri on the ſouth-eaſt; and by the Terra di Lavoro towards the weſt; being about ſeventy miles in length, and fifty in breadth, abounding in corn and paſturage. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Manfredonia. 2. Mont St. Angelo. 3. Bieſte. 4. Leſina. 5. Termine. 6. Dragonara. 7. San Severo. 8. Troja. 9. Bovino. 10. St. Marco; and, 11. Salpe.

Chief towns.

Manfredonia.

Manfredonia, the ancient *Sipontum*, is ſituated on a Bay in the Adriatick ſea, about fourſcore miles to the eaſtward of Naples; and had its modern name from Manfred Son of the Emperor Frederick II. who repaired and beautified it. It was taken and almoſt demoliſhed by the Turks in the year 1620, but has pretty well recovered it ſelf, and has a tolerable harbour, a caſtle, and ſome other fortifications for its defence, and is ſtill an Archbiſhop's See.

Mont St. Angelo.

Mont St. Angelo is ſituated on the top of Mont Gargano, about eight miles to the eaſtward of Manfredonia, a populous place, and much frequented by pilgrims, on account of St. Michael, who, according to tradition, appeared here in the fifth century, and to whom they have dedicated a fine church in this place.

Leſina.

Leſina ſtands on a lake of the ſame name, near the Adriatick ſea, about twenty miles to the northward of Mont St. Angelo; and was a conſiderable town before it was deſtroyed by an earthquake in the year 1627.

Bieſte, &c.

Bieſte, Termine, Dragonara, or Tragonara, San Severo, Troia, Bovino and Salpe, are all of them Biſhops Sees, but not conſiderable on any other account.

Terra di Barri.

The Terra di Barri is bounded by the Capitanata and the gulph of Venice on the north and eaſt; and by the Terra di Otranto and the Baſilicate on the ſouth and weſt; extending about ſeventy miles in length, and thirty in breadth; producing corn, wine, ſaffron, and fruits, but wants water in many places, and is troubled with that dangerous inſect, among many others, called the Tarantula. The chief towns are, 1. Barri. 2. Giavonazza. 3. Molfetta. 4 Biſeglia. 5. Trani. 6. Barletta. 7. Canoſa. 8. Cannæ. 9. Andria. 10. Altamura. 11. Bittetto. 12. Converſano. 13. Polignano. 14. Monopoli.

Chief towns.

Barri.

Barri, the capital, is ſituated on the gulph of Venice, in a very pleaſant country, an hundred and twenty miles to the eaſtward of Naples, and forty ſouth of Manfredonia; a pretty well-built town, and an Archbiſhop's See; but moſt remarkable for the Relicks of St. Nicholas Biſhop of Mira, brought hither out of Lycia.

Trani.

Trani is ſituated on the ſame coaſt, about twenty miles north-weſt of Barri, anciently called *Trajanum*, having been built by the Emperor Trajan; it had once a good harbour, but is moſt conſiderable at preſent for being the See of an Archbiſhop.

Cannæ.

Cannæ, or rather the remains of Cannæ, where the Romans received that memorable defeat by the Carthaginians, loſing forty thouſand men on the field of battle, lies about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Trani. The reſt of the towns above mentioned are only remarkable on account of their being the Sees of ſo many Biſhops, and do not deſerve a particular deſcription.

Otranto Territory. Chief towns.

The Terra di Otranto is a peninſula, encompaſſed on every ſide by the Adriatick or Ionian ſeas, except on the north-weſt, where it is bounded by the Terra di Barri, and the Baſilicate; being about an hundred miles in length, and from twenty to thirty in breadth; the chief produce whereof is olives, figs, and other fruits. The chief towns are, 1. Otranto. 2. Leccie. 3. Brindiſi. 4. Oſtuni. 5. Oria. 6. Tarento. 7. Nardo. 8. Gallipoli. 9. Aleſſano; and, 10. Maria di Luca.

Otranto city.

Oranto lies on the gulph of Venice, in the moſt eaſtern part of Italy, about two hundred miles ſouth-eaſt of Naples, and was anciently called *Hydruntum*: It was deſtroyed by the Turks in the year 1480, but has been rebuilt and fortified ſince, and is defended by a caſtle built upon a rock. It is the See of an Archbiſhop, whoſe revenues are very great; from hence the Italians uſually take ſhipping for Greece, it lying over againſt that country.

Leccie.

Leccie is ſituated fifteen miles to the northward of Otranto, and is a populous trading town, the capital of the province, and the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Otranto.

Brindiſi.

Brindiſi, the ancient *Brunduſium*, is ſituated on the gulph of Venice, about thirty miles to the northward of Otranto; a large well-built populous town, and an Archbiſhop's See, and has one of the beſt harbours on the Adriatick. Here it was that CÆSAR embarked his troops when he followed POMPEY to the plains of Pharſalia; and here, it is ſaid, VIRGIL died when he went to meet AUGUSTUS in his return from the eaſt.

Taranto.

Taranto, or Tarentum, is ſituated on a bay of the Ionian ſea, to which it communicates its name; being about ſixty miles north-weſt of Otranto, and ſixty to the ſouthward of Barri; a town of great antiquity, ſuppoſed to have been built by the Lacedemonians. It was the head of a powerful republick anciently, which contended with the Romans for empire; now but a ſmall city, their harbour almoſt choaked up, and conſequently their trade upon the decline: It is however an Archbiſhop's See, and the capital of a little principality. The ſpiders, called Tarantula's, being moſt commonly met with here, received their name from hence.

Gallipoli.

Gallipoli is ſituated on the Ionian ſea, about twenty miles to the weſtward of Otranto; it ſtands on a ſteep rock, ſurrounded by the ſea, and joined to the continent by a ſtone bridge; ſaid to be one of the ſtrongeſt and beſt towns in the kingdom of Naples, and is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Otranto.

Oſtuni, &c.

Oſtuni, Oria, Nardo, Aleſſano, and St. Mary de Luca, are only conſiderable on account of their being Biſhops Sees.

Calabria.

Calabria, ſo called from the Calabri, a Grecian people, is bounded by Apulia on the north-eaſt; by the Ionian ſea on the ſouth-eaſt; and by the Tuſcan ſea and the ſtraits of Meſſina towards the weſt; being about an hundred and fifty miles in length from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, and about ſixty in breadth, but in many places it is very narrow: It was anciently called *Magna Græcia* by the Greeks, who ſettled here. Then the Romans poſſeſſed it, and after them the eaſtern Emperors, till the Saracens made a conqueſt of it in the ninth century. Theſe infidels were expelled by ROBERT DE GUISCARD in the eleventh century, who took upon him the title of Duke of Apulia and Calabria: one of whoſe poſterity bequeathed it to ROGER II, King of Naples and Sicily, about the year 1106; ſince when it has been deemed part of the kingdom of Naples, and is divided into the Baſilicate, Calabria Citerior and Calabria Ulterior.

The Baſilicate. Chief towns.

The Baſilicate is bounded by the Capitanata towards the north; by the Terra di Barri and Otranto on the eaſt; by the bay of Taranto and Calabria Citerior on the ſouth; and by Lavoro Citerior on the weſt; being about ſeventy miles in length from north to ſouth, and forty-five in breadth from eaſt to weſt; and produces corn, wine, oil, ſaffron, cotton, wax, and the moſt delicious fruits. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Cirenza, or Acerenza. 2. Venoſa. 3. Laviello. 4. Melfi. 5. Rapolla. 6. Mura. 7. Tricarico. 8. Monte Piloſa. 9. Potenza; and, 10. Turſis, or Turſi.

Cirenza.

Cirenza, the capital of the province, is ſituated about fourſcore miles ſouth-eaſt of Naples, and forty to the weſtward of Barri, a ſmall city, and not in a very flouriſhing condition, but is however an Archbiſhop's See.

Venoſo.

Venoſo ſtands about ten miles north-weſt of Cirenza, and is a Biſhop's See, ſuppoſed by ſome to be the place where HORACE was born

Turſis.

Turſis is ſituated about ten miles north-weſt of the bay of Tarento, and forty ſouth-eaſt of Cirenza. It gives title to a Genoeſe Prince of the Family of DORIA, and is a Biſhop's See.

Laviello, &c.

Laviello, Melfi, Rapolla, Atura, Tricarico. Monte Piloſa and Potenza, are alſo Biſhop's Sees, but I don't find they are remarkable on any other account.

Calabria Citerior. Chief towns.

Calabria Citerior, or the hither Calabria, is bounded by the Baſilicate and the Ionian ſea on the north and eaſt; and by the ſame ſea, Calabria Ulterior, and the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth and weſt; being about ſixty miles in length, and as many in breadth. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Coſenza. 2. Corenza. 3. Strongoli. 4. Umbriatico. 5. Cariati Novo. 6. Roſſano. 7. Caſſano. 8. Biſſignano. 9. Amantea, or Adamantia.

Coſenza.

Coſenza, the capital of both the Calabria's, is ſituated about twenty miles to the eaſtward of the Tuſcan ſea; a large well-built town, but has ſuffered pretty much by earthquakes: It is the See of an Archbiſhop, and has a good caſtle, from whence there is a fine proſpect of the neighbouring country. ALARIC King of the Viſigoths died in this city.

Strongoli.

Strongoli is a little city, ſituated on a mountain two or three miles from the Ionian ſea, and thirty ſouth-eaſt of Coſenza, a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to St. Severina.

Corenza.

Corenza, Umbriatico, Cariati Novo, Roſſano, Caſſano, Biſſignano and Amantea, are all Biſhops Sees, but travellers do not think them worth a particular deſcription.

Calabria Ulterior. Chief towns.

Calabria Ulterior lies between the Tuſcan and the Ionian ſeas, and is joined to the continent only on the north-eaſt, where it borders on the hither Calabria; being about eighty miles in length, and fifty in breadth in ſome places, and in others ſcarce twenty. Beſides the other produce of this country, they are remarkable for fine Horſes. The chief towns are, 1. Rhegio. 2. St. Severina. 3. Cotrona. 4. Iſola. 5. Belcaſtro. 6. Nicotera. 7. Taverno. 8. Nicaſtro. 9. Monte. 10. Leone. 11. Seminara. 12. Squillaci. 13. Melito. 14. Oppido. 15 Bova; and, 16. Givia.

Rhegio.

Rhegio, or Rhegium, ſtands on the ſtreights of Meſſina, almoſt oppoſite to that city, and is the common paſſage from Italy to Sicily, this ſtreight being about fifteen miles over here. It is a pretty good town, and the See of an Archbiſhop.

St. Severino.

St. Severino ſtands on the confines of Calabria Citerior, not far from the Ionian ſea, a little well-built city, and the See of an Archbiſhop. The reſt of the towns of this province are only remarkable as they are the Sees of ſo many Biſhops, and have moſt of them ſuffered pretty much by earthquakes.

CHAP. XXVII.

Contains an abſtract of the ancient and modern hiſtory of Naples, with an account of their nobility and preſent conſtitution; the produce of the ſoil, their trade, manufactures, revenues, forces and intereſts.

CHAP. XXVII.

An abſtract of the hiſtory of Naples.

THE countries of which the kingdom of Naples is compoſed, anciently called *Samnium*, *Campania*, *Apulia*, and *Magna Græcia*, were planted by colonies from Greece at leaſt; theſe are the firſt inhabitants we have an account of in hiſtory, and, according to tradition, the city of Naples was built by HERCULES. When the Romans began to enlarge their limits, part of this kingdom they ſubdued by force of arms, but the city of Naples and the territories belonging to it early ſubmitted to the Roman power without compulſion, and was numbered among their free confederated cities, and according to LIVY, always remained firm to the Roman intereſt; even in their great diſtreſs during the Carthaginian war, Naples is applauded for her fidelity, when Capua and many other cities in the neighbourhood revolted to HANNIBAL. On the declenſion of the Roman Empire in the fifth century, the Goths poſſeſſed themſelves of this part of Italy, and though they were driven from thence by BELISARIUS, the Emperor JUSTINIAN's General, who entered Naples by the aqueducts, and other ſubterraneous paſſages, about the year 537; the Goths under TOTILUS retook it again anno 543, but were diſpoſſeſſed by the Lombards ſome few years after, who remained maſters of it till CHARLEMAIN having taken DIDIER the laſt King of the Lombards priſoner in the eighth century, ſhared this country, which now goes under the name of the kingdom of Naples, with the Greeks, who were poſſeſſed of ſeveral free cities and ſtates in it. In the ninth and tenth centuries the Saracens invaded this country, and made themſelves maſters of great part of it, from whence they were driven with ſome difficulty by the Normans and the Pope in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. In which TANCRED the Norman and his twelve ſons having been very inſtrumental, had large territories aſſigned them: ROBERT the ſon of TANCRED was created Duke of Apulia and Calabria by the Emperor, and ROGER the ſon of ROBERT was advanced to the dignity of King of Naples and Sicily, or rather of the two Sicilies, for Naples was then called Sicily on this ſide the Pharo (or the ſtreight of Meſſina) and the iſland of Sicily beyond the Pharo. ROGER was ſucceeded by his ſon WILLIAM anno 1135, to whom ſucceeded his ſon WILLIAM II, about the year 1166; who left both Naples and Sicily to TANCRED his baſe ſon, who was oppoſed by the Pope, poſſibly on account of his refuſing to hold his dominions of his Holineſs, who claimed a right to them, as being principally concerned in expelling the Saracens: and HENRY VI, ſon to the Emperor FREDERICK I, Duke of Swabia, was ſet up againſt him; and to ſtrengthen HENRY's title, the Pope perſuaded him to marry CONSTANTIA, whom he brought out of a nunnery, pretending that ſhe was heireſs to the kingdom. The Pope however upon ſome diſguſt to the Swabian family, afterwards introduced the Earl of Anjou, and the French, who were ſovereigns of this kingdom till the year 1267, or according to others 1282, when the Sicilians apprehending themſelves to be oppreſſed, formed a conſpiracy againſt their maſters; and on Eaſter-Eve that year, when the bells rung for prayers, they ſet upon the French throughout the iſland, and left ſcarce any of them alive; and this memorable maſſacre thereupon obtained the name of the Sicilian Veſpers. At the ſame time PETER of Arragon, who ſupported the conſpirators, having obtained a victory at ſea over CHARLES II, of Anjou, and made him priſoner, compelled him to reſign his pretenſions to Sicily and Sardinia, which then conſtituted part of the kingdom of Naples. Whereupon the French remained maſters only of that part of the kingdom which lay on the continent, and which we call Naples at this day. I ſhall not trouble the reader with the ſucceſſions of all the French and Spaniſh Princes who were Sovereigns of Naples and Sicily, or their wars, which laſted two or three hundred years; only obſerve that the Arragonians, or Spaniards, entirely expelled the French from Naples and Sicily about the year 1504, and enjoyed thoſe countries till the year 1700, when the Duke of Anjou, the preſent King of Spain, took poſſeſſion of Naples and Sicily, with the reſt of the Spaniſh dominions, by virtue of the will of CHARLES II, the late King of Spain, which was one occaſion of the laſt war between the Imperialiſts and their confederates on the one ſide, and the French and Spaniards on the other. In the courſe of which war, the Imperialiſts having driven the French and Spaniards out of the Milaneſe, detached fifteen thouſand men under the command of Count THAUN to Naples, who entered that kingdom without oppoſition; and on the ſixth of July 1707, the capital city ſubmitted to them without ſtriking a ſtroke, the caſtles of Naples ſurrendering the ſixteenth of the ſame month. And on the twenty ninth of September following, Count THAUN took Gaieta by ſtorm, with the Viceroy, and all the nobility in the French intereſt, which was the only place that made any defence; and the Imperialiſts have remained in the quiet poſſeſſion of the kingdom of Naples ever ſince, paying the uſual acknowledgment of a Spaniſh jennet and ſeven thouſand ducats annually to the Pope on St. PETER's Eve, for the inveſtiture: the Pope looking upon Naples as a fee of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, on account of the ſhare he had in driving the Saracens from thence.

A numerous clergy and nobility.

The dignified clergy and nobility of this kingdom are very numerous, ſome reckon up twenty-five Archbiſhops, an hundred and twenty-five Biſhops, near three hundred Princes, Dukes, Marquiſſes and Earls, above a thouſand baronies, and twelve or fifteen hundred caſtles; but as a Neapolitan barony, and an Engliſh manor were originally much the ſame, ſo theſe caſtles are no more than the country ſeats of the quality, with a ſingle wall and ditch about them, at moſt like the Chateau's or gentlemens ſeats in Flanders, ſufficient to ſecure them and their families againſt a troop of Banditti or Turkiſh rovers, but by no means capable of reſiſting an army. The better to underſtand the preſent conſtitution of the kingdom of Naples, it may be proper to divide the people into four claſſes, 1. The Clergy. 2. The Nobility and Gentry. 3. Tradeſmen and Mechanicks: And, 4. Peaſants.

The kingdom divided into four claſſes.

The produce of the country and trade.

The Clergy are poſſeſſed of one third of the lands of the whole kingdom, (Dr. BURNET ſays half) and in tythes, offerings and legacies, they have a great deal more. The crown, the nobility and gentry poſſeſs almoſt all the reſt of the lands. The tradeſmen and peaſants have ſcarce any they can call their own: they are no better than tenants at will in a literal ſenſe. The peaſants are ſubjects and vaſſals to their lords, as they were formerly in England, and moſt other countries in Europe. They manure the Lord's lands, plant and prune his vines and olives, and are allowed no more than a bare ſubſiſtence for their poor families. They come for juſtice alſo to the courts of their reſpective Lords in all caſes that are not capital or highly criminal, and are in every reſpect ſubject to theſe petty Sovereigns. The King's tenants are uſed much the beſt, it ſeems, and thoſe of the nobility better than the vaſſals of the clergy, if we may credit ſome of our Proteſtant travellers; and they give this reaſon for it, that the clergy having no children to ſucceed to their eſtates, rack their tenants and get all they can in their life-time, allowing them nothing towards bettering or improving their grounds, becauſe their poſterity can reap no advantage by it. As the crown-lands pay no taxes, ſo neither do thoſe of the clergy, but with their own conſent; and conſequently the charges of the government are born chiefly by the nobility and gentry. Dr. BURNET aſſures us that the Jeſuits and other orders of the clergy ſold their wine themſelves by retail, as well as wholeſale, when he was at Naples, for which they paid no duty to the crown. Their corn, oil, ſilk and fruits, they ſell in the like manner, and what is not conſumed at home, is tranſported by foreign merchants, for there are few merchants among the Neapolitans. Their corn is ſent to Spain by Engliſh or Dutch ſhips; their oil is a great deal of it taken off by us. The nobility as well as the clergy ſell the produce of their eſtates directly to foreigners; but with this diſadvantage, that they pay a duty to the crown out of their crops, whereas the clergy pay little or nothing. The nobility and gentry therefore are the people that, in Dr. BURNET's phraſe, are oppreſſed by the government, if there be any, for they bear the whole burthen of it: their lands, or the produce of them, muſt anſwer all the exigencies of the State. As to the tradeſmen and mechanicks, they manufacture little more of their ſilks at home than will ſerve their own people; and as they wear chiefly black or dark colours, and after the Spaniſh mode, ſeldom alter their faſhions, their home conſumption is but ſmall, and conſequently the government can raiſe but little from thence. And as to the peaſants or farmers, who are tenants to the crown, the nobility or clergy, and are their ſubjects or vaſſals, whatever they have is the property of their reſpective Lords; and if theſe poor people are oppreſſed, they are oppreſſed by their maſters, and not by the government. Nay, it is obſerved, that the tenants and vaſſals of the crown are much better uſed than thoſe who belong either to the clergy or nobility; inſomuch, that if the crown is about to ſell or alienate the farms to which they belong, they unanimouſly petition againſt it, apprehending much ſeverer uſage from the clergy and nobility than from the government. Dr. BURNET, and ſome other travellers, aſcribe the miſery and poverty of the Neapolitans ſometimes to lazineſs and ſloth, as well as to the tyranny of the government: but I preſume the lords of the ſoil, the nobility and clergy, take care that their vaſſals ſhall not be idle: if ſome of the lands of the nobility lie uncultivated, as he obſerves they do, it muſt be either becauſe they want hands, or becauſe the duties are ſo high upon the produce, that it is not worth their while to manure them. As to the miſerable inhabitants of their towns, which the Doctor ſaw walking in tattered cloaks in the market-places, this is not to be wondered at, if we conſider they have ſcarce any manufactures amongſt them, and that the proprietors of lands are the only merchants of the country, if they may be called ſuch, who vend no more than the produce of their own farms to foreigners; almoſt the only manufactures, beſides that of ſilk already mentioned, are their ſoap, knit waiſtcoats and ſtockings, ſnuffs and perfumes, which are not like to fill their towns with treaſures: beſides, as theſe people have been long under the Spaniſh government, and are many of them of Spaniſh extraction, the ſame pride that reigns in Spain, is no ſtranger here. The moſt ordinary mechanicks, who are not in a ſtate of vaſſalage or ſlavery, will have their cloaks and ſwords, and had rather ſtarve in freedom than ſerve any lord in the country.

Forces and Revenues.

The forces of this kingdom have been unaccountably magnified by ſome writers, or they have miſtaken the ordinary militia of the kingdom for ſtanding troops. As the nobility and gentry hold their lands here by feudal tenures, as they did formerly with us, and according to the value or extent of their lands were obliged to bring a certain number of horſe and foot into the field, theſe might amount to an hundred thouſand horſe, and a hundred and fifty thouſand foot, anciently, as ſome have calculated; but moſt of theſe military ſervices are now turned into rents, and the Sovereign chuſes to rely upon foreign troops rather than natives. And notwithſtanding the Emperor may well be apprehenſive of having his title to Naples diſputed one day, I queſtion whether he maintains more than fifteen or twenty thouſand regular troops in that kingdom at preſent. As to their naval force, it conſiſted of no more than a man of war or two, and ſome few armed galleys, while they were under the dominion of the Spaniards; but ſince the Emperor has been Sovereign of this kingdom, they have applied themſelves ſo diligently to the building of ſhips, that we ſee a liſt handed about of near thirty ſail of frigates, or ſmall men of war, which his Imperial Majeſty has in theſe ſeas: And why they ſhould not build merchant-ſhips ai well as men of war, when there are ſo many fine ports in Sicily and Naples, and export the produce of their own country themſelves, I can't conceive; unleſs it be that the nobility, who are the proprietors of the lands and ſtaple commodities of the kingdom, have no inclination or encouragement to turn merchants, and the citizens have no ſtocks to carry on a foreign commerce; and if ſo, it is not the Emperor's declaring his harbours free ports that will bring any conſiderable trade to his Italian dominions. There muſt be ſome other regulations of their commerce, before we need be apprehenſive of their taking from us any branch of the Levant-trade.

The publick revenues in the kingdom of Naples, are ſuppoſed to amount to near a million ſterling; which ariſes, 1. From a tax or compoſition with the Barons and other feudatories, in lieu of their perſonal ſervices. 2. From a duty on houſes, which pay uſually fifteen Carolines (or ſixpences) for every hearth. Beſides which, there are duties laid on wine, oil, tobacco and meat; and as the meat is taxed equally by the pound, this duty, Mr. Addison obſerves, lies heavieſt on the coarſeſt ſorts, beef paying a third part of the value, when veal does not pay a tenth of the price to the government. There is ſcarce any thing that is eaten or worn but has a duty laid upon it, unleſs fruits, fowls and game. It was a tax on fruits, which the common people live much upon, that occaſioned the rebellion by Massaniello, and his brethren the fiſhermen and other poor people, who were very near ſubverting the government, and ſtriking out a new conſtitution; for no Prince ever reigned more abſolutely, or had a greater body of men at his command, than Massaniello had for twelve or fifteen days; but ſince that inſurrection, the government have not thought fit to lay any duty upon fruits, unleſs they have done it very lately. The crown, it is ſaid, frequently farms out the ſeveral branches of the revenue to ſome of the moſt powerful and wealthy natives, of whom conſiderable ſums have been borrowed for the exigences of the ſtate; whereby the odium of collecting them falls upon the Neapolitans themſelves, and they ſecure the farmers in their intereſt, according to a maxim in vogue at the revolution here, *The more money you borrow, the more friends you make.* The people will not be very forward for a change of government when they are like to be loſers by it. Thoſe who are moſt oppreſſed by taxes and impoſitions, I find, are the Genoeſe and other foreigners who have purchaſed honours and eſtates in Naples, who are pretty numerous; for theſe the government have no apprehenſions of. They are not afraid of their inciting an inſurrection, as the native nobility and clergy might: And indeed the Sovereign ſeems to be in more danger from the clergy, than any ſet of men in the kingdom, as they are poſſeſſed of great part of the lands and treaſure, and are ſupported by the Pope, whoſe dominions are contiguous. The Pope may well be ſuppoſed alſo to receive a larger revenue from this kingdom, and to have a greater intereſt here, conſidering the wealth and numbers of the Neapolitan clergy and religious orders, than the Imperialiſts themſelves. If the Pope ſhould at any time happen to be diſguſted with the Emperor, and imagine he could find his account in reſtoring the Spaniard, as the clergy can command their vaſſals and very much influence the reſt of the nation in his favour, a revolution might be eaſily effected: But then his Holineſs muſt take care that he is well ſupported by the French and Spaniards, or the Emperor may make repriſals in the eccleſiaſtical State, and perhaps a conqueſt of it. The long poſſeſſion the Emperor had of Comachio, one of the Pope's cities, in the laſt war, ſhews what the Imperialiſts would do if they met with any treacherous underhand dealings from the Holy See; and therefore it is preſumed, his Holineſs will keep as even a hand as poſſible amongſt the Catholick Princes of Europe, and not ſhew too great partiality where it may be attended with fatal conſequences. The greateſt misfortune which attends both Naples and Sicily, is their having been for many ages under the dominion of foreigners, who inſtead of endeavouring to advance the trade, or improve the ſoil of theſe countries, are perpetually contriving ways and means how to drain and fleece the natives of the little treaſure they have: from whence it comes to paſs that two of the moſt fertile kingdoms in Europe, that abound in corn, wine, oil, ſilk and fruits; that have a great number of fine ports, and are the moſt advantageouſly ſituated in point of trade of any countries in the world; are really poor, and make a very contemptible figure. The Sovereign taxes and oppreſſes the nobility and gentry; theſe again rack and plunder their vaſſals and tenants; the clergy ravage all, heaping up vaſt ſums, which never circulate in theſe kingdoms, and the publick intereſt is neglected by all orders and degrees of men: whereas had they a King of their own, who had no foreign views, he would immediately releaſe the commons from the oppreſſions of the nobility, and put them into a way to improve the rich product of their ſoil, to manufacture their own ſilks, to encreaſe their ſhipping, and apply themſelves to foreign commerce; and not let the Dutch and other nations run away with all their gains. Then would the eſtates of the nobility and gentry be doubled in their value, and the commons get a handſom livelihood, whether they applied themſelves to trade or huſbandry. But while the miniſtry are only buſied in projecting new taxes and impoſitions, and framing every year new pretences for levying them, not only with a view of filling their own pockets, but to keep the people in a ſtate of poverty and dependence, that they may not be in a condition to reſent the injuries they ſuffer, how miſerable muſt be the condition even of theſe kingdoms, where nature has been ſo exceeding laviſh in her productions!

The Tarantula.

But among the inconveniences to be met with in Naples, we may add to thoſe already enumerated the ſwarms of flies and inſects with which they are plagued in ſummer, eſpecially in Apulia; inſomuch that it is become a proverb, *If any one would have a foretaſte of hell-torments, let him ſpend a ſummer in Apulia.* The moſt dangerous inſect is the Tarantula, which ſome reſemble to a ſcorpion, which carries a ſting in the tail; and others to a ſpider. According to the beſt information I can get, it is that inſect which reſembles the ſpider that is the true Tarantula, and this neither bites nor ſtings, but drops its poiſon like water on the part it wounds. The other is a real ſcorpion, an inſect not ſo long as a man's finger, nor ſo large; of a greeniſh yellow, which carries its tail with the ſting in it coiled up upon its back, and moves ſo ſlowly that it is very eaſy to get away from it. The cure for the one and the other, according to ſome travellers, is muſick; but in India, where ſcorpions are common, the cure is an oil drawn from the inſect, or the bruiſing him upon the place. The effect of his ſting is a moſt exquiſite pain, which makes a man almoſt diſtracted, ſo that he runs about like a madman for twelve hours, when the pain begins to abate, and is uſually removed within twelve hours more; but I never heard of the party's dancing or being affected by muſick in India, as thoſe are who are wounded by the true Tarantula. One who happened to be ſtung by a ſcorpion in India, told me the pain he ſuffered was as great as if a hot iron had been applied to the part for twelve hours; but it is very ſeldom any perſon dies of the ſting of a houſe-ſcorpion. There is, I am informed, a black wood-ſcorpion, whoſe ſting is mortal. But let us hear what our voyage-writers ſay of the Tarantula which they reſemble to a ſpider. **Misson** ſays, that the party wounded by it makes a thouſand different geſtures in a moment; he weeps, dances, vomits, trembles, laughs, grows pale, cries, ſwoons away, and after a few days torment expires, if he be not aſſiſted in time: that he may find ſome relief from ſweating antidotes, but muſick is the great and only remedy. **Veryard** acquaints us, that the Tarantula is a ſmall animal or inſect reſembling a ſpider, found chiefly about the city of Taranto, ſo ſtrangely venomous, that thoſe who are bitten by it infallibly die, unleſs ſome ſpeedy means be uſed to expel the poiſon; and though they ſeem to be cured, there uſually lurks a remaining ferment in the blood, which ſhews it ſelf by ſeveral odd ſymptoms during the hot months of every ſummer, as long as they live. It ſtupifies the ſenſes of ſome, and makes them drowſy; others become apiſh and extravagant in their actions; others rave, and are as unruly as madmen. There is no remedy againſt the venom, he ſays, but muſick; nor will all kinds of harmony do the feat, but when the patient hears a tune that ſuits with his humour, he immediately expreſſes the utmoſt ſatiſfaction, and falls a dancing with all his might till his ſtrength fails him, and the ſame dance is repeated three or four days together till the poiſon is expelled. I know, ſays **Veryard**, that ſeveral eminent men have queſtioned the truth of this, as I did till I was put out of all doubt of it by ſeveral perſons of unqueſtionable worth and credit, who had been eye-witneſſes of what I here write.

I proceed next to the deſcription of the Italian iſlands.

CHAP. XXVIII.

Treats of the Italian iſlands, and particularly of the iſland of Sicily.

CHAP. XXVIII. The Italian iſlands.

THE Italian iſlands which lie in the gulph of Venice, have been already deſcribed: I come now to thoſe which lie ſouth-weſt of Italy in the Tuſcan ſea; which are, 1. Sicily, with the Lipari iſlands, and thoſe of Lavanza, Maritima and Favagnana belonging to it. 2. The iſlands of Capri, Iſchia, Procita, Ponza, &c. on the coaſt of Naples. 3. The iſlands of Elba, Capraia, Gorgona, &c. on the coaſt of Tuſcany. 4. The iſlands of Sardinia: And, 5. The iſland of Corſica.

Sicily.

I begin with Sicily, not only becauſe it is the largeſt, and in many other reſpects the moſt conſiderable, but becauſe it has the ſame Sovereign with Naples, the kingdom laſt deſcribed.

The name.

Situation and extent

Springs and Rivers.

Mountains.

Harbours.

Sicily, anciently called *Trinacria*, from its triangular figure, and *Ethinæa* by the Poets, from the famous Mount Etna, is ſaid to have obtained the name of Sicily, from the Siculi, an Italian people who planted part of this iſland, which is ſituated between 37 and 38 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and between the 12th and 16th degrees of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London, being about 170 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 100 in breadth from north to ſouth in the broadeſt part. It lies in a very warm climate, but healthful air, being refreſhed with cool breezes from the ſeas and mountains, having the Tuſcan ſea on the north, which is much the longeſt ſide of the triangle; the Faro, or ſtreight of Meſſina, and the Ionian ſea towards the eaſt; and another part of the Mediterranean ſea on the ſouth-weſt, diſtant from the ſhores of Calabria, the ſouth-weſt part of Italy, about ſeven miles. There is not a country in Europe whoſe hill and plains are more fruitful, which occaſioned its being ſtiled the granary of Rome. There are alſo plenty of ſprings and rivers, but few of their rivers navigable, becauſe they fall into one ſea or other at a little diſtance from their ſource. The principal are, 1. That of Thermini, which falls into the bay of Salanto, in the north part of the iſland. 2. The Chantera, which riſes about Mount Etna, and falls into the eaſtern ſea near Taormina. 3. The Laretta, which has its ſource about the middle of the iſland, and diſcharges it ſelf into the bay of Catanea on the eaſt part of the iſland: And, 4. The river Salſa, which riſes in the north part of the iſland, runs almoſt croſs it, and falls into the ſea to the ſouthwards of the iſland. The principal mountains are thoſe of Mount Etna or Gibello, Madoni, and Aſdonis. Their beſt harbours are Meſſina and Syracuſa on the eaſt part of the iſland, Melazzo on the north, Palermo on the north-weſt, and Trapano on the weſt.

Provinces.

Sicily is uſually divided into three parts, or provinces, which take their names from ſo many fine valleys, viz. 1. The valley of Demona. 2. The valley of Mazara: And, 3. The valley of Noto.

Val di Demona.

Chief towns.

The valley of Demona is bounded by the Tuſcan ſea on the north; by the ſtreights of Meſſina and the Ionian ſea towards the eaſt; by the valley of Noto on the ſouth; and by the valley of Mazara towards the weſt. The chief towns are, 1. Meſſina. 2. Diveto. 3. Melazzo. 4. Tindaro. 5. Patti. 6. St. Marco. 7. Ceſaledi. 8. Nicoſia. 9. Catanea; and, 10. Taormina.

Meſſina.

Meſſina, is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt at the north eaſt part of the iſland, from whence the neighbouring ſtreight, which divides Italy from Sicily, is denominated the ſtreight of Faro or Meſſina. It has a large ſecure harbour, along one ſide of which the town ſtretches it ſelf between the mountains and the ſea, lying about 12 or 14 miles to the weſtward of Rhegio in Calabria, and about as many to the ſouthward of Cape Faro, in 38 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, 15 degrees 40 minutes to the eaſtward of London. The town is of a great length, and makes a fine appearance towards the ſea; the houſes being lofty, and built of ſtone, but it does not anſwer a traveller's expectation however when he comes into it, for the ſtreets are narrow, and ill-paved, and conſequently duſty: The Italian proverb ſays, *They have duſt, fleas, and whores in abundance.* And I preſume they give the ſame reaſon for building narrow ſtreets here, as they do in ſome towns of Italy, namely, to ſhade them from the ſcorching ſun. The city is not ſtrong, as appears by the poor defence it made in the late war; but there is a caſtle and ſome forts which held out a conſiderable time after the town was taken. It is a populous trading place, and continues to furniſh Italy with corn, as it did in the time of the Romans; great quantities

ties alſo are exported to Spain and other parts in foreign bottoms: They have alſo a good trade in ſilk, oil, and fruits; and indeed, they want nothing but ſhipping, and a Prince of their own to render them conſiderable. They have large privileges, and the civil government is committed to their own magiſtrates; ſubject however to the controul of the Emperor's Viceroys and officers, who are in poſſeſſion of the caſtles, which command the town; and tho' they might be indulged before their laſt revolt to the Spaniards, the Imperialiſts probably will keep a ſtrict hand over them for the future, ſince they have been obliged by their diſaffection in a manner to make a new conqueſt of the iſland.

An earthquake.

There happened an earthquake in this city in January 1693, which overturned 24 palaces, and ſhook the reſt of the town; whereupon the people fled in the utmoſt conſternation, ſome to the fields, and others to the churches to prayers, eſpecially to the cathedral, where the Archbiſhop preached, and gave abſolution, as the Prieſts did in all parts of the city. They apprehended their laſt hour was approaching; and ſurely nothing could be more terrible, for not only the earth ſhook and threatened to lay their city in ruins, but the thunder and lightning which happened at the ſame time was equally dreadful, the air being all in a flame: however, they eſcaped much better than the reſt of the great towns on the ſame ſide of the iſland, as Syracuſe, Auguſta, Catanea, &c. which were in a manner totally deſtroyed.

Melazzo.

Melazzo is ſituated on the Tuſcan ſea, about twenty-five miles north-weſt of Meſſina, and has a good harbour. The Imperialiſts looked upon this town to be of ſuch conſequence, that they made it a place of arms in the laſt war, and defended it with great vigour againſt the Marquiſs de Lede the Spaniſh General, after he had taken the caſtles of Meſſina; tho' ſome are of opinion, that it coſt both ſides a great deal more than it was worth; however, here the Imperialiſts maintained their ground till ſuch reinforcements joined them from Italy as made them maſters of the field in the year 1719.

Patti.

Patti is a port-town on the ſame coaſt, about five and twenty miles to the weſtward of Melazzo, a pretty good harbour, and a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Meſſina.

Cifalu.

Cifalu, or Cefaledi, ſituate on a cape or promontory fifty miles to the weſtward of Patti, is ſaid to have a ſecure harbour, defended by a caſtle, and a very good trade, and is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Meſſina.

Nicoſia.

Nicoſia is a large town, ſituate on a mountain forty miles to the ſouthward of Cifalu, but I meet with no further deſcription of it.

Taormina

Taormina is a little fortified town, ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, thirty miles to the ſouthward of Meſſina, ſuppoſed to be the ancient *Tauromenium*.

Franca Villa.

To the eaſtward of this place lies Franca Villa, remarkable for an obſtinate battle fought near it, on the twentieth of June 1719, where the Spaniards being ſtrongly entrenched, maintained their poſts againſt the Imperialiſts, and ſung *Te Deum* for the victory: the Imperialiſts, on the other hand, laying ſiege to Meſſina after the battle in the face of the Spaniards, affirmed that victory was on their ſide. Certain it is, there were a great many men killed and wounded on both ſides; and among the reſt, Count MERCI, General of the Imperialiſts, was dangerouſly wounded with a muſket-ball; as was alſo Mr. BYNG, the Engliſh Admiral's ſon, who was a volunteer in this engagement: but both of them recovered.

Catanea.

Catanea ſtands on a bay to which it communicates its name, about thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Taormina, near the foot of Mount Etna, by eruptions from whence and earthquakes it has ſuffered very much, eſpecially in the years 1669 and 1693, but is ſtill a town of ſome conſequence. At the beginning of the earthquake, which happened in January 1693, the ſea retired from the ſhore above two miles, whereupon the people run to the cathedral in the greateſt conſternation, to deprecate the wrath of heaven; but the church and city was however overturned in a moment, and not leſs than eighteen thouſand people periſhed in the ruins, beſides the maimed and wounded, who were dug out of the rubbiſh; but it is ſaid, one of the Canons of that church, who carried about the reliques of St. AGATHA, the patroneſs of the city, happened to be ſaved by a partition-wall that was left ſtanding, wherein the reliques of that Saint were kept; which was looked upon by the devout people of the place as a miracle. In September following there happened another earthquake at Catanea, and in the neighbouring country, which did not do much damage; but it was obſerved, that during the moſt violent ſhocks, the top of Mount Etna was conſiderably ſunk, whereupon the Vicar-General, the Duke of Canaſtra, who was then at Catanea, ſent people to view it, who perceived that the top was fallen in near ſix hundred foot, and that all the earth was tumbled down into the gaping chaſm about it, which was near ſix miles in circumference. At the ſame time all the fountains about Taormina were dried up, and the earth gaped at the foot of a hill about a mile diſtant, and out of the overture broke forth five or ſix torrents of ſulphureous water of different colours, which put the iſland in general in a great conſternation.

Catanea is rendered famous by the two pious brothers, as they are called, AMPHINOMUS and ANAPIUS, natives of this place, who ſeeing a torrent of fire breaking out from Mount Etna, and finding their aged parents unable to ſhift for themſelves, took them on their backs and fled; and when the ſulphureous ſtream had in a manner overtaken them, on a ſudden it divided it ſelf into two branches, and left them room to eſcape: in memory whereof the citizens of Catanea erected a magnificent monument, and ordered an anniverſary feſtival to be kept, that their names might be tranſmitted to poſterity, as SENECA, PAUSANIAS, and other ancient authors relate.

Mount Etna.

From Catanea to the top of Mount Etna there are two ways, the ſhorteſt and ſteepeſt being about twenty miles, and the other thirty: the firſt ten miles of the way is full of towns and villages, vineyards and plantations, which are rendered fruitful by the burnt matter thrown out of the mount, that is diſſolved by the rain. The next ten miles is exceeding pleaſant, planted with vines and fruit-trees, intermixed with corn and paſture grounds, with little rivulets running down the mountain: the upper part is planted with fir-trees, pines and beech, which ſeem to reach the ſky, and is almoſt unpaſſable; and in ſome places there are clefts and cracks in the earth, from whence there iſſues ſmoke, with ſeveral little hillocks which have been raiſed by

Volcano's. Beyond this the mountain is ſurrounded with a circle of ſnow till you come to the grand Volcano on the top, which continually ſends forth ſmoak and flames, and is ſometimes four, ſometimes ſix miles in circumference, more or leſs; according as the eruptions have been, hills are raiſed at one time, and at another ſunk, ſo that the face of it ſeldom continues many years the ſame. Thoſe that pretend to have ſeen this terrible cavern, relate, that the ſides of it are encruſted with ſulphur, that ſometimes there iſſues a pure flame, and at others a mixture of ſmoke and aſhes, and that the noiſe of this burning pit is inconceivably dreadful. As this hill is much larger than that of Mount Veſuvius, being three or fourſcore miles in circumference at the bottom, ſo the eruptions ſeem to have been more frequent and much more dreadful.

The valley of Mazara.

The ſecond diviſion of Sicily is the valley of Mazara, which has the Tuſcan ſea on the north; the valleys of Demona and Noto on the eaſt; and the Mediterranean on the ſouth and weſt; being about ninety miles in length, and ſeventy in breadth. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Palermo. 2. Montreal. 3. Mazara. 4. Gergenti. 5. Marſala. 6. Trapani: And, 7. Caſtella Mare.

Chief towns.

Palermo.

Palermo is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, on the north-weſt part of the iſland, about an hundred and fifty miles to the weſtward of Meſſina, in a moſt fruitful country, and has the advantage of a good harbour, and a briſk trade; the town is alſo well built, and the uſual ſeat of the Viceroy, and the See of an Archbiſhop. When the Spaniards under the Marquiſs de Lede invaded Sicily in July 1718, Count MAFFEI, Viceroy of the King of Sicily, did not think fit to make any defence here, but quitted the city and retired to Meſſina; whereupon the magiſtrates offered their keys to the Spaniſh General, and a few days after the caſtle ſurrendered; from whence it is evident, that Palermo is a place of no great ſtrength. The Imperialiſts afterwards took poſſeſſion of this city in the year 1720, upon the treaty of convention with the Spaniards for their evacuation of Sicily, and are ſtill in poſſeſſion of it.

An earthquake at Palermo, an. 1726.

On the ſecond of September 1726, between ten and eleven at night, ſome ſhocks of an earthquake were felt here, which at firſt were not very violent, but ſoon after increaſing, it continued with great violence for the ſpace of twenty-four or twenty-five minutes; by which moſt of the churches in the city, and a fourth part of the houſes were overturned and entirely ruined. In the ward of St. CLARA a whole ſtreet gaped on a ſudden with a dreadful noiſe, from whence broke out flames mixed with calcined ſtones, and a torrent of burning ſulphur, which in leſs than half an hour reduced the whole ward to aſhes. The Governor uſed his utmoſt endeavours to ſpirit up the people, and to ſtop the inhabitants who hurried into the fields inſtead of helping to quench the fire; but ſeeing it was to no purpoſe, and that even the gariſon were aſtoniſhed, he let them go. Thoſe who lived along the coaſt betook themſelves to the ſhips that lay in the port; and it is computed that ſix thouſand perſons were buried in the ruins, beſides thoſe who periſhed in the ward of St. CLARA. It was obſerved, that the ſame day the air was extreme ſultry, and overcaſt with thick and dark clouds, and that between five and ſix in the afternoon a very hot ſouth wind began to blow, followed by a great ſhower, which did not at all abate the wind: the ſtorm ſeemed ſomething calmed in the duſk of the evening; but between nine and ten the wind grew fiercer, and the ſhower fell heavier, which was ſoon followed by this terrible earthquake. For ſeveral days after the earthquake, the people ſeemed to be wonderfully reformed, exceeding humble and penitent, going in proceſſion every hour of the day with ſcourges in their hands diſciplining themſelves; the Ladies dreſſed in mourning, wore crowns of thorns, and laſhed themſelves till the blood followed; and it was generally apprehended, that this calamity was a mark of God's wrath and vengeance for the extravagance of the inhabitants, becauſe no other part of the kingdom ſuffered ten miles diſtant from the city.

Mont-real

Mont-real, *Mons Regalis*, is a little well-built town, ſituated on a hill, about five miles ſouth-eaſt of Palermo.

Maſara.

Maſara, or Mazara, is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, in the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, about fifty miles ſouth-weſt of Palermo; is a large handſom trading town, and has a good harbour, the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Palermo.

Gergentum.

Gergentum, or Agrigentum, is ſituated on the ſame coaſt, fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Mazara; a large handſom town, and See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Palermo, and one of the ancienteſt in the iſland, ſaid to be the capital city of the tyrant PHALARIS, who tortured PERILLUS in the brazen bull he had contrived to torment others.

Trapano.

Trapano is a port-town, with a good harbour, in the weſt part of the iſland, about thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Palermo. It was anciently one of the moſt conſiderable places in the iſland, and long defended by the Carthaginians againſt the Romans; near it lies Mount Erya, now Monte Trapano, where, according to tradition, ANCHISES was buried.

The valley of Noto.

The valley of Noto, the third diviſion of Sicily, is bounded by the valley of Demona on the north; by the Ionian ſea towards the eaſt; by another part of the Mediterranean on the ſouth; and by the valley of Mazara on the weſt: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Noto. 2. Syracuſa. 3. Auguſta.

Noto town.

Noto is ſituated on the top of a mountain, ſurrounded with high rocks, near the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, about ſeven miles from the ſea, twenty-five to the ſouthward of Syracuſa, and twelve north-weſt of Cape Paſſaro; and is a large populous place, from whence this province or diviſion takes its name.

Syracuſa.

Syracuſa is ſituated at the eaſt end of the iſland, on a neck of land in the Ionian ſea, about forty miles to the ſouthward of Catanea; once the capital of a flouriſhing ſtate, of a vaſt extent, rich and populous; but was demoliſhed in the ninth century by the Saracens, and afterwards almoſt ruined by the ſame earthquake in 1693, which overturned Catanea; and ſeveral other towns upon this coaſt. In the firſt Punic war it held out a ſiege of three years againſt the Romans, by the direction of that eminent mathematician ARCHIMEDES, who was killed at the ſtorming the town, contrary to the intention of MARCELLUS the Roman General, who had generouſly given orders to ſave his life. Here in the time of the Greeks reigned AGATHOCLES, and after him ſeveral Kings or Tyrants, as they were called, by the name of DIONYSIUS. One of the principal curioſities ſhewn to travellers is a grotto, ſaid to be cut out of a rock by one of their tyrants of the name of Dionysius, in the ſhape of a man's ear, ſo artfully contrived, that he could hear the leaſt whiſper in a room he had over it. In this grotto therefore he uſed to confine thoſe he thought diſaffected to his government, and thereby diſcover their plots againſt him. The place is about forty foot in height, and twenty in length. The town is ſo well ſituated for trade, and has ſo excellent a harbour, that people have been induced to reſort thither again, and build ſome part of it, and it is ſtill a Biſhop's See, but there is very little appearance of its ancient ſplendor. As to the produce of the iſland of Sicily, it is the ſame with that of Naples, only there is every thing here in a much greater abundance; particularly corn, wine, oil, fruits and ſilk, in which they have a good trade, tho' they loſe great part of the profit of this rich product by ſuffering it to be exported in foreign bottoms, and not improving their commerce abroad.

Auguſta. Auguſta was a ſtrong fortreſs, ſituate on a peninſula, five and twenty miles to the northward of Syracuſa, inhabited by the Nights of St. John of Jeruſalem, after their expulſion from Rhodes by the Turks, till the Emperor Charles V gave them the iſland of Malta, about the year 1530. It was a place of trade, and had a good harbour, but was miſerably deſtroyed by the earthquake and eruptions from Mount Etna, at the ſame time with Catanea and Syracuſa, in the year 1693.

Lipari iſlands. The iſlands of Lipari, which belong to Sicily, called by the ancients *Æoliæ* and *Vulcaniæ*, and by the Poets feigned to be the ſeats of Æolus and Vulcan, lie about thirty or forty miles to the northward of it; and are, 1. Lipari. 2. Hiera. 3. Rotto. 4. Strombolo. 5. Panaria. 6. Didima. 7. Felicur: And, 8. Alicur. Lipari, which gives name to the reſt, is the largeſt, being about twenty miles in circumference, and has a good town in the middle of it of the ſame name. The ſitution of this and the reſt of the iſlands will be ſeen in the map bound up with this volume. They have nothing conſiderable in them that deſerves a particular notice, unleſs it be that Strombolo and Hiera have fiery Vulcano's iſſuing out of them, whoſe flames are ſeen a great way at ſea. **Levanzo, &c.** The iſlands of Levanzo, Maritima and Favagnana, lie at the weſt end of Sicily, but have nothing in them that merits a particular deſcription.

An abſtract of the hiſtory of Sicily. The firſt inhabitants of Sicily are ſaid to be the Cyclopes and Leſtrigones, a gigantick and ſavage race of men. After theſe, the Iberi from Spain ſettled here under the conduct of their General Sicanus. Then the Siculi, from Sicily in Italy, came over hither, from whom, it is ſaid, to have received its name. After theſe, colonies of Phenicians from Tyre and Sidon planted themſelves on the coaſt, but were driven from thence by the Greeks, who introduced their laws and language, and in a manner new-peopled it. The Carthaginians afterwards made themſelves maſters of part of the iſland, till the Mamertins, or people of Meſſina, called in the Romans to aſſiſt them againſt Hiero, King of Syracuſa, and his allies the Carthaginians. This produced a long and bloody war between the Roman and Carthaginian States, which ended in an entire conqueſt of this iſland by the Romans, who reduced it into the form of a province, it having never been under the dominion of any one power before, but was divided into ſeveral little kingdoms and ſtates. Upon the declenſion of the Roman Empire, it followed the fortune of the kingdom of Naples, till the famous Sicilian Veſpers in the year 1282, when it came into the hands of the Spaniards, who enjoyed almoſt an uninterrupted poſſeſſion of the iſland till the peace of Utrecht, anno 1713, when it was agreed by all the parties to that treaty, that it ſhould be conferred on the Duke of Savoy, with the title of King of Sicily; but the King of Spain, under pretence that the Emperor had not acknowledged his title to Spain and the Weſt-Indies, as the confederates had engaged he ſhould, firſt invaded Sardinia, and made himſelf maſter of it in the year 1717, and the next year invaded Sicily, landing 17000 men near Palermo, under the command of the Marquis de Lede, on the firſt of July; whereupon the Viceroy for the Duke of Savoy quitted Palermo, and retired to Meſſina. On the 17th of the ſame month, the Spaniſh fleet, with moſt of their infantry on board, ſailed from Palermo, and appearing before the fort or tower of Faro on the 22d, the Piedmonteze quitted it, and the Spaniards landed and took poſſeſſion of the fort, and having joined their cavalry, advanced to Meſſina, while their fleet came into the Faro, or channel, and detached ſome men of war and galleys to block up the harbour. The ſame day the Piedmonteze troops quitted the town, and retired into the citadel and fort of St. Salvadore; whereupon the magiſtrates waited on the Marquis de Lede the 24th, and delivered him the keys of the town, of which he immediately took poſſeſſion. Upon the firſt of Auguſt N. S. the Britiſh fleet under Sir George Byng arrived at Naples, having been detached thither, as was given out, in order to ſee the peace of Utrecht preſerved; and the 10th of the ſame month, or the 30th of July, O. S. the Britiſh Admiral came before Meſſina, whereupon the Spaniſh fleet made to the ſouthward, and were purſued and defeated by Sir George; of which action he ſent the following account to England by his ſon the honourable Pattee Byng, who came expreſs with it, which I chuſe to inſert verbatim, becauſe ſo great a ſtreſs ſeems to be laid upon the circumſtances of the engagement at this time, ſome affirming that the Britiſh fleet were the aggreſſors, and others that the Spaniards began the fight.

From on board the Barfleur off of Syracuſa,
6 Auguſt O. S. 1718.

The ſea-fight between the Britiſh and Spaniſh fleets.

‘ Early in the morning on the 30th of July, as
‘ we were ſtanding in for Meſſina, we ſaw two
‘ ſcouts of the Spaniſh fleet in the Faro very near
‘ us; and at the ſame time a Felucca (a ſmall
‘ veſſel) coming off from the Calabrian ſhore, aſ-
‘ ſured us they ſaw from the hills the Spaniſh fleet
‘ lying by: upon which the Admiral ſtood through
‘ the Faro (or ſtreight) after the ſcouts, judging
‘ they would lead us to their fleet, which they
‘ did, for before noon we had a fair ſight of all their
‘ ſhips as they were drawing into a line of battle,
‘ their fleet conſiſting of 26 men of war, great and
‘ ſmall, 2 fire-ſhips, 4 bomb-veſſels, 7 galleys, and
‘ ſeveral ſhips with ſtores and proviſions. The
‘ Admiral ordered the Kent, Superbe, Grafton,
‘ and Orford, being the beſt ſailers in the fleet,
‘ to make what ſail they could to come up with
‘ the Spaniards, and that the ſhip which could
‘ get headmoſt and neareſt to them, ſhould carry
‘ the lights uſually worn by the Admiral, that he
‘ might not loſe ſight of them in the night, and

he made what ſail he could with the reſt of the fleet to keep up with them. It being little wind, the Spaniſh galleys towed their heavieſt ſailers all night. The 31ſt in the morning as ſoon as it was day, they finding us pretty near up with their fleet, the galleys and ſmaller ſhips, with the fire-ſhips, bomb-veſſels and ſtore-ſhips, ſeparated from the Admiral and bigger ſhips, and ſtood in for the ſhore; after whom the Admiral ſent Captain WALTON in the Canterbury, with the Argyle and ſix ſhips more. As thoſe ſhips were coming up with them, one of the Spaniards fired a broad-ſide at the Argyle: The Admiral ſeeing thoſe ſhips engaged with the Spaniſh which were making towards the ſhore, ſent orders to Captain WALTON to rendezvous after the action at Syracuſa, where the Viceroy for the King of Sicily was with a gariſon. The like orders he diſpatched to the flags, and to as many ſhips as were within his reach, that place being defended againſt the Spaniards, and being the moſt proper port on that coaſt for the fleet to gather together again. We held on our chace after the Spaniſh Admiral, with three of his Rear-Admirals, and the biggeſt ſhips, which ſtaid by their flags, till we came near them. The Captains of the Kent, Superbe, Grafton, and Orford, having orders to make what ſail they could to place themſelves by the four headmoſt ſhips, were the firſt that came up with them. The Spaniards began by firing their ſtern-chace at them, but they having orders not to fire, unleſs the Spaniſh ſhips repeated their firing, made no return at firſt; but the Spaniards firing again, the Orford attacked the Santa Roſa, which ſome time after ſhe took. The St. Charles ſtruck next without much oppoſition, and the Kent took poſſeſſion of her. The Grafton attacked the Prince of Aſturia's, formerly called the Cumberland, in which was Rear-Admiral CHACON; but the Breda and Captain coming up, ſhe left that ſhip for them to take, which they ſoon did, and ſtretched a-head after another 60 gun ſhip, which was on her ſtarboard-bow while ſhe was engaging the Prince of Aſturia's, and kept firing her ſtern-chace into the Grafton. About one o'clock the Kent and Superbe engaged the Spaniſh-Admiral, which with two ſhips more fired on them, and made a running fight till about three, when the Kent bearing down upon her, and under her ſtern, gave her a broad-ſide, and went away to the leeward of her; when the Superbe put for it, and laid the Spaniſh Admiral on board, falling on her weather-quarter; but the Spaniſh Admiral ſhifting her helm and avoiding her, the Superbe ranged up under her lee-quarter, on which ſhe ſtruck to her. At the ſame time the Barfleur being within ſhot of the ſaid Spaniſh Admiral aſtern, inclining on her weather-quarter, one of their Rear-Admirals and another 60 gun ſhip, which were to the windward of the Barfleur, bore down and gave her their broad-ſides, and then clapped upon a wind, ſtanding in for the land. The Admiral in the Barfleur ſtood after them till it was almoſt night; but it being little wind, and they galing from him out of reach, he left purſuing them, and ſtood away to the fleet again, which he joined two hours after night. The Eſſex took the Juno; the Montague and Rupert took the Volante. Vice-Admiral CORNWALL followed the Grafton to ſupport her, but it being very little wind, and the night coming on, the Spaniards galed away from the Grafton. Rear-Admiral DELAVAL, with the Royal Oak, chaſed two ſhips that went away more leewardly than the reſt, (one of them ſaid to be Rear-Admiral CAMMOCK) but we not having ſeen them ſince, know not the ſucceſs. The ſhip that ſuffered moſt with us was the Grafton, the Captain of which, though he had not the fortune to take any particular ſhip, yet was engaged with ſeveral, behaved himſelf very much like an officer and a ſeaman, and bid fair for ſtopping the way of thoſe four ſhips that he purſued; who got away not through his fault, but failure of wind, and his own ſails and rigging were much ſhattered.’

A liſt of the Spaniſh ſhips taken and deſtroyed off Cape Paſſaro.

Ships.	Guns.	Men.	Commanders.
1. St. Philip the Royal.	74	650	Vice-Admiral CASTAGNETA.
2. Prince of Aſturias	70	550	Rear-Admiral CHACON.
3. Royal	60	400	Rear-Admiral Marquis DE MARI.
4. St. Charles	60	400	Prince CHALAY.
5. St. Iſabella	60	400	Don AND. REZIO.
6. Santa Roſa	56	400	Don ANT. GONZALES.
7. St. Iſidoro	46	300	Don MANUEL VILIVICENTIA.
8. Anna Volante	44	300	Don ANT. ESCUDERA.
9. Surprize	44	250	MICH. SADAY, Knight of Malta.
10. Juno	36	250	Don PEDRO MOYANA.
11. Eagle	24	240	Don LUCAS MASNATA.
12. Tyger	26	240	MONTIER CAVAIGNE.

Burnt and deſtroyed.

1. Eſperance	46	300	Don JUAN DELFINO and BLANDINA.
2. Hermione	44	300	Don RODERIGO DE TORRES.
3. Porcupine	44	250	A Frenchman.
4. Pearl.	50	300	Don GABRIEL ALDERETE.

Burnt alſo two fire-ſhips, two Bomb-veſſels, and one ſattee.

Another ſhip of thirty or forty guns was taken, and twelve eſcaped, beſides a bomb-veſſel and ſeven galleys, of which the Spaniſh fleet was compoſed.

The Engliſh fleet conſiſted of the Barfleur, in which was the Admiral, of 90 guns and 730 men; nine 70 gun ſhips; one 80 gun ſhip; ſeven 60 gun ſhips; two 50 gun ſhips; and one 40 gun ſhip; in all 21: beſides 2 fire-ſhips, 4 bomb-veſſels, an hoſpital-ſhip, and a ſtore-ſhip.

After this engagement the Engliſh Admiral ſailed to Syracuſa, the place appointed for the rendezvous, where he was joined by the reſt of the fleet, and from thence he went to Rhegio in Calabria, leaving Admiral CORNWALL with ten men of war at Syracuſa, to convoy the ſhips taken.

ken. In the mean time the Germans embarked a thouſand men at Rhegio, and threw them into the caſtle of Meſſina, which could not however prevent its being taken, that fortreſs ſurrendering to the Marquis de Lede the 29th of September, and the gariſon was tranſported to Rhegio. The Imperialiſts and Piedmonteze ſtill kept poſſeſſion of Syracuſa and Melazzo, waiting for reinforcements from Italy to enable them to act offenſively. But before we proceed farther in the relation of the Sicilian war, it is but juſt to ſee what account the Spaniards give of this enterprize of the Britiſh fleet, and how that court reſented it.

The Spaniſh account of the engagement at ſea.

The Spaniſh relation ſays, That on the 9th of Auguſt N. S. in the morning, the Engliſh ſquadron was diſcovered near the tower of Faro, and lay by towards night off of Cape de la Martelle, over againſt the ſaid tower. The Spaniſh ſquadron was then in the Streight or Faro of Meſſina; and as the intention of the Engliſh in coming ſo near was not known, the Admirals of the Spaniſh ſquadron reſolved to go out of the Streight, and join together near cape Spartivento, (the moſt ſoutherly cape of Calabria) carrying the tranſports laden with proviſions with them, that they might the better penetrate into the deſigns of the Engliſh; and the rather, becauſe the officer whom Sir GEORGE BYNG had ſent to the Marquis de Lede, to propoſe a ſuſpenſion of arms for two months, was not returned; to whom the Marquis anſwered, That he could not conſent to it without orders from his court. And though it was believed that the alternative was taken of ſending a courier to Madrid with the ſaid propoſal, yet the Engliſh ſquadron took the opportunity of the night to ſurprize the Spaniſh ſquadron, and to improve thoſe advantages which were owing to diſſimulation.

The Engliſh ſquadron on the tenth advanced farther into the Faro, and was ſaluted by all the Spaniſh ſhips and veſſels that were there. And it is to be obſerved, that Admiral BYNG having convoyed ſome tranſport-veſſels from Naples as far as Rixoles in Calabria, with the Archduke's (the Emperor's) troops, the officer he ſent to the Marquis de Lede, declared, that it was not to commit any act of hoſtility, but only that thoſe tranſports might be ſecured from inſults under his protection. The Spaniſh ſquadron ſent two light frigates to get intelligence of the Engliſh ſquadron, and though they ſaw that the Engliſh made all the ſail they could (their intention being not known) to approach the Spaniſh ſquadron, whoſe Admiral knew not then whether the Engliſh came as friends or enemies, yet the Spaniards being two leagues from the Engliſh, reſolved to retire towards Cape Paſſaro, but without making much ſail, that it might not be thought they ſuſpected any hoſtilities.

During this a calm happened, by which the ſhips of both ſquadrons fell in one among another, and the Spaniſh Admiral perceiving this accident, cauſed the ſhips of the line to be tow'd, in order to ſeparate them from the Engliſh, and join them in one body, without permitting the galleys to begin any act of hoſtility, which they might have done to their advantage during the calm. The weather changed when the Marquis of Mari was near land, and by conſequence ſeparated from the reſt, making the rear-guard with ſeveral frigates and other tranſport-veſſels, which made up his diviſion, and endeavoured, though in vain, to join the main body of the Spaniſh ſquadron, while the Engliſh held on their way (their diſſimulation filling their ſails) to gain the wind, and cut off the ſaid diviſion of the Marquis de Mari; and having at laſt ſucceeded in it, *they attacked him with ſix ſhips, and obliged him to ſeparate from the reſt of the ſquadron*, and to make towards the coaſt, where they ſtood it againſt ſeven ſhips of the line; till being no longer able to reſiſt, the Marquis de Mari ſaved his men by running his ſhips a-ground, ſome of which were burnt by his own order, and others taken by the enemy. 17 ſhips of the line, the remainder of the Engliſh ſquadron, attacked the Royal St. Philip, the Prince of Aſturia's, &c. (mentioned in the Engliſh account) which continued making towards Cape Paſſaro; and as they retired in a line, becauſe of the inequality of their ſtrength, the Engliſh attacked thoſe that compoſed the rear guard with four or five ſhips and took them, and this happened ſucceſſively to the others, which notwithſtanding all the ſail they made, could not avoid been beaten: inſomuch that every Spaniſh ſhip being attacked ſeparately by five, ſix, or ſeven of theirs, after a bloody and obſtinate fight they made themſelves maſters at laſt of the Royal St. Philip, the Prince of Aſturia's, &c.

Immediately after the fight, a Captain of the Engliſh ſquadron came in the name of Admiral BYNG to make a compliment of excuſe to the Marquis de Lede, giving him to underſtand, that the Spaniards had been the aggreſſors, and that this action ought not to be looked upon as a rupture, becauſe the Engliſh did not take it as ſuch. To which it was anſwered, That Spain on the contrary would reckon it a formal rupture, and would act againſt the Engliſh in a hoſtile manner, and do them all the damage imaginable, by giving orders to make repriſals, &c.

Upon the arrival of the news of the defeat of the Spaniſh fleet at London, Mr. CRAGGS, Secretary of State, ſent the following letter to the Marquis de Monteleone, the Spaniſh Ambaſſador here, dated Auguſt 28.

May it pleaſe your Excellency,

Mr. Craggs's letter to the Spaniſh Ambaſſador.

HIS Majeſty hath commanded me to acquaint you, that he hath received certain advice of the defeat of the Spaniſh fleet on the coaſt of Italy by his Admiral Sir GEORGE BYNG. Nothing could have moved his Majeſty to this ſtep, but the ſtrict regard he bears to treaties, by which his Majeſty was obliged to preſerve the peace and neutrality of Italy. I am further commanded to aſſure your Excellency, *That this proceeding would have been entirely diſagreeable to the ſentiments of his Majeſty, had not the King of Spain made it abſolutely neceſſary, by his rejecting all offers of accommodation, and committing hoſtilities on the dominions of a Prince in peace with the whole world.* That his Majeſty is firmly determined, by the bleſſing of GOD and the aſſiſtance of his allies, to eſtabliſh the peace of Europe on ſuch a footing, as to put it out of the power of any one Prince or Potentate to diſturb it hereafter.

To which the Spaniſh Ambaſſador anſwered, That after ſuch an unexpected hoſtility, he could not act in any affair till he had received further inſtructions, and acquainted the court of Spain with the purport of the letter he had received from Mr. Secretary CRAGGS, and the anſwer he had given to it. Whereupon Cardinal ALBERONI, the prime Miniſter of Spain, ſent the Marquis of Monteleone the followng letter.

Cardinal Alberoni's letter to the Spaniſh Ambaſſador at London on the ſea-fight.

SIR,

JUST as I was computing your Excellency might be informed of the unworthy action committed by Admiral BYNG againſt the King's ſquadron, I received the copy of the letter your Excellency wrote upon that ſubject to Mr. Secretary CRAGGS, to let him know, that after ſuch an unexpected hoſtility you were obliged to refrain from the functions of your pacifick miniſtry, and that to maintain the King's honour, and that of your character, you muſt avoid all manner of intercourſe. Having delivered the ſaid copy to his Majeſty, he very much approved what your Excellency had written, and the juſtneſs of the expreſſions you made uſe of to expoſe the breach of faith of that miniſtry, in relation to the over-haſty proceedings of Admiral BYNG, when nothing was pretended to but a mediation to facilitate the project of peace, or at moſt to defend the territories actually in the poſſeſſion of the Archduke in Italy, when my Lord STANHOPE was in Spain at a ſmall diſtance from court, to propoſe projects of peace and a ſuſpenſion of arms. And laſtly, in the very inſtant when the King our maſter, to give new proofs of his royal circumſpection, had ordered the effects of the Engliſh brought to Cadiz in the laſt Flota which arrived there from the Indies, not to be touched, but that every man of that nation ſhould have what reſpectively belonged to him.

In truth, no impartial man can hear without ſurprize, that the fleet of his Britannick Majeſty, commanded by Sir GEORGE BYNG, did, without any provocation, neceſſity, or pretence, and forgetting the title of Peaceful Mediator, which his maſter aſſumes to himſelf, together with the intereſts of Great Britain, attack the fleet of Spain, only to fruſtrate the expedition againſt Sicily; after having been at Naples to concert with Count THAUN ſo baſe an action; *received great ſums of money by way of ſuppoſed arrears*; and finally, having come near Meſſina, and ſent truſty officers to confer with the commanders of the King's army, and to aſſure them that he would commit no act of hoſtility.

The greateſt part of Europe is impatient to hear how the Britiſh Miniſtry can juſtify themſelves to the world after ſo raſh a violence. If they recur to the feeble argument, to ſay that Admiral BYNG's inſtructions were to maintain the neutrality of Italy, who is ignorant at this time of day, that that neutrality hath long been at an end? And that the Princes who guaranty the treaties of Utrecht, are entirely free and diſcharged from their guarantee? Every body knows that the guaranty of the ſuſpenſion of arms in Italy was revoked and annulled, not only by the ſcandalous breaches which the Auſtrians made in the ill-performed evacuation of Catalonia and Majorca, and by other ſubſequent outrages, but alſo by reaſon that the ſaid guaranty, taken in its literal ſenſe, was no longer binding than till the peace was made with France, and the Princes guarantees ought no otherwiſe to maintain it than by their mutual good offices. Upon theſe grounds every one may make his own reflections. What will the world ſay, to ſee that after the ſaid neutrality had, for the reaſons above alledged, lain dormant for four years, the miniſtry of London would fain revive and ſupport it, not by the employment of a friendly mediation, but by open force, and the ſcandalous artifice of abuſing our ſecurity and confidence? This is ſo certain and indubitable, and Admiral BYNG found himſelf ſo perplexed with the remorſe of his injurious conduct, that in the account he gives of this naval fight, knowing that he had no motive or reaſonable pretence to fall foul on the Spaniards, he betakes himſelf to the ſhift of ſuppoſing, quite contrary to truth, that the King's ſhips firſt ranged themſelves in line of battle, and fired upon the Engliſh. But that which is moſt ſurprizing, is, that he lays it down for fact, that he ſent orders to his ſhips not to fire upon the Spaniards. If he had no deſign to attack them, if he had a mind to treat them as friends, why did he purſue them from the Streights of the Faro to the height of Syracuſa? Why did he ſend four of the beſt ſailers in his fleet in all haſte, with orders to come up with the Spaniards? And why, laſtly, did he follow them with the reſt, after having given them his own lights, unleſs it was not to loſe ſight of the Spaniſh fleet during the night? This ſtep, which is ſo extraordinary, was not certainly taken with the view only of ſaluting the Spaniſh fleet in ſo nice and critical a juncture, after having convoyed to Rixoles in Calabria a conſiderable part of the Auſtrian infantry.

The remainder of this letter aſcribes this enterprize to the miniſtry, and ſeems to excuſe both his Britiſh Majeſty and the nation in general from promoting it; but concludes however with recalling the Spaniſh Ambaſſador, the Marquis de Monteleone.

In a ſecond letter of Cardinal ALBERONI's to the Marquis of Monteleone, he ſays, men are univerſally ſurprized at the arrival of the firſt Miniſter of Great Britain (Earl STANHOPE) at the court of the Catholick King, there to make propoſals of peace and of ſuſpenſion of arms, at the ſame time that the naval force of the Potentate who ſhould have been mediator, was performing the actions of an open rupture. It does not ſuffice to ſay, that a rupture might and muſt be predicted by the demand which the Lord STANHOPE made of a paſs for the ſecurity of his perſon in his Majeſty's dominions, and it is needleſs to repeat what paſſed between the Marquis de Lede and Sir GEORGE BYNG while he was in Sicily about a ſuſpenſion of arms, becauſe no body is ignorant that the Marquis de Lede was not authorized to treat, and that his inſtructions required nothing elſe of him than to recover that kingdom, without impowering him to enter into a negotiation of peace; and it is very cuſtomary to demand paſſes to ſecure one's ſelf againſt accidents, and to ſhew the mutual reſpect that nations have for each other: but it is no where to be found in hiſtory, nor is it compatible with good faith, neither have the moſt barbarous people yet learnt the maxim of ſending a Miniſter from one court to another with the character of Mediator, there to treat of peace, and executing at the ſame time the utmoſt rigours of war.

It is obſervable, that among other inducements to prevail with the King of Spain to come into the Quadruple Alliance, before Sir GEORGE BYNG engaged the Spaniſh fleet, the King of France had promiſed to obtain for the King of Spain the reſtitution of Gibralter; but whether France had any encouragement from the Britiſh miniſtry to make this offer, is left to every man's judgment.

It is obſervable alſo, that though Sir GEORGE BYNG juſtifies his engaging the Spaniſh fleet, by affirming that they fired firſt at him, Secretary

Craggs in his letter to the Marquis of Monteleone, the Spaniſh Ambaſſador at London, makes no ſuch apology for this hoſtility; but plainly tells that Miniſter, that the King of Spain had made it abſolutely neceſſary, by his rejecting all offers of accommodation, and committing hoſtilities on the dominions of a Prince (Sicily) at peace with all the world. The declaration of war againſt Spain alſo, proclaimed the 17th of December 1718, at London, does not ſuppoſe the Spaniſh fleet to begin the engagement, but juſtifies the Admiral's falling upon them, for the ſame reaſons mentioned in Mr. Craggs's letter.

I procced now to enquire into the progreſs of this war in Sicily. We left the Spaniards in poſſeſſion of Palermo, Meſſina, and indeed of the whole iſland almoſt, except Syracuſa, Trepano and Melazzo, which held out for the Piedmonteze and Imperialiſts till November 1718, when Sir George Byng in a letter to the government from Naples relates, that he had convoyed over ſo many of the Imperial troops from Italy to Melazzo, that the troops there amounted to 16000 men, for which and other important ſervices, we find the Emperor ſoon after ſent that Admiral his picture ſet in diamonds of great value.

In May 1719, the Britiſh Admiral convoyed over another ſtrong detachment of the Imperial forces from Naples to Melazzo, whereupon the Spaniards were obliged to raiſe the blockade of that place, and retire thirty miles into the country to Franca Villa, where they ſtrongly entrenched themſelves. The firſt action the Imperialiſts entered upon was the reducing of the Lipari iſlands, which they ſoon effected. On the 20th of June N. S. they attacked the Spaniſh intrenchments at Franca Villa, but the Spaniards defended themſelves ſo well, that they could not drive them from their poſts; in which engagement the Imperial General Count Merci, and Mr. George Byng, now Colonel Byng, another ſon of the Admiral's, were dangerouſly wounded. The Germans did not think fit to renew the attack of the Spaniſh trenches at Franca Villa after this repulſe, but marched forward and laid ſiege to Meſſina about the latter end of July, while Sir George Byng with the Britiſh fleet blocked up the harbour. In the mean time three or four thouſand Sicilian peaſants armed themſelves and fell upon part of the German troops that were quartered in the country, at a diſtance from their main army, and defeated them, which the Spaniards magnified as a great victory. The city of Meſſina was however obliged to ſurrender on the 9th of Auguſt. About the latter end of September, Sir George Byng convoyed another body of Imperial troops from Genoa, conſiſting of ſix or ſeven thouſand men, and being arrived at Meſſina the 9th of October N. S. adviſed General Merci to raiſe a battery againſt the Spaniſh men of war in the Mole, whereby five of them were ſunk and the reſt diſabled; and on the 18th of October the citadel of Meſſina ſurrendered, whereupon the Imperialiſts tranſported ſeven or eight thouſand men to Trepano, at the weſt end of the iſland, in order to reduce Palermo. In January following, Sir George Byng convoyed another detachment of the Imperialiſts to Trepano; but the King of Spain ſoon after acceding to the Quadruple Alliance, there afterwards happened no conſiderable action between the Imperialiſts and Spaniards in Sicily; and on the 6th of May N. S. 1720, the Imperial General Merci, Admiral Byng, and the Marquis de Lede, ſigned a convention for a ſuſpenſion of arms, and the evacuation of Sicily, by which the Spaniſh troops in this iſland were to be convoyed by the Britiſh Admiral, to Spain. His Catholick Majeſty by the Quadruple Alliance renounces all rights and claims whatſoever upon the Kingdoms and provinces poſſeſſed by his Imperial Majeſty in Italy, and his right of reverſion to Sicily, which was reſerved to him by the treaty of Utrecht. And by the treaty of Vienna, entered into by his Imperial Majeſty, his Catholick Majeſty, and other Powers, the ceſſion of Sicily is confirmed to the Emperor; Sardinia, with ſome places in Lombardy having been given to the King of Sicily in lieu of it, and his title changed to that of King of Sardinia. But I refer the reader to the former part of this volume for the particulars, where he will find an abſtract of the treaty of Vienna.

Caprea, or Capri iſland.

The next iſland I ſhall deſcribe is Capri, or Caprea, ſituate at the entrance of the gulph of Naples, three miles to the weſtward of the continent, and about twenty to the ſouthward of the city of Naples. This iſland, ſays Mr. Addison, I was very deſirous to ſee, having been the retirement of Augustus for ſome time, and the reſidence of Tiberius for ſeveral years. It is about four miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about one in breadth. The weſt end of it for about two miles is a continued rock, vaſtly high and inacceſſible by ſea, in which part however is the largeſt town in the iſland, called *Ano Caprea*, and is covered in ſeveral places with a very fruitful ſoil. The eaſt end of the iſland riſes up in precipices very near as high, but between the eaſtern and weſtern mountains lies a ſlip of lower ground, which runs acroſs the iſland, and is one of the pleaſanteſt ſpots that can be ſeen. It is hid with vines, figs, oranges, almonds, olives, myrtles and fields of corn, which look extremely freſh and beautiful, and make up the moſt delightful little landſkip imaginable, when they are ſurveyed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here ſtands the town of Caprea, the Biſhop's palace, and two or three convents. In the middle of this fruitful tract of land, riſes a hill that was probably covered with buildings in Tiberius's time. There are ſtill ſeveral ruins on the ſides of it, and about the top are found two or three dark galleries, low built, and covered with maſon's work, tho' at preſent they appear over-grown with graſs. But the moſt conſiderable ruin is that which ſtands at the very extremity of the eaſtern promontory, where there are ſtill ſome apartments left very high, and arched at the top. Theſe rooms ſtand deep in the earth, and have nothing like windows or chimneys; from whence it is conjectured they were either bathing-places or reſervoirs of water, and here are often found medals and pipes of lead as they dig among the rubbiſh. Not many years ago they diſcovered a paved road running under-ground from the top of a mountain to the ſea-ſide. There is a very noble proſpect from this place. On the one ſide lies a vaſt extent of ſeas that runs farther than the eye can reach, and oppoſite to it, is the green promontory of Surrentum (or Sorrento,) and on the other ſide the whole proſpect of the bay of Naples, which muſt ſtill have been more pleaſant when that bay was encompaſſed with ſo long a range of buildings, that it appeared to thoſe who looked at it at a diſtance but as one continued city. One ſtill ſees on the bendings of the mountains of Caprea the marks of ſeveral ancient ſcales of ſtairs, by which they uſed to aſcend them. The whole iſland is ſo unequal, that there were but few diverſions to be found in it without doors; but what recommended it moſt to TIBERIUS, was its wholeſom air, which is warm in winter and cold in ſummer; and its inacceſſible coaſts, which are generally ſo very ſteep, that a handful of men might defend them againſt a powerful army. TIBERIUS, it is conjectured, had his different reſidences here, according to the ſeaſons of the year, and his different ſets of pleaſure required. SUETONIUS ſays, *Duodecim villas totidem nominibus ornavit*. The whole iſland was probably cut into ſeveral eaſy aſcents, adorned with palaces, and planted with as great a variety of groves and gardens as the ſituation of the place would admit. The works under ground were however more extraordinary than thoſe above it, for the rocks were all undermined with highways, grotto's, galleries, bagnio's, and ſubterraneous retirements, that ſuited with the brutal pleaſures of the Emperor, which were after his death demoliſhed by the Romans, in deteſtation of the unnatural and laſcivious ſcenes which had been acted there; the beauties of the iſland were ordered to be defaced by an army of pioneers.

> —— *Quem rupes Caprearum terra latebit*
> *Inceſto poſſeſſa Seni?* CL. de 4to Conf. Hon.
> Who has not heard of Caprea's guilty ſhore,
> Polluted by the rank old Emperor?

This iſland is moſt remarkable at preſent for the multitude of quails that are taken there twice a year.

Iſchia.

The iſland of Iſchia is ſituated about three miles to the weſtward of the Cape or Promontory of Miſenum, and 12 or 14 to the weſtward of the city of Naples; being about 20 miles in circumference, and was called by the ancient Poets *Inarime*, having laid TYPHOEUS under it, on account of the eruptions of fire which formerly happened here, tho' there have been none for 300 years paſt. The laſt was a very terrible one, and deſtroyed a whole city. There are ſcarce any ſigns of ſubterraneous fires at preſent, the earth being covered with herbage, except where it is rocky. There iſſues indeed a conſtant ſmoke through ſome crevices of the earth, which is occaſioned, my author conceives, by the warm ſprings that feed the many baths, with which this iſland is repleniſhed. On the north end of the iſland ſtands the town and caſtle on an exceeding high rock, divided from the body of the iſland by a channel, and inacceſſible to an enemy on all ſides; on which account FERDINAND II, King of Naples, retired hither when CHARLES VIII of France, overrun that kingdom.

Procita.

Procita is an iſland of much leſs dimenſions than the laſt, but abundantly more fruitful, and is ſituated between Iſchia and Cape Miſenum; being three or four miles in circumference; the moſt conſiderable place upon it is the abbey of St. MICHAEL.

Ponza.

Ponza, *olim Pontia*, ſituated about 14 miles to the ſouthward of the promontory of Circeio, or Circello, and 30 to the weſtward of Gaieta; deemed a part of the kingdom of Naples, but ſubject at preſent to the Duke of Parma. Hither the Romans anciently baniſhed criminals of figure. It is an iſland of very little conſequence, and yields but a poor revenue to the Sovereign. There are ſome other ſmall iſlands belonging to Naples and Sicily, which will be found in the map bound up with this volume; but they do not merit a particular deſcription.

The principal iſlands upon the coaſt of Tuſcany, are, 1. Giglio. 2. Elba. 3. Pianoſa. 4. Formicle. 5. Monte Chriſto. 6. Capraria. 7. Maloria; and, 8. Gorgona.

Giglio.

Giglio is ſituated about 12 miles from the Sieneſe in Tuſcany, and is about 25 miles in circumference; ſubject to the Great Duke in temporals, and to the Abbot TREFONTANA in ſpirituals.

Elba.

The iſland of Elba, or Athalia, is ſituated about 15 miles to the weſtward of the coaſt of Tuſcany, ſtretching from eaſt to weſt, much longer than broad, and about 40 miles in circumference. The chief places upon it are, 1. Porto Longone, a ſmall town near the eaſt end of the iſland, with a good harbour, and defended by a fort on a rock, now in the poſſeſſion of the King of Spain. 2. Porto Feraio, ſituate on the north ſide of the iſland, which has alſo a good harbour, and is defended by a citadel, under the dominion of the Duke of Tuſcany.

Porto Longone.

Porto Feraio.

Pianoſa.

Pianoſa lies 4 or 5 miles to the ſouthward of Elba, and is ſubject to the Duke of Tuſcany; but is a barren uncultivated iſland, from whence he reaps little profit.

Capraria.

Capraria, ſo called from the multitude of goats which were found here anciently, is ſituated between Corſica and Tuſcany, a mountainous iſland, about 20 miles in circumference, and ſubject to the republick of Genoa, who have a fortreſs upon it. The number of the inhabitants is not computed to be more than 600.

Gorgona.

Gorgona, or Urgo, lies in the ſame ſea, to the northward of Capraria, about 25 miles to the weſtward of Leghorn, and 10 miles in circumference, ſubject to the great Duke of Tuſcany.

Maloria.

Maloria is a little iſland between Gorgona and Leghorn, ſubject to the ſame Prince. The reſt of the iſlands on this coaſt are inconſiderable, but their ſituations are deſcribed in the map of Italy.

Scylla and Charybdis.

When I was ſpeaking of the ſtreight or Faro of Meſſina, between Calabria, and Sicily, I ſhould have remembered the famous Scylla and Charybdis there, ſo much dreaded by the mariners of old; but ſhips paſſing them now frequently with the greateſt ſecurity, I hardly thought them worth the mentioning. Navigation was but in its infancy when the poets repreſented theſe places as fatal to ſea-faring men. There ſeems to be nothing more than a ſtrong current and eddy of the waters here, which is frequently obſerved in other places.

Sardinia, the ſituation, extent, &c.

Sardinia is an iſland of an oblong form, ſtretching from north to ſouth in the Tuſcan ſea, bounded by the ſtreight, which divides it from Corſica towards the north; by the Tuſcan ſea which ſeparates it from Italy, from which it is about 50 leagues diſtant, towards the eaſt; and by the ſame ſea on the ſouth and weſt; lying about 40 leagues north-weſt of Sicily, between the 39th and 41ſt degrees of north latitude, and is 140 miles in length, and ſixty in breadth. The air in ſummer is hot and ſultry, and reckoned very unhealthful. The ſoil is fruitful where it is manured, producing corn, wine and oil in abundance; but is not cultivated as it ought to be, the natives ſeeming to have little inclination to huſbandry, chooſing rather to live upon what the earth produces ſpontaneouſly than to improve their grounds. They have great plenty of cattle, wild beaſts

Soil.

Cattle.

beaſts and game, and are ſo far from having any want of corn, though great part of their lands are uncultivated, that ſome years, it is ſaid, they export 8 or 900000 buſhels, of which the greateſt part is carried to Spain. There is a variety of hills and plains, and the mountains on the north are exceeding high. Their chief rivers are, 1. The Sacer, which riſes in the north-eaſt part of the iſland, and falls into a bay on the ſouth-weſt near Oriſtagni. 2. The Coquinas, which riſes in the middle of the iſland, and diſcharges it ſelf into the ſea on the north near Caſtel Arragoneſe. 3. The Sepus, which riſes in the middle of the iſland, and falls into a bay towards the ſouth-eaſt. And, 4. The river Sepro, which runs from north to ſouth, and falls into the bay of Cagliari on the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland.

Diviſion. It is uſually divided into two parts; 1. The ſouthern, called Cape Cagliari, from the capital city, which ſtands in this part of the iſland. And 2. The northern, called Cape Logadori, from a cape of that name in the north. The chief towns are, 1. Cagliari. 2. Oriſtagni. 3. Villa D'Igleſia. 4. Saſſari. 5. Caſtel Arragoneſe. 6. Algeri; and, 7. Boſa.

Cagliari city. Cagliari or Calaris, the capital, is ſituated on the declivity of a hill near a bay of the ſea to which it communicates its name, on the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, and is a large handſom populous place, with a tolerable harbour, and pretty briſk trade, conſidering the country it ſtands in; and is a Univerſity, the See of an Archbiſhop, and the ſeat of the Viceroy: It does not ſeem to be a place of any great ſtrength, making but a very mean defence when it was taken by the Engliſh in the year 1708, and afterwards by the Spaniards in the year 1717; nor did the caſtle hold out much longer, tho' ſome have given it the name of a ſtrong citadel.

Oriſtagni. Oriſtagni, or Oriſtan, is ſituated on a bay of the ſame name, on the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, about 45 miles north-weſt of Cagliari: It is a handſom well-built town, the ſee of an Archbiſhop and the capital of a marquiſate.

Villa D'Igleſia. Villa D'Igleſia ſtands on a bay of the ſea at the ſouth-weſt corner of the iſland, 30 miles to the weſtward of Cagliari, defended by a caſtle, and is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Cagliari.

Safferi. Safferi, or Saſſeri, is ſituated in a plain on the north-weſt part of the iſland, about 10 miles from the ſea, a pretty large town, defended by a caſtle, and the See of an Archbiſhop.

Caſtel Arragoneſe. Caſtel Arragoneſe is a little fortified town, in the north-weſt part of the iſland, with a pretty good harbour, about 25 miles north-eaſt of Saſſari, and is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Saſſari.

Algeri. Algeri, or Algueri, is a fortified town, ſituated on a bay of the ſea, on the north-weſt part of the iſland, 16 miles ſouth of Saſſeri, and is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Saſſeri.

Boſa. Boſa ſtands at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, on the weſt part of the iſland, 20 miles ſouth of Algeri, and is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan of Saſſeri.

Their hiſtory. There are very few towns more of any conſequence upon the iſland. It is but thinly peopled, and the natives are an unpoliſh'd generation, who having long been a province to ſome diſtant kingdom, have been pretty much neglected, and neither their ſoil or traffick improved as they would have been if they had been bleſſed with a Prince of their own.

The firſt colonies planted here came from Greece, Phœnicia, and other eaſtern countries, who erected little ſtates and principalities in this iſland, as they had done in Italy and Sicily. The Carthaginian ſtate was the firſt power that had the dominion of the whole iſland, who were diſpoſſeſſed of it by the Romans The Saracens made a conqueſt of it about the ſame time they ravaged Naples and Sicily. The republicks of Genoa and Piſa attacked the Saracens, and recovered part of the iſland from them; but Pope Boniface VIII, was pleaſed to make a grant of it to James II, King of Arragon, in the 13th century, who with great difficulty drove the Genoeſe and Piſans from thence, with the reſt of the powers then in poſſeſſion of the iſland, who had confederated together againſt him, and it was afterwards united to the crown of Spain, till the Engliſh fleet under Sir John Leake reduced it to the obedience of King Charles III, the preſent Emperor, in the year 1708; and it was confirmed by the ſeveral parties to the treaty of Utrecht (except Spain) to the houſe of Auſtria, Spain ſeeming to acquieſce in this diſpoſition: but King Philip under pretence that the Emperor had not evacuated Catalonia in the manner he had ſtipulated to do it, but had put the Catalans into poſſeſſion of Barcelona, which ought to have been delivered up to him, equipped a fleet of men of war in the year 1717, putting 7 or 8000 land-forces on board, under the command of the Marquis de Lede to recover Sardinia to the crown of Spain. On the 22d of Auguſt the diſpoſitions being made for a deſcent near Cagliari, the Marquis de Lede ſent an officer to the Marquis de Rubi Viceroy of Sardinia for the Emperor to ſummon him to ſurrender Cagliari, and the reſt of the iſland to the King of Spain; and the officer returning with a refuſal, the Spaniſh troops landed without oppoſition. The Imperialiſts thereupon retired into the Suburbs of Cagliari without firing a ſhot, and from thence with-drew into the town; but it ſeems the whole gariſon did not amount to more than 400 regular foot, and 200 horſe, beſides militia, for at this time the Emperor was engaged in a war againſt the Turks, and had drawn moſt of the regular forces out of the iſland. On the 17th of September, the Spaniards having advanced their trenches within piſtol-ſhot of the walls of Cagliari, the Marquis de Rubi left the town with 150 horſe, and retired to Alguero or Algeri, leaving the command of the place to the Marquis de la Guardia, who was obliged to ſurrender the 3d of October following; and no ſupplies coming to the aſſiſtance of the Germans, the Viceroy quitted the iſland and retired to Genoa: whereupon the Spaniards became entire maſters of Sardinia, which they held till the year 1720, when they were obliged to yield it to the Duke of Savoy by treaty; to whom it was aſſigned in lieu of Sicily, with the title of King of Sardinia, and this Prince remains in poſſeſſion of it at this day.

Corſica iſland, ſituation and extent. The iſland of Corſica lies alſo in the Tuſcan ſea, a little to the northward of Sardinia, 90 miles to the ſouthward of the coaſt of Genoa, and 80 to the weſtward of the coaſt of Tuſcany, between the 41ſt and 43d degrees of north latitude; extending about 30 leagues in length from north to ſouth, and about 13 leagues in breadth from eaſt to weſt about the middle; but being near an oval figure, is much narrower at each end.

The face of the country and ſoil. It is ſurrounded almoſt with rocks and mountains, which makes it of difficult acceſs, and the inland part is pretty mountainous, though there are ſome plains which produce plenty of corn, as the hills do wine, oil, and fruits; however, the ſoil is not ſo fruitful as that of Sardinia, nor the air ſo unhealthful: It is pretty well watered with ſprings and rivers, but as the laſt run but a little way before they fall into the ſea, they cannot be very large. They have plenty of black cattle and ſheep, and a little ſprightly breed of horſes. Here are ſome iron mines, and others of allum, with ſome ſalt-pits. The natives are ſaid to be a clowniſh people, rough in their manners, like the element they chiefly converſe with, and were ſo much given to piracy and pilfering formerly, that it is ſaid, the name of Corſair, which ſignifies a rover or pirate, was derived from hence. It is uſually divided into Corſica Citerior and Ulterior; the former is the northern part next Genoa, and the other the ſouthern next Sardinia. The chief towns are, 1. Baſtia. 2. Fiorenzo. 3. Nebio, or Nebbio. 4. Calvi. 5. Sagona. 6. Corte. 7. Aleria. 8. Accia. 9. Mariana. 10. Ajazzo. 11. Bonifacio; and 12. Porto Veccio.

Chief towns.

Baſtia.

Baſtia, the capital, is ſituated on a bay of the ſea, at the north-eaſt part of the iſland, and has a pretty good harbour, defended by a caſtle, the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Genoa, and the ſeat of the Viceroy.

Calvi.

Calvi, ſituated on the bay of the ſame name, on the north-weſt part of the iſland, defended by a caſtle on a ſteep rock, 40 miles ſouth-weſt of Baſtia.

Corte.

Corte is an inland town, about the middle of the iſland, 40 miles to the ſouthward of Baſtia, defended by a caſtle, ſituate on an inacceſſible rock.

Ajazzo.

Ajazzo ſtands on a bay of the ſame name, on the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, a pretty large town, with a good harbour, defended by a fort, and is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Piſa.

Bonifacio.

Bonifacio, ſtands on the ſouth point of the iſland, on the ſtreight which divides it from Sardinia: It has a good harbour, and a tolerable trade, being eſteemed the beſt town in the iſland.

Porto Vecchio.

Porto Vecchio ſtands near the ſea on the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, about 16 miles to the northward of Bonifacio, and is a large town, with a tolerable harbour.

This iſland was planted alſo by colonies from Greece, and other countries of the Levant; and having been ſubdued by the Carthaginians, was afterwards taken from them by the Romans: The Saracens poſſeſſed themſelves of it when they invaded Sicily and Sardinia, and were driven from thence by the Piſans and Genoeſe; and this laſt ſtate having driven out the other, remain ſole maſters of it, and ſend their Viceroy hither, who is the governor of it. The Doge of Genoa is crowned at his acceſſion with a royal crown, as Sovereign of Corſica, which was anciently reputed a kingdom; but this does not however give this ſtate the precedence of Venice.

Malta iſland.

Among the Italian iſlands I ſhall take in Malta, it being nearer Sicily than any other ſhore, and formerly under the ſame Sovereign that Naples and Sicily were.

The ſituation and extent.

This iſland of Malta or Maltha, *olim Melita*, is ſituated 60 miles to the ſouthward of Cape Paſſaro, the moſt ſoutherly promontory of Sicily, 200 miles to the eaſtward of Tunis in Africa, and almoſt as much ſouth-weſt of Cape Spartivento, the moſt ſoutherly promontory of Italy, ſo that it lies almoſt in the midway between Africa and Europe; but as it is rather nearer to the latter, it may properly enough be reckoned among the European iſlands, tho' it be ſometimes by geographers placed in Africa. It lies in 35 degrees ſome odd minutes north latitude, and is of an oval figure, or pretty near it, being 20 miles in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, and 10 or 12 in breadth, about the middle of the iſland.

The air, ſoil and fruits.

The air is generally clear and healthful, but exceſſive hot, when it is not refreſhed with cool breezes from the ſea. The iſland is all a white ſoft rock, covered with a foot of earth, or thereabouts; moderately fruitful, producing corn and grapes; they make no wine however, nor have they corn ſufficient for the inhabitants; not but that it would bear corn enough, ſays a late traveller, but their cotton and other plants are more profitable, and they furniſh themſelves with corn and wine upon very eaſy terms from Sicily. The corn the iſland produces is barley and buck-wheat, they have alſo olives, figs, and other fruits, and great plenty of cummin-ſeed, anniſeed, and cotton, of which they export large quantities, as they do alſo of indigo. They have lemons and oranges all the year round, and plenty of peas and beans, and other pulſe and garden ſtuff; inſomuch that my author thinks it very well deſerves the epithet of Fertile Malta, ſtill given it by the poets. Their mutton and lamb is excellently good, and they have ſtore of game, and fowls wild and tame: The ſuperſtitious are of opinion that no venomous creature will live here, ſince St. Paul bleſſed the iſland with his preſence. Roſes, thyme and fennel grow wild in every part of it, and their honey is eſteemed the beſt in Europe. There are ſeveral good ſprings in the iſland, but no rivers; what they ſeem to want moſt is wood, there being ſcarce any other trees than fruit-trees upon the place; but as they have very good ſtone for building, and the country is warm, they want it the leſs.

Animals.

The natives are of very tawny complexions, eſpecially the peaſants, who are not half clothed. The better ſort of people who live in towns, follow the French or Spaniſh modes; in keeping their women concealed, they imitate the Spaniards and Italians. The iſland is pretty well ſtocked with women of pleaſure however from Greece, who reſort hither to accommodate the unmarried Knights, and others who deſpiſe the chains of a conjugal life. The language of the common people is the Moreſco, a ſort of barbarous Arabick, ſpoken on the coaſt of Africa, and the reſt uſe a dialect of the Italian, which they ſpeak pretty roughly.

The chief places are, the city of Malta, or La Valette, the Cite, the Bourg, and the Iſle, with the caſtles of St. Elmo and St. Auge, Civita Vecchia, and Il Bochero.

Malta town.

The Cite, the Bourg, and the Iſle, all of them compoſe the town of Malta, but are, according to my author, ſo many diſtinct cities ſeparated from each other by channels of the ſea, which form ſo many peninſula's, conſiſting of rocks, which riſe a great height out of the ſea, and have ſecure harbours belonging to them capable of receiving whole fleets. On approaching of Malta, two of theſe ports appear diſtinguiſhed by a high point of land, on which are built the new city and the caſtle of St. Elmo. That on the right hand is called Marſamouchet, where veſſels put in for refreſhments; the other is the great harbour,

bour, defended by the caſtle of St. Elmo, the fort of Terra della Bocca, and the caſtle of St. Auge. The fortifications are regular, and very ſtrong by art as well as nature. The ſtreets are broad, and the houſes well built with white hewn ſtone, with which their rocks furniſh them upon the ſpot. They are flat-roofed, ſurrounded with rails or balluſters, and make a very good appearance. The water they drink is brought by an aqueduct four miles to Malta, beſides which they have ciſterns and reſervoirs of rain-water. The new town called Valetta, conſiſts of 20 ſtreets that lie parallel to each other, but they are uneven, having no other pavement than the rock on which they are built. It has but two gates, one on the land-ſide and the other towards the harbour. The out-works take in a good ſpace of ground, for the ſecurity of the country people in caſe of an invaſion. Among their publick buildings, the church of St. JOHN is eſteemed equal to moſt in Italy, adorned on the out-ſide with a noble piazza and fountains. It is large and lofty, and paved with marble of various colours, beautified with ſeveral rich chapels and altars, and the tombs of the Grand Maſters: and here among their reliques, they ſhew the right hand of St. JOHN Baptiſt; but it is moſt admired for the Evangelical Hiſtory, exquiſitely painted by one of the Knights. The palace of the Grand Maſter is a magnificent building, beſides which there are many other palaces that make no mean figure. The magazine, in which there are arms for 30000 men, the treaſury, and hoſpital, are all noble buildings, and deſerve a traveller's attention. In the hoſpital all infirm people are received, and ſerved by the younger Knights in ſilver, and every Friday by the Grand Maſter and the Great Croſſes, or chiefs of the reſpective nations, to which it ſeems they are obliged by their conſtitution. Malta is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan of Palermo. The old city of Melita, now called Cita Notabile and Civita Vecchia, lies in the middle of the iſland, anciently a large populous place, and contains at preſent about 5 or 600 houſes. Near it is the ſummer palace of the Grand Maſter, called Il Bocheto, fortified like a caſtle, but extremely well ſituated, having a proſpect over a great part of the iſland. Its gardens and natural orange-groves, ſays my author, are delicious, beautifully intermingled with fruit-trees, and parterres of flowers. There are beſides in the iſland 26 pariſhes, and between 30 and 40 villages equal to towns, containing about 50000 ſouls, of which one half are military men and unmarried. Five miles to the weſtward lies the iſland of Goza, being about 12 miles long and 6 broad, and containing about 500 houſes. Near it is the iſle of Comino, 5 miles in circumference, with ſome leſſer iſlands that are ſubject to Malta. And I muſt not forget the Catacombs of Malta, which ſome call a ſubterranean town, hewn out of the ſolid rock; but by the deſcription they ſeem to reſemble thoſe of Rome and Naples, and therefore were probably put to the ſame uſe at Malta.

Goza Iſland.

Comino.

Hiſtory of Malta.

The firſt inhabitants of this iſland were the Phœnicians and Carthaginians, after which it fell under the dominion of the Romans, and generally followed the fate of Sicily, till CHARLES V gave it to the Knights of St. JOHN of Jeruſalem, anno 1530. Of the original of theſe Knights or Hoſpitallers of St. JOHN of Jeruſalem we meet with this account. Some time before the expedition of GODFREY of Bouillon to the Holy Land, ſome Neapolitan merchants who traded in the Levant obtained leave of the Caliph of Egypt to build a houſe there, for the entertainment of thoſe of their nation who came in pilgrimage to Jeruſalem, for which they agreed to pay an annual tribute. They afterwards built two churches near their houſe, and entertained the pilgrims who reſorted thither with great charity, and taking ſeveral others into their ſociety, who thought they ſhould merit much by joining in ſo pious an undertaking, they founded a church in honour of St. JOHN Baptiſt, and an hoſpital for infirm people, from whence they obtained the name of Hoſpitallers. GODFREY of Bouillon having taken Jeruſalem about the year 1099, we find them a little after diſtinguiſhed by black habits, and a croſs with eight points; and beſides their former vows, they took another to defend pilgrims; and thus their order became military, into which ſeveral ſons of figure entered themſelves, changing their title of Hoſpitallers to that of Knights Hoſpitallers. After Jeruſalem was taken, theſe Knights retired to Margalt, and from thence to Acre in Paleſtine, which they bravely defended in the year 1290; after which they were entertained by JOHN King of Cyprus, who aſſigned them Limiſſon in his dominions, where they remained till 1310, when they took Rhodes under their Grand Maſter FOULQUES DE VILLARET, a Frenchman; and next year repulſed a great army of Saracens, being commanded by their Great Maſter AMADEUS Duke of Savoy, whoſe ſucceſſors afterwards uſed the following Letters for their device, viz. *F. E. R. T. i. e. Fortitudo ejus Rhodum tenuit*, and thoſe of the order were from thence called Knights of Rhodes. They afterwards defended the iſland againſt ſeveral attacks of the Turks, but it was taken at laſt by SOLYMAN in the year 1522, when they retired to Candia, and from thence to Sicily. The Emperor CHARLES the Fifth gave them this iſland of Malta in the year 1530, looking on it as a good frontier againſt the Turks, and they accepted of it with the conſent of the other Princes, in whoſe territories their lands lay. In 1566, SOLYMAN attacked them vigorouſly in Malta, deſtroying the whole iſland except two or three caſtles, which he was forced to abandon after a ſiege of four months, having loſt 15000 ſoldiers and 8000 ſeamen in the expedition. JOHN DE LA VALETTE PARISOT was at this time Grand Maſter, and gained abundance of honour in the defence he made. He afterwards built that part of the town which has the name of La Valette. The Knights formerly conſiſted of eight different people, viz. 1. Of thoſe of Provence, whoſe Chief was the grand commendator of religion. 2. Of Auvergne, whoſe Chief was Mareſchal of the order. 3. Of France in general, whoſe Chief was Grand Hoſpitaller. 4. Of Italy, whoſe Chief was Admiral. 5. Of Arragon, whoſe Chief was Grand Conſervator. 6. Of Germany, whoſe Chief was Grand Bailiff of the order. 7. Of Caſtile, whoſe Chief was Grand Chancellor. And, 8. Thoſe of the Engliſh, whoſe Chief was Commander of the cavalry: but the Engliſh having withdrawn themſelves, there are now only ſeven Chiefs.

The Knights of ſeven ſeveral nations or languages.

Thoſe who enter into this order, are obliged to prove their legitimacy as well as nobility by father and mother for four deſcents, except the natural ſons of Kings and Princes. Amongſt the Knights, only thoſe ſtiled the Grand Croſſes can ſtand candidates for Grand Maſter. The Grand Croſſes are the Chiefs of the ſeveral nations, who are now ſeven in number, and have their reſpective colleges and halls in Malta, forming ſo many ſeveral ſocieties, the head of each houſe being at this day called the Grand Prior of his nation, who is a member of the council of ſtate, and diſtinguiſhed by a large white croſs embroidered on his breaſt. Thoſe of this order never marry: They conſiſt of three degrees or ſtates, as they are called, viz. Knights, Chaplains, and Servants at Arms. There are alſo prieſts of obedience, who officiate in churches; friar-ſervants, who aſſiſt at the offices; and donnes, or demi-croſſes: but theſe are not reckoned as conſtituent parts of the body. This diviſion was made in 1130. The Chaplains or Conventual Prieſts are of noble extraction, and the eccleſiaſtical dignities in Malta are reſerved for them, ſeveral of whom have been Cardinals. The ſervants at Arms are alſo of noble extraction, but it is not neceſſary they ſhould be ſo for four generations. The government is mixed, partly monarchical, and partly ariſtocratical. The Grand Maſter, who is Sovereign, coins money, pardons criminals, and beſtows the places of Grand Priors, Bailiffs, Commendators and Knights; and theſe are obliged to obey him in whatever is not contrary to the ſtatutes of their order. In the great or ſacred council however, where matters of the higheſt importance are debated, the Grand Maſter has but two voices. The ordinary Council is compoſed of the Grand Maſter and the Grand Croſſes, but in a full Council two of the eldeſt Knights of each nation attend. Every nation, as has been intimated already, has its ſeveral Grand Prior, and every Grand Priory a certain number of Commanderies. The Knights are received into this order, either by undergoing the trials required by the ſtatutes, or by diſpenſation. Diſpenſations are either obtained by the Pope's Brief, or from a general chapel of the order, and are granted in caſe of ſome defect in their nobility or pedigree on the mother's ſide. The Knights are received either as of age, under minority, or as pages to the Grand Maſter. According to the ſtatutes they muſt be 16 years of age complete before they are received, enter into the noviciate at 17, and make profeſſion at 18. And they muſt preſent themſelves either to the grand chapter, or to the provincial aſſembly of the Grand Priory in which they are born. The proofs of their nobility by four deſcents on both ſides are made by the arms of the families, and an exact enquiry into regiſters, ſigned by the Grand Prior and ſent to Malta, where they undergo another examination by the Knights of that particular nation, who ſometimes reject them; and if they paſs, the ſtanding of the Knight is reckoned from that day, when he pays 250 crowns of gold to the treaſurer of the order. They make a particular enquiry whether any of the candidates predeceſſors have during thoſe four generations, derogated from their nobility by merchandize, traffick, or being bankers, except thoſe of Genoa and Sienna, in whom theſe things are eſteemed no objection. They ſometimes admit minors of a year old, but then 4000 Livres muſt be paid down by their guardians for this privilege, which are never returned. The Grand Maſter hath 16 pages, who ſerve him from 12 to 16 years of age, and then are ſucceeded by others. Thoſe who are chaplains, conventual clerks, or ſervants at arms, cannot be admitted into the order of Knights; nor any who are eccleſiaſticks, tho' they have all other requiſites.

The churchmen, who make the ſecond ſtate, are received as deacons, or clerks conventuals, to ſerve in the church of Malta from 10 to 15 years of age. The deacons are obliged to prove that they have been legally baptized, and that their parents are a degree above the common people, and the charge of their admiſſion is 100 crowns in gold, and the chaplains pay twice as much, beſides the duties to their reſpective nations; and the ſervants at arms pay the like. The prieſts of the obedience are received without any formalities, and are ſo called becauſe they obey the Grand Prior, who appoints them to officiate in the cures belonging to the order. They wear a white croſs upon their cloaks, and enjoy the privileges of the religion: and of theſe ſome are gentlemen. The ſervants of the office are thoſe who are employed in the hoſpital or other neceſſary occaſions. There are alſo donnes, or demi-croſſes, who marry, and wear a golden croſs of three branches, thoſe of the Knights having four, as have alſo thoſe of the ſervants and chaplains; but they muſt not wear them without a particular licence from the Grand Maſter. All the Knights, of what rank or quality ſoever, are obliged, after making their vows, to wear on the left ſide of their cloaks a croſs of white waxed cloth with eight points, which is their true badge, that of gold being only an ornament. When they go to war againſt the Turks, they wear over all a red coat, with a great white croſs before and behind without points, which are the arms of the religious. The ordinary habit of the Grand Maſter is a kind of caſſock of tabby or cloth, open before and tied about him with a girdle, at which hangs a great purſe, ſignifying, ſays my author, charity to the poor, according to the firſt inſtitution of the order; and over this he wears a velvet gown, or long cloak, when he goes to church on ſolemn feſtivals, and on the left ſide a white croſs with eight points, or croſs-patee. The reſt of the Knights give him the title of Eminence, and his ſubjects call him his Highneſs. Some ſay the Knights at their admiſſion vow to GOD, the Virgin MARY and St. JOHN Baptiſt, obedience, poverty and chaſtity. They are obliged to take care of the ſick and ſtrangers, and receive none into their order but ſuch as are of ſound robuſt bodies. The Priors chuſe the Grand Maſter, who is only ſubject to the Pope in ſpirituals, but has a dependance on thoſe ſecular Princes where their lands and revenues lie. If the ſuffrages at the election be equal, they chuſe an umpire who determines the matter. The annual revenue of the Grand Maſter is 10000 ducats, beſides ſome thouſands of ducats out of the common treaſury. Their galleys uſually carry 500 men each, and 16 pieces of cannon. They are obliged to ſuppreſs pirates by their agreement with CHARLES V, and think themſelves bound by their profeſſion to be engaged in a perpetual war with the Turks, as the Algerines and Corſairs of Barbary are with the Chriſtian States and Princes. When the Knights of Malta, ſays MOTRAYE, are profeſſed, a carpet is ſpread upon the ground, on which is ſet a piece of bread, a glaſs of water, and a ſword, and they are told, *This is was religion gives you, you muſt procure yourſelves the reſt with your ſword.* And accordingly this order have been in a perpetual ſtate of hoſtility with the Mahometans for ſeveral hundred years, and conſequently are very good ſoldiers, tho' I can't call them good Chriſtians; for ſurely that religion teaches peace and good-will to all mankind, of what ſect or perſuaſion ſoever they be.

The diſciples of MAHOMET indeed are obliged by their great Prophet to make no peace with the reſt of the world till they have beaten them into the ſame religion with themſelves; and we find them for many years after their firſt inſtitution refuſing to enter into any other treaty with Chriſtians than for a ſuſpenſion of arms, and that each party ſhould keep what they reſpectively poſſeſſed, but neceſſity has at length reduced them to better manners, and they have been obliged to yield up their fineſt towns, and very large territories, rather than run the hazard of being taken by ſtorm, particularly Temeſwaer and Belgrade, which were both ſurrendered by the Turks to the Imperialiſts in the laſt war; when according to the principles of their religion, they ought to have fought it out to a man, rather than have given up theſe places to the Chriſtians. And as the Turks by principle ought to be always in a ſtate of hoſtility with the Chriſtians, ſo we find ſome Chriſtian Princes and States beſides the Malteſe, engaged in a continual war with them, particularly the Pope and the moſt Chriſtian King of Spain. I do not remember that ever either of theſe powers entered into any formal treaty with the Mahometans, but the rule ſeems to be on both ſides, to do each other what miſchief they can. Indeed it happens that the dominions of theſe perpetual enemies are not contiguous, or elſe they would find themſelves under a neceſſity of treating ſometimes as well as the Imperialiſts and the Turks. But I think the Chriſtians have no manner of reaſon to cry out on the piracies and depredations of the Algerines, Sally-men, &c. when they themſelves do the very ſame things; taking and plundering all Turkiſh veſſels they meet with, and carrying the miſerable people into captivity: nor are their hoſtilities confined to the ſea, but they land on the ſhores of Barbary, and carry whole towns and villages into captivity, when they have an opportunity; which kind of viſits the natives of Barbary frequently return, landing on the Chriſtian ſhores, and plundering and deſtroying all within their reach. Malta indeed ſtands as a frontier gariſon againſt the Infidels, and is ſo ſtrong by art as well as nature, that the Turkiſh rovers can do them but little hurt; whereas their galleys take prizes almoſt every day, and the commanders grow rich by the ſpoils of their enemies, whom for that reaſon they never deſire to be at peace with. But what brings them in as much profit as any one article, is their priſoners, which either ſerve them as ſlaves, or are ranſomed at very high rates. But ſurely theſe practices will never induce the Infidels to believe that peace and love, and a univerſal benevolence are the grand characteriſticks of our religion: They will rather think that we are animated by the ſame ſpirit the diſciples of MAHOMET are, whatever we may pretend, and conſequently that they have reaſon to return us the uſual title we give them, of Barbarians.

I ſhall now add ſome remarks on Italy which have been omitted or lightly touched upon before.

Poor entertainments at their inns.

Between Rome and Naples, tho' it be one of the richeſt countries in the world, all our travellers agree, that there is the worſt accommodation and entertainment in this road that can be met with any where, and that a man muſt really undergo a great deal of hardſhip in the four days journey between thoſe two cities, if he does not take his proviſions with him. The fleſh of buffalo's, crows and magpies, ſuch, as we ſhould throw to the dunghill, here often makes the beſt part of the ordinary; and tho' they have a variety of wines in Italy, the beſt are ſcarce, eſpecially at their inns; partridges, hares, and other game, and wild-fowl are not often met with, except quails, and theſe they have in great abundance, eſpecially in the ſpring, when they arrive in vaſt flocks from Africa, and even cover the country; they are frequently ſo wearied in their flight croſs the Mediterranean, that they drop into ſhips as they are under ſail, and may be taken in heaps when they firſt come on ſhore, but ſo extremely lean, that they are very indifferent food till they are fatted. But to make ſome amends for the ill proviſions travellers meet with on the road, they travel in great ſecurity; there have ſcarce been any banditti or troops of robbers in the Eccleſiaſtical State ſince the Pontificate of SIXTUS V, who was very ſevere upon them, and other Princes following his example, they have pretty well cleared Italy of robbers, as they have alſo of bravo's or aſſaſſins. Gentlemen are permitted to ride with piſtols, and even fuzees in the country for their defence; but in ſeveral of their cities they will not allow a traveller to wear any arms, particulary at Genoa and Lucca, where they take away both ſwords and piſtols when you enter the gates, and return them again when you leave the town on paying a certain ſum, ſo that you will ſometimes pay treble the price of your arms in travelling through Italy. The bayonet and ſtiletto are unlawful weapons, and prohibited almoſt in every city.

Quails plentiful.

Few robbers.

Arms.

Their women concealed.

My author further obſerves, that tho' the women are permitted to come to church and hear ſermons in Lent, they are encloſed in a tall pew near the pulpit, where they can neither ſee or be ſeen; for the Italians cannot bear their women ſhould be prophaned by common eyes, nor can they comprehend how a man can be devout while he is ſtaring them in the face, as in our proteſtant churches. When they go to prayers and kneel near the men, they are ſo veiled, that no part of their faces can be ſeen, and ſo carefully watched by their relations or governantes, that they ſeldom have an opportunity of going aſtray; and indeed, it is ſaid, they ſeldom fail of complying with the firſt motion. They look upon themſelves to be unjuſtly reſtrained of their liberty, and make no ſcruple to break from their tyrannical keepers as often as they have opportunity, who allow themſelves all manner of liberties, tho' they will permit the women to take none.

Trees and fruits.

On the north ſide of the Apennine, they are not only forced to cover their orange and lemon-trees in the winter to preſerve them from the cold, but alſo their pomegranate-trees, olives, myrtles, caper-trees, and many others; the plane-tree is very common in Italy, as are the cypreſs, ſena, lentiſk, cork-tree, carob and ſcarlet oak, and the highways are frequently bordered with white mulberry trees, with the leaves whereof they feed their ſilk-worms; and almoſt all manner of medicinal herbs and ſimples are to be had on the Apennine mountains and the Alps. Spunges are found on the ſea ſide near Terracina: Pumice-ſtones grow on a little iſland over againſt the promontory of Miſenum, when the ſea is ſtormy it looſens them from the rocks, and carries them over in ſmall pieces to the oppoſite ſhore of Pozzoli and Baiæ; they are not to be met with about Veſuvius, or any other burning mountain, as ſome have related, thoſe ſtones being of a very different nature.

Spunges and pumice ſtones.

Minerals.

The Italian mountains, and eſpecially the Apennine, are rich in metals, and other minerals, as cryſtal, agate, alabaſter, and ſeveral kinds of marble; the white marble of Carara is eſteemed the fineſt, but the Grecian marble in the Archipelago has much brighter colours than the Italian.

Contrivances to moderate the heats of ſummer

Rules of health.

In the ſummer they uſe all manner of ſtratagems to render the heats tolerable at Rome, men of quality have apartments at the bottom of their houſes, where the ſun never enters; theſe are furniſhed with fountains and water-ſpouts, and floored with marble, and the doors ſo contrived as to draw in a cool refreſhing breeze when they want it. To preſerve them from flies and gnats when they ſleep, their beds are encloſed with curtains of gauze: when they ſleep after dinner, as they uſually do about two hours, they loll in eaſy chairs, whoſe backs are made to let down as low as they pleaſe. The Serain, or evening-dew in the Campania of Rome, is reckoned fatal to thoſe that ſleep in it for three months in ſummer, on which account, it is ſaid, travellers chuſe to lie 15 or 20 miles ſhort of Rome, if they can't reach the city before night. My author ſays, he found an inſcription over a door in Rome, importing that the air of this town is fatal to ſtrangers, and troubleſom to the natives: that if a man would preſerve his health here, he muſt take phyſick the ſeventh day after his arrival, avoid nauſeous ſmells, uſe moderate exerciſe, guard himſelf againſt colds and heats, abſtain from fruit and women, and never quench his thirſt with cold water.

Earthen diſhes and veſſels chiefly uſed.

Their day begins at ſun-ſet.

They uſe very little tin or pewter in this country, but generally earthen-ware, reſembling Delft or coarſer, for all kinds of veſſels. They begin their day at ſun-ſet, and count one o'clock an hour after, and ſo on to 24, and do not divide the day into twice twelve hours as we do here; the hours conſequently are perpetually varying, their day beginning ſooner or later as the ſun ſets, whereas it is always ſix o'clock with us ſix hours before or after noon, and twelve at noon and midnight. If the ſun ſets at ſix o'clock in Italy, the next day at noon they reckon 18; and if it ſets at ſeven, they reckon 17 the next day at noon and ſo on.

Summer the beſt ſeaſon to viſit Italy.

Though people are apt to imagine there is little winter in Italy, my author ſays, he found the winter very ſharp there, and he thinks travellers in the wrong in chuſing that ſeaſon to travel through it, as they generally do, for in winter the ways are uneaſy and dangerous, eſpecially in the mountains, on account of the ſnow and ice; the days alſo are ſhort, and a traveller comes late to his lodging, and is often forced to riſe before day; beſides, the country looks diſmal, nature is in a manner half dead, and neither fruits or flowers to be ſeen. On the contrary, in ſummer we have none of theſe inconveniences, and though it is very hot, it is only the repoſing one's ſelf during the heat of the day, and the cold of the winter ſufficiently counterbalances the heats of the ſummer.

Conveniences of travelling.

In many parts of Italy, as in Tuſcany, Parma and Modena, the traveller may have horſes or calaſhes, called Cambiatura, the rates of which are fixed, and the conveniency of this way of travelling is, that he may ſtop where he pleaſes, and change his horſes or calaſh at every Cambiatura, without being obliged to pay for their return; he may alſo take what time he pleaſes to ſatisfy his curioſity. There is room for two people in a calaſh, and my author prefers it to travelling on horſeback, becauſe one has the advantage of being ſkreened from the ſun and weather, and the traveller is permitted to carry a portmanteau faſtned to it of two hundred weight.

Servants at Rome.

Coaches.

Licences to eat fleſh

When the traveller comes to Rome, he will be immediately ſurrounded by a multitude of lackeys, who come to offer their ſervice, but my author adviſes him to be cautious how he truſts them, for they are generally a pack of knaves; it is moſt adviſable when a perſon wants them to take thoſe who belong to the town, or to the country at leaſt, becauſe they give ſecurity to perform their duty, and are beſt acquainted with the people and cuſtoms of the place. People of quality uſually carry ſome ſpare liveries with them to clothe them with. The ordinary allowance of theſe Staffieri, as they are called, is two and a half, or three Julio's a day, (a Julio is about ſix pence) when they are at board wages; and for ten or twelve piſtoles a month, a gentleman may have a handſome coach and a pair of horſes; except it be in Lent, or about Eaſter, when the concourſe is very great at Rome, and then they will aſk fourteen piſtoles a month for a coach and pair of horſes. A licence may eaſily be obtained here to eat fleſh in Lent, and the innkeepers on the road will furniſh you with it if you deſire it, privately, that they be not expoſed to the cenſures of the church. The lean-days, as they call their faſts, however very well deſerve that name, for it is ſcarce poſſible for a foreigner to diſpenſe with thoſe exceeding lean dinners.

Advice to thoſe who view the antiquities, &c.

A ſkilful antiquary is a very neceſſary dependant, which a man of quality muſt retain when he arrives at Rome, and will coſt him three or four piſtoles a month; and he is adviſed to take a particular view of every thing that is remarkable himſelf, without truſting to the report of others; and a gentleman will chuſe to view the curioſities of Rome in the company of other ſtrangers rather than alone, becauſe he will hear their opinions of them: he ought to be provided with maps, meaſures, proſpective-glaſſes, a mariner's compaſs and quadrant, and to be able to take the dimenſions of things himſelf.

Roman meaſures.

A Roman palm (or a ſpan and a half) makes thirteen inches Engliſh meaſure, the Roman foot is ſhorter by ſix lines than that of England, and eight Roman feet make a Roman Cane. A Braſſe of Florence is 22 inches and a half Engliſh.

A complete ſet of prints of all the antiquities and remarkable things that are to be found in Rome may be had there, but they will coſt near 100 piſtoles, according to MISSON; and he adviſes gentlemen not to be too parſimonious in their travels, for if they are, he tells them, they muſt expect to meet with trouble and vexation inſtead of pleaſure; whereas a liberal hand gains admiſſion every where, and procures great advantages; and as it is but once in their lives, and in order to accompliſh themſelves, they will not find their account in being over-penurious, ſuch a management only renders them contemptible wherever they come.

The way of travelling between Rome and Naples.

Gentlemen who travel in company from Rome to Naples uſually hire both calaſhes and horſes, that they may ride one way or the other by turns, as they ſee fit, and every paſſenger pays the perſon who letts them 15 piaſters, on condition he ſhall ſpend five days in going thither, wait for him five days at Naples, and lend his horſes to Veſuvius and Puzzoli, and return to Rome in five days more; ſo that the whole journey is performed in 15 days. They may very eaſily go from Rome to Naples in four days, only they are ſuppoſed to ſpend ſome time in viewing the country, or the curioſities in the way thither. (A piaſter is about the value of 6 *s.* 8 *d.* or 7 *s.*) But as Naples well deſerves more than five days to view it, my author adviſes the traveller to go by the Procacaio, or ordinary ſtage, becauſe he is at liberty then to return when he pleaſes.

The proper times for viewing the great cities of Italy.

He adviſes all gentlemen that travel to Italy alſo to contrive their affairs ſo, as to ſee the laſt days of the carnival at Venice, the Holy week at Rome, and the octave of the Sacrament at Bologna; and to avoid being at Rome during the heats. He ſays, a perſon will do well to conſider what company he travels with alſo, or it may be better to have none; ſome, as he obſerves, are curious in examining every thing, and will expoſe themſelves to a ſhower of rain, or hazard loſing a dinner to make a diſcovery of any importance, while others travel poſt thro' a country as it were, and take care of nothing elſe but the providing a good bed, a diſh of meat, or a glaſs of the beſt wine. A large company is by no means proper to travel with in Italy, where we meet with ſuch wretched inns, that they can ſeldom find beds or proviſions for a tolerable company.

Some things peculiar to ſeveral towns.

Every town almoſt in Italy affords ſome things which are either peculiar to it, or done in greater perfection than in other places; as at Rome you meet with fine prints of palaces, churches, gardens, ſtatues, fountains, ornaments of architecture, pictures of Popes, Princes, Cardinals, and other illuſtrious men, maps, plans of towns, &c. They are famous alſo for their perfumes, ſuch as bergamot, limetta, imperial oil and millefiori, and all ſorts of quinteſſences, balſams and pomatums. The fruit bergamot is like a lemon, and the perfume drawn from it is incomparably better than what we meet with in other places. The perfumers of Rome have either an art, or ingredients that their neighbours want, for perfuming ſkins, of which they make gloves, fans, purſes, and other things. And this is the proper place to furniſh one's ſelf with fine medals; tho' if a man has not ſome judgment in them, he will be impoſed upon.

Naples is remarkable for its ſilk ſtockings, waiſtcoats, breeches and caps, perfumed ſoap, ſnuff-boxes made of ſhells inlaid with ſilver, and Spaniſh ſnuff.

Venice is taken notice of for its points, works in glaſs, cryſtal and ſteel, ſnuff-boxes, ſilk ſtuffs, and fine ſcarlet.

At Milan we meet with works of rock cryſtal, ſwords, heads of canes, ſnuff-boxes, and ſteel toys.

Florence alſo is famous for its eſſences, balſams, pomatums, and other perfumes; but their bergamot is inferior to that of Rome. Here are alſo inlaid works, with the ſtones called Dendrites, and others called Ruins of Florence, which are found in Monte Limagio.

At Genoa we meet with ſilk ſtuffs, velvets, points, dry ſweetmeats, ſoap and waſh-balls.

At Bologna ſhining ſtones, or phoſphorus's, ſeveral kinds of ſnuff and waſh-balls, and their lapdogs were formerly in much eſteem; one of them made a mighty ſtir in England not many years ago.

Breſcia has been remarkable for its fire-arms.

The Nuns of Tortona for their works in ſtraw, of which they make boxes, flowers, birds, caſkets and toilets, or any little implement of the like nature.

The knives of Scarperia, ſixteen or ſeventeen miles from Florence, are much cried up, not ſo much for the goodneſs of the metal, as for their contrivance of putting ſeveral blades to one haft, as they will ten or a dozen at a time, if 'tis deſired.

At Loretto the devout traveller furniſhes himſelf with beads, crucifixes, Agnus Dei's, and other holy utenſils; and their beads are thought to have an extraordinary ſanctity by being touch'd or rubb'd on the Madona or image of the Bleſſed Virgin there.

The Nuns of Gaieta pretend to have the beſt eſſence of oranges: but MISSON does not approve of it; he ſays, it is too ſtrong and ſharp.

The maſks of Modena are ſaid to be well contrived, and the ſpurs of Reggio in as much eſteem in Italy, as thoſe of Rippon are here.

The milled gloves, the ſweet ſnuff of Millefiori, and the Roſa Solis of Turin, are alſo in eſteem with our travellers.

Some ſpecies of Engliſh goods prohibited lately in Sicily.

In the year 1726, the Viceroy of Sicily received orders from the Imperial court to publiſh a Bando, or proclamation, prohibiting the importation of ſeveral Engliſh manufactures, ſuch as duroys, calamancoes, camblets, druggets, and other ſtuffs proper for a warm country, in order to encourage thoſe of Germany, which are deſign'd to be brought into Sicily and Naples by the new company eſtabliſhed at Trieſte: whereupon the Engliſh Conſul Mr. CHAMBERLAYNE on the 10th of June that year, by the advice of the Engliſh factory at Meſſina, preſented the following memorial to the Viceroy of Sicily, viz.

Moſt excellent Lord,

WILLIAM CHAMBERLAYNE, his Britannick Majeſty's Conſul-General in this kingdom, and the Engliſh merchants ſettled and reſiding in the city of Meſſina, do humbly repreſent that they are informed, the Royal Patrimonial Council by your Excellency's direction, upon what motives your memorialiſts know not, are about to prohibit the importation into this city and kingdom of divers ſorts of Engliſh woollen manufactures and ſtuffs. That before ſuch a reſolution paſs, they offer to your Excellency's conſideration, the prejudice which would manifeſtly ariſe from it to the publick commerce, to the income of the royal treaſury, and to the general intereſt not only of his Imperial and Catholick Majeſty's ſubjects, but likewiſe of foreigners concerned in traffick with this city. For this would be an abolition of the eſtabliſhment of a Scala Franca, or ſtaple granted by the moſt ſerene King CHARLES II, who engaged his Royal word to permit the importing hither of all manner of merchandize and manufactures from what part of the world ſoever. It would alſo be a direct violation of the treaty of commerce concluded between the moſt ſerene Kings of Spain and England in the year 1667, which was ratified by King CHARLES II, of bleſſed memory, the ſame year, and confirmed by his preſent Imperial and Catholick Majeſty anno 1709, at Barcelona; by which treaty entire liberty was granted to the ſubjects of Great Britain to import and bring into all the territories, kingdoms and dominions of the King of Spain, all ſorts of merchandize, cloths, manufactures, and things of the Kingdom of England, there to ſell, barter, or otherwiſe convert and diſpoſe of the ſame, as will more fully appear to your Excellency by the incloſed copies of the article of the Scala Franca, and the ſeventh article of the aforeſaid treaty concluded and confirmed as above. Wherefore the memorialiſts have judged it proper by way of prevention to make application to your Excellency, a Prince zealous for juſtice, and a lover of the publick good, to induce you to ſuſpend ſo important a reſolution till ſome deputy of theirs be permitted to lay before you the ſolid and weighty reaſons they have to urge againſt this novelty, which is not only prejudicial to the publick commerce, the promoting whereof your Excellency has ſo much at heart, but to the general intereſt of the natives and foreigners who are concerned in, and do contribute to and carry on the trade of this city and kingdom, and alſo to the

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the royal duties, which muſt inevitably diminiſh in proportion as commerce leſſens. But in caſe your Excellency in your great wiſdom ſhall determine otherwiſe, they beſeech you at leaſt to give ſufficient allowance of time before ſuch prohibition takes place ; becauſe the memorialiſts under the ſanction of the publick faith, and relying on the royal promiſes, have ſome time ago ſent commiſſions to their correſpondents in England for large quantities of ſuch ſeveral ſorts of goods as they uſed to provide every year againſt the fair in Auguſt, which by this time are not only bought up, but actually imbarked and on the way hither, to the end that within the time limited they may vend and diſpoſe of them. Upon which conceſſion from your Excellency as a juſt Prince, the memorialiſts do ſecurely depend.

The anſwer to which memorial was, That the orders from the court of Vienna on this affair being uncontrolable, the publiſhing them could not be deferred.

The Imperial navy in the port of Italy and the Ocean.

A liſt of the Imperial navy.

In the ports of Naples, Sicily, and the Adriatick

gulph.	Guns.		Guns
The St. Barbara.	68	St. Ottila	48
St. Leopard	62	St. Nepomucence	48
St. Charles	58	St. Joſeph	36
St. Elizabeth	50	St. Anthony	30
St January	42	St. Anne	42
St. Lucia	46	St. Baltazar	40

Beſides eight frigates and fourteen galleys.

In the Ocean	Guns		Guns
The Charles	40	Lyon	28
Empreſs Elizabeth	36	Tyger	32
Auſtria	34	Eagle	32
Prince Eugene	32	Force	30
Marquis Viſconti	30	Peace	32
Marquis de Prie	30	Concord	34
Union	28	Bleſſing	32
Hope	30	And three advice-ſhips.	

This liſt being taken only from the publick papers, I cannot be anſwerable for the exactneſs of it; but it is ſurprizing if the Emperor have a fleet already any thing near ſo powerful as this is repreſented to be.

The fruits of the earth deſtroyed in Italy in 1727.

Tempeſts and unſeaſonable weather proved almoſt as deſtructive to Italy in the year 1727, as any earthquake that has happened there in our memory; for they relate, that on the 7th of October this year, there aroſe ſuch a dreadful hurricane at Naples, that the like was never known. The ſtorm begun by furious jarring winds, attended with continual lightning and dreadful thunder-claps, which were ſoon followed with ſuch heavy rains mixed with hail, that all the gardens in that city and neighbourhood were overflowed; the trees, vineyards, &c. which were upon the hills round the city were torn up by the roots and waſhed away by the torrent; their kitchen-gardens were covered with ſand, and in the lower part of the city the flood forced open the ſtrongeſt gates, threw down ſeveral walls and houſes, and deſtroyed abundance of people : the great reſervoirs which furniſh the city with water, with their wells and fountains, were choaked up. The borough of Pianura, which lies very low, was ſo ſuddenly overflowed, that of 500 inhabitants, ſix only eſcaped ; the borough of Panceoli was entirely ſunk, and there aroſe ſuch a thick vapour and poiſonous ſtench out of this gulph, that all that came near it ſwooned away, or died on the ſpot. No words can expreſs the deſolation which happened both in city and country, with the loſs of their corn, wine, cattle, and other proviſions. This calamity was aſcribed to a violent ſhock of an earthquake they felt the night before, which terrified them extremely ; the ſea ſwelled alſo in an extraordinary manner, and from Veſuvius iſſued a mighty flame : whereupon the head of St. JANUARIUS was expoſed, the miraculous image of the crucifix uncovered, before which the Viceroy, Nobility and people proſtrated themſelves to avert the wrath of heaven.

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At Venice the ſame month they had terrible ſtorms of rain and hail, and in January following they relate, that the tempeſtuous winds and rains continued at Naples ; that the air was ſometimes ſo cloſe they could hardly breathe, which with the frequent eruptions of Mount Veſuvius occaſioned a general conſternation, and bred diſtempers in the country : that they had for three days ſucceſſively ſuch furious ſtorms of rain attended with dreadful thunder and lightning, that the flat country was all under water, and appeared like a general deluge, and that the damage occaſioned by it was not to be expreſſed. From Florenee the ſame month they write, that the Sacrament had been expoſed for three days in the metropolitan church, and publick prayers put up throughout the dutchy to obtain from the Almighty a ceſſation of rain. A plenary indulgence was publiſhed in form of a Jubilee in all the churches of that city, and the Grand Duke forbad the uſual diverſions of the Carnival ; and in the Venetian territories ſeveral little towns were ſwept away by the overflowing of rivers.

At Notto in Sicily in the year 1727-8, there happened a terrible earthquake, which laſted from the 5th of January to the 9th, and threw down ſeveral churches, monaſteries and private houſes ; the ſame was felt at Auguſta, Syracuſa, Catanea, Meſſina and Palermo, and almoſt throughout the kingdom, but few or no people periſhed in it.

Memorials of the Italian Princes againſt the Quadruple Alliance.

The Emperor and the other parties to the Quadruple Alliance looking upon the duchies of Tuſcany, Parma and Placentia as Fiefs of the Empire, and agreeing that on failure of iſſue of thoſe Princes the ſaid duchies ſhould be conferred on Don CARLOS, ſon to the preſent Queen of Spain ; this proceeding was highly reſented by the Dukes of Tuſcany and Parma, as well as by the Pope, who pretends that theſe duchies are Fiefs of the Holy See.

The Duke of Tuſcany in a memorial endeavours to ſhew that the ſtate of Florence has been entirely independent on the Empire ever ſince it had a being ; that it has always been governed by its own laws and magiſtrates ; that the Great Dukes of Tuſcany are abſolute maſters and ſovereigns in that State ; that all the rights of Majeſty belong to them ; and that they only differ from the Kings of France and Spain in the extent of their dominions, as not having ſuch large territories under their juriſdiction.

To which the Imperialiſts reply, That it is notorious that the city and territory of Florence made a part of the kingdom of Italy, and that when the German Emperors became maſters of that kingdom, Tuſcany, and the city of Florence in particular, was as much ſubject to them as the reſt of Italy ; that it continued under the Dukes or Marquiſſes of Tuſcany, who were the Emperors feudatories from the time of RODOLPHUS I, tho' it was governed by its own magiſtrates, as the cities of the Empire are at this day, yet it always acknowledged the ſovereignty of the Emperor, till the time of MAXIMILIAN I, who for a ſum of money confirmed its privileges : That the Emperor CHARLES V, in the year 1530, commanded his troops to beſiege the city of Florence, to reduce them to their duty to the Empire, which they then ſeemed to diſpute; that the city having been obliged to ſurrender, the Emperor declared he had a right, after depriving it of all thoſe privileges which it had received of his predeceſſors, to diſpoſe both of the city and territory according to his pleaſure, as of an eſtate of inheritance devolved to the Empire; but upon the interceſſion of the Pope, and by advice of the States of the Empire, he had been pleaſed to pardon it, and to confirm all its privileges, rights and liberties obtained of the Roman Kings or Emperors. But whether the duchies of Tuſcany and Parma are Fiefs of the Empire or not, ſince the Diet of the Empire have declared them to be ſo; and the greateſt powers of Europe, who were parties to the Quadruple Alliance, have determined they ſhall be deemed ſuch, and are in a condition to conſtitute Don Carlos Sovereign of theſe duchies if they ſee fit, the matter of right will be little attended to. The Princes of this age apprehend themſelves veſted with authority to ſet up and depoſe Kings at their pleaſure, as is evident from their diſpoſal of Sicily and Sardinia twice in a few years, without ſo much as enquiring into the laws and conſtitutions of the reſpective countries: Theſe, it is held, ought to be dormant when the general good of the world comes in competition with that of any ſingle State; or, when the chief Powers of Europe are pleaſed to think ſo. They themſelves ſeem to rely more upon a confederacy, or guaranty of their neighbours for the eſtabliſhment of their thrones, than either upon the conſtitution of their reſpective governments, or the affections of the people they are to govern. The civil power does not only truckle to the military in moſt of the kingdoms of Europe; but where national troops are not ſo ready as it is expected, to oppreſs and haraſs their fellow-ſubjects, foreigners are call'd in, who are ſuppoſed to have leſs remorſe, to finiſh the ruin of the unhappy people. But to return to the eventual ſucceſſion, as it was called, of the duchies of Tuſcany and Parma, which the parties to the Quadruple Alliance had conferred on Don Carlos Prince of Spain: The laſt Pope Innocent XIII, loudly proteſted againſt it, declaring theſe duchies Fiefs of the Holy See, and in the inſtrument to be ſent to the Plenipotentiaries at Cambray on this head, he has theſe expreſſions: 'Can Chriſtian Princes flatter themſelves with the hopes of concluding a laſting peace, when the depriving the Holy See, and the Vicar of Jesus Christ, of their undeniable rights, is made the foundation of it? Can they promiſe themſelves long to enjoy what they violently ſeize againſt all manner of juſtice, and invade the indiſputable right of an uninterrupted ſucceſſion, which has been acknowledged for ſeveral ages by all the nations of Europe.' The preſent Pope Bennet XIII alſo, upon the concluſion of the Vienna alliance between the Emperor and Spain, wherein the diſpoſal of the duchies of Parma and Tuſcany are confirmed, ſent a circular letter to his Nuncio's in the ſeveral courts of Europe, wherein he tells them, he could not delay acquainting them with his ſorrow for thoſe unjuſt conditions in the treaty. That he abhorred and diſowned them, and ſolemnly proteſted againſt the ſame, and would leave no ſtone unturned to provide a remedy againſt them; concluding as follows: 'Venerable Brethren, We will apply ourſelves to pious prayers, which are powerful weapons with God, that the Lord would pleaſe to caſt his eyes upon his inheritance; and not ſuffer us to receive damage from thoſe to whoſe protection he hath recommended the defence and ſupport of the intereſts of the Holy Church.'

The Duke of Parma looked upon himſelf alſo to have had great injuſtice done by the diſpoſal of his dominions by foreign powers, without conſulting him, and proteſted againſt it: but I don't find that any of the parties to the Quadruple Alliance took any notice of the oppoſition that was made either by the Pope, or the Dukes of Tuſcany or Parma. The miſunderſtanding however which has happened ſince between the allies of Vienna and Hanover may effect that for them, which all their own care and foreſight could not, unleſs a ſpeedy peace ſhould reunite theſe powers again, and the Quadruple Alliance be made the foundation of another treaty.

Having omitted to deſcribe the manner of balloting for a Doge of Venice, I ſhall take the opportunity of doing it here.

The manner of balloting in the Great Council at Venice.

The obſequies of the deceas'd Doge are no ſooner over, but all the nobility above 30 years of age meet in the Grand Council, where they elect five collectors, who are to correct the *Ducale Promiſſione*, i. e. the ſtatutes, to the obſervation of which the Doge is to ſwear immediately after his election. And theſe Noblemen have a power to add or abſtract whatever they ſhall deem requiſite for the good of the State.

The Grand Council being afterwards aſſembled in the hall of St. Mark's palace, the door is ſhut, and the number of the members preſent being counted, they throw into a baſon, or urn, an equal number of balls all white, except thirty which are gilt, and when they are well mixed, every gentleman takes out one: after which, the 30 who happen upon the gilt balls meet in a little room, where there are prepared 30 other balls, of which nine are gilt; thoſe of the 30 which draw the nine gilt balls chuſe 40 members, who are reduced to 12 by lot, and theſe 12 elect 25, the firſt chuſing three, and the reſt two a-piece; theſe are by lot reduced to nine, and thoſe nine chuſe 45, by naming five a-piece, who are again reduced by lot to eleven, and theſe chuſe 41 members; who elect the Doge, if they are approved by the Grand Council; and if they be not, the ſame method muſt be repeated. And by this tedious way of balloting they prevent all poſſible corruption or influence in the choice of a Doge. When the 41 electors are approved by the Grand Council, they are ſhut up in the palace of St. Mark, and not ſuffered to ſtir out till they have elected a Doge, and there muſt be 25 of the number concur in the choice. When the ſuffrage is declared, the Doge elect is carried on mens ſhoulders from the church round the ſquare of St. Mark in a machine, in which he is attended by two or three noblemen, his friends, and ſometimes by the boy who drew the ball that determined his election; and being crowned by the Procurator Treaſurer, he uſually makes a ſpeech to the people, after which he gives a ball; the ſtreets are illuminated, and maſquerades and other entertainments are continued for three nights ſucceſſively; bread and wine being in the mean time diſtributed to the multitude.

A Table of the diſtances of the great towns in Italy from each other.

Adria 12 miles from Venice.
Albano 14 from Rome, 8 from Freſcati, and 7 from Vellitri.
Alexandria 18 from Caſal, 10 from Tortona, 40 from Turin.
Anconia 15 from Loretto, 20 from Senegallia.
Aveſte 50 from Turin.
Aquapendente 9 from Bolſena.
Aquileia 50 from Venice.
Aſti 25 from Turin.
Bergamo 30 from Breſcia.
Bolſena 16 from Viterbo, 8 from Mantefiaſcone.
Bolonia 58 from Florence, 30 from Ferrara, 150 from Loretto, 210 from Rome.
Breſcia 60 from Milan, 40 from Verona.
Capua 16 from Naples.
Carignan 8 from Turin.
Caſal 30 from Turin.
Civita Vecchia 30 from Rome.
Comacchio 16 from Ravenna.
Como 28 from Milan.
Cortona 50 from Florence.
Crema 20 from Cremona.
Cremona 48 from Milan, 40 from Mantua.
Chiuſi 36 from Sienna.
Fana 8 from Peſaro, 15 from Senegallia.
Feltro 33 from Vicenza.
Final 40 from Genoa.
Ferrara 30 from Bolonia, 50 from Mantua, 45 from Padua.
Florence 58 from Bolonia, 140 from Rome.
Fondi 10 from Terracina, 10 from Gaieta.
Freſcati 30 from Rome.
Fuligno 12 from Spoletto.
Fuſina 5 from Venice, 20 from Padua.
Gaieta 50 from Naples, 5 from Mola, 65 from Rome.
Garda 15 from Verona.
Genoa 84 from Milan, 30 from Savona, 84 from Turin, 46 from Final.
Guaſtalla 8 from Sabionetta, 20 from Mantua.
Itru 6 from Fondi.
Ivrea 25 from Turin.
Leghorn 120 from Genoa, 16 from Piſa.
Loretto 150 from Rome, 15 from Ancona, 15 from Fermo, 150 from Bolonia.
Lucca 24 from Maſſa, 10 from Piſa.
Macerata 20 from Ancona.
Mantua 88 from Milan, 40 from Cremona, 42 from Modena.
Maſſa 76 from Genoa, 29 from Piſa.
Milan 85 from Turin, 250 from Rome, 75 from Parma.
Mirandola 20 from Modena, 30 from Bolonia.
Modena 40 from Mantua, 30 from Parma, 100 from Milan.
Montefiaſcone 20 from Civita Vecchia, 8 from Viterbo.
Monte Alcino 20 from Sienna.
Monte Pulciano 27 from Sienna.
Naples 140 from Rome, 16 from Capua.
Narni 8 from Otricoli, 7 from Terni.
Nettuno 30 from Rome.
Nice 40 from Oneglia, 60 from Pignerol.
Novara 30 from Milan, 10 from Verceil.
Noli 10 from Savona.
Oneglia 60 from Genoa, 40 from Final.
Orbitello 30 from Civita Vecchia.
Orvieto 45 from Rome, 20 from Chiuſi.
Oſtia 12 from Rome.
Otricoli 8 from Narni.
Padua 22 from Venice, 54 from Mantua.
Paleſtrina 10 from Tivoli, 28 from Rome.
Parma 50 from Bolonia, 60 from Genoa, 30 from Modena.
Pavia 20 from Milan, 35 from Placentia.
Peruſa Valley 4 from Pignerol.
Perugia 30 from Orvietto.
Peſaro 10 from Fano, 20 from Rimini.
Pignerol 16 from Turin.
Piperno 35 from Rome, 10 from Terracina.
Piſa 42 from Florence, 16 from Leghorn.
Piſtoa 20 from Florence.
Placentia 20 from Cremona.
Radicofani 42 from Viterbo 40 from Sienna.
Ravenna 50 from Ferrara.
Reggio 15 from Modena, 15 from Parma.
Rimini 70 from Bolonia, 30 from Ravenna, 25 from Urbino.
Rome 210 from Bolonia, 30 from Civita Vecchia, 152 from Florence, 150 from Loretto, 140 from Naples, 300 from Venice.
Ronciglione 25 from Rome, 17 from Montefiaſcone.
Roveredo 30 from Verona, 11 from Trent.
Rovigo 20 from Padua.
Sabionetta 20 from Mantua.
Salerno 28 from Naples.
Savona 30 from Genoa, 16 from Final.
Scarperia 7 from Florence.
Senegallia 20 from Ancona.
Sermonietta 30 from Rome, 15 from Vellitri.
Sienna 35 from Florence, 60 from Leghorn.
Spoletto 45 from Rome, 15 from Terni.
Suza 23 from Turin.
Terni 7 from Narni, 85 from Urbino.
Terracina 55 from Rome, 10 from Piperno.
Tivoli 20 from Rome, 16 from Freſcatti.
Todi 24 from Spoletto, 14 from Orvietto.
Tolentino 10 from Macerata.
Tortona 46 from Milan.
Tuſcanella 10 from Montefiaſcone.
Trent 60 from Breſcia, 60 from Mantua, 80 from Venice.
Treviſo 15 from Venice.
Turin 84 from Genoa, 350 from Rome, 85 from Milan, 120 from Geneva, 250 from Venice.
Valenza 32 from Milan, 12 from Caſal.
Udina 12 from Palma Nova.
Vellitri 20 from Rome, 9 from Freſcatti.
Venice 80 from Ferrara, 300 from Rome, 350 from Turin, 170 from Milan, 80 from Mantua.
Verceil 40 from Turin, 15 from Caſal, 45 from Milan.
Verona 25 from Mantua, 50 from Padua.
Verue 20 from Turin, 15 from Caſal.
Vicenza 20 from Padua, 40 from Venice.
Vintimiglia 30 from Oneglia, 15 from Nice.
Viterbo 40 from Rome, 8 from Montefiaſcone.
Vogliera 16 from Pavia.
Volaterra 30 from Sienna.
Urbino 120 from Rome, 20 from Fano, 34 from Rimini.
Yvrea, or Ivrea, 25 from Turin, 25 from Verceil.

This alphabetical table will give the reader a general notion of the diſtances of the great towns in Italy from each other; and if he finds them differ two or three miles in twenty from other accounts, he muſt not complain for want of exactneſs, for ſcarce any two travellers come nearer: Some meaſure the diſtances in a direct line on the map, while others take in all the turnings and windings, &c.

Rome, according to baron POLLNITZ, is ſtill one of the fineſt cities in the world, though it has loſt much of its ancient beauty and grandeur. Nothing is equal to its church, its fountains, and ſome of its palaçes. He proceeds to give a particular deſcription of them; but having dwelt pretty much on theſe particulars in the former edition of MODERN HISTORY, I ſhall only take notice of ſuch things as were omitted there.

Tho' every thing in St. PETER's church, ſays the baron, is worthy of the particular obſervation of a curious traveller, I think nothing deſerves it more than the noble pictures of Moſaic work, wherewith the altars are decorated; than which there can be nothing more complete; for it ſurpaſſes any thing that ever was done by the ancients. It is but a few years that the artiſts have arrived to the perfection we now diſcover in works of this kind. One of theſe pictures, which is juſt finiſhed, repreſents the ſtory of St. PETRONELLA, St. PETER's ſiſter, ſo excellently deſigned, and ſo nicely coloured and poliſhed, that nothing in the art of man can out-do it. One would ſwear 'twas a picture behind a glaſs; yet it conſiſts only of little glaſs-ſquares, exactly cemented together by a certain gum that is extremely aſtringent. It is a piece of work of the more value, becauſe it is proof againſt the injuries of weather, and nothing can damage it. They deſign to remove out of this church all the pictures painted in oil, which grow mouldy by time and moiſture, and to put pictures of Moſaic work in their place. If this project, which is in a good forwardneſs, and carried on apace, be ever finiſhed, St. PETER's church will be poſſeſſed of a treaſure the more precious, becauſe there will be none like it.

The baron proceeds to give an account of thoſe unfortunate Princes, who are there called King and Queen of England (meaning the Pretender and his Wife.) Perhaps (ſays he) you will not diſlike to know what they are doing, and on what foot they ſtand here. That unfortunate Prince, which is a title I think no body can envy him, lives a very melancholy life; and I queſtion whether the penſion which the Pope allows him, twelve thouſand crowns, is enough to make him eaſy under his afflictions. He lodges in the palace of the marquis Monti, and has a great number of domeſticks, but few in his ſervice that are perſons of quality. My lord DUNBAR is the chief man at his court, ſince Mr. HAYES, to whom the Pretender gave the title of my lord Inverneſs, retired to Avignon: this gentleman is intruſted with the education of the young Princes, who are ſtiled here the Prince of Wales, and the Duke of York, and as lovely children they both are, as one ſhall ſee.

The Pretender is complimented with the ſtile of Majeſty by the Pope, and by all that have acceſs to him. He never goes to an audience of the holy Father in publick, but always by the back-ſtairs; and the Pope not only gives him an arm chair, but all the honours are paid to him, that are due to a King who keeps incognito. When the Cardinals viſit him he gives them the tabouret or little ſtool; but the Imperial Cardinals never go to ſee him; nor did they think fit to do it, even at the time when the Emperor ſeemed to be more embroiled with the King of Great Britian than ever, whereas the French Cardinals go to him every day, and are always with him, notwithſtanding the ſtrict alliance between the King their maſter, and the King of Great Britain. When the eldeſt Prince, who is here ſtiled the Prince of Wales, goes to wait on the Pope, he is treated as the preſumptive heir of a crown; he has a chair ſet for him with a back to it, and takes place of the Cardinals. As to the younger ſon, the pretended Duke of York, his rank is not yet ſettled, nor has he yet made a viſit to the Pope.

The Pretender is of a middling ſtature, but a mere ſkeleton; and, if I may venture to ſay it, has nothing in his looks of an impoſtor. He is prodigiouſly like the pictures I have ſeen of the late King JAMES II. only his aſpect is ſomething more melancholy; but he is ſo far from it in his natural temper, that he is a lover of pleaſures, and would indulge himſelf in gallantry, if he was not ſo ſtrictly watched by the prieſts; for if the ſcandalous chronicle does not belie him, Mrs. HAYES, alias lady Inverneſs, had for a while the honour of obliging him. If one may gueſs at the heart by external appearances, he is ſincerely attached to the religion which he profeſſes, yet without being ſuch a bigot as ſome will have him to be; for he cauſes his children to be educated by proteſtants, and every ſunday a church of England miniſter preaches in Engliſh in the proteſtant chapel of his palace: he is extremely reſerved at firſt to thoſe with whom he is not acquainted, but it wears off by degrees; and when once he knows people, he is very courteous and civil to them. I have the honour to be often at his table, and I am bound to acknowledge his favours to me.

His table, which is commonly laid for a dozen gueſts, is ſerved with what is grand and delicate. People are ſeated at his table without any diſtinction of rank, and he ſits himſelf between the two Princes, his ſons: he talks a great deal at his meals, but the tone of his voice is not the moſt agreeable: his converſation runs generally upon common topicks, and falls very naturally upon his miſfortunes. All this Prince's time is regularly divided; he riſes early, devotes the morning to his buſineſs, hears maſs before noon, when he goes to dinner, and after ſitting an hour and an half, or two hours at table, takes a nap; and then, unleſs it be a ſaint's day, when he goes to veſpers, he walks out for the air in ſome garden or other without Rome, where he exerciſes himſelf on horſeback, or elſe diverts himſelf at mall with his ſons and his gentlemen. In the evening he returns to his palace, and receives viſits from the Cardinals; at ten o'clock he goes to ſupper, and at midnight to bed. During the carnival, he was almoſt every day at the opera, where his box being very large, he uſed to ſup with the gentlemen and ladies of his court.

The baron, giving an account of the carnival at Rome, ſays, it laſted but one week, according to an eſtabliſhed cuſtom; and during all that time, from two o'clock in the afternoon till ſunſet, all the ſtreets were full of maſquers, ſome on foot, and ſome in open chaiſes: the former ſay a thouſand ſilly things, and the latter throw flower in one another's eyes by handfuls, but the beſt on it is, that either by their clothes, or their equipage, every body is known. Beſides, the pageantry of the Romans is always the ſame even in maſquerades; they dreſs up their domeſticks like harlequins, and make them follow them with their faces bare. They thus take the air, gravely, in open chariots, made like gondola's. Their horſes are adorned with plumes of feathers, and loaded with little bells, like ours in the ſled races. In the evening, the coaches range themſelves in two rows in the ſtreet del Corſo; which is, beſides, pretty narrow; and there they ſee the race of barbs, which are five or ſix horſes, that are ſuffered to run looſe without a rider, from the gate del Popoli, to a place beyond the Venetian palace. The poor beaſts gallop through the ſhouts and cries of the populace, and are often crippled by ſtriking themſelves againſt the coaches. The firſt of theſe horſes that reaches the goal wins a prize for his maſter, which generally conſiſts of a piece of cloth of gold; and at ſunſet every body retires. Mean time, a Roman will tell you, that the carnival of Rome is the fineſt in the world.

But the thing of which they brag moſt, and which they believe is no where to be parallelled for magnificence, is their balls, of which you ſhall now be judge. Several gentlemen having clubbed this winter for the hire of the palace Barberini, near the Mount of Piety, and cauſed it to be furniſhed by the Jew Brokers, when the day was fixed for the ball they invited all the ladies; and as to the gentlemen, they had the liberty of appearing there maſked, provided they made themſelves known at the door: all the rooms were ſmall, and but poorly lighted: there were ſeveral pieces of dancing to the muſick of five or ſix violins: the room deſigned for the principal nobility was encompaſſed with forms, and the place for the dancers was an oval ſpace railed in. A gentleman of the company, that gave the ball, ſtood at the entrance of the oval: they gave him the title of maſter of the hall, and it was he that called out the dancers. All the ladies were maſked at this ball, which was called a feaſt, but I know not why; for there were glaſſes, indeed, but there was nothing to eat or drink. The ladies were all gay, and ſome of them in court dreſſes. I have been twice at theſe pretended entertainments, but was ſo tired, and in ſuch danger of being preſſed to death, that I do not care to go again; for which reaſon, the Romans ſay I have not an elegant taſte.

Neither am I very well reconciled to their plays, of which, indeed, here are none all the year, except during the carnival; but then we had two opera-theatres, and four or five for comedy. Of all theſe theatres there is but one that is good for any thing, and that is the ladies theatre, commonly called the theatre of Aliberti, becauſe it was built by order of one count ALIBERTI. The room is exceſſive large, ſo that the voices are loſt in it. It has ſeven rows of boxes, ſo low and little, that it makes the room look like a hen-rooſt; the pit will hold nine hundred perſons with eaſe: the ſtage is ſpacious, very high, and finely decorated; but they do not ſhift the ſcenes with that dexterity as they do at our play-houſes; yet when the whole is put together, the place is not to be deſpiſed: the habits of the three principal actors are magnificent, but thoſe of the reſt are horrible. Their voices are good, and ſo are their inſtruments, for the moſt part; but their dances are too bad to behold, and you cannot imagine any thing more hideous: the women are in the diſguiſe of men, out of a ridiculous ſcruple, if I may venture to call it ſo, which they have here, that women ſhould not be ſeen at the theatres. This is the reaſon that the opera's at Rome are vaſtly inferior to the other opera's of Italy. There is not, perhaps, a more ridiculous ſight than to ſee theſe creatures, who are but half men, play the parts of women; yet though they have neither air nor gracefulneſs, they are applauded here as much as the beſt actreſſes are elſewhere. Though I am paſſionately fond of the Italian muſick, yet I own to you, that I am diſguſted with their opera's, when I ſee thoſe eunuchs play the part of a RCLAND, a HERCULES, or ſome ſuch hero; and I have not patience to ſee no more than half a dozen actors, no machines, and no dances, except in the interludes. In my opinion ſuch an opera rather deſerves the name of a concert. Good voices here are very ſcarce, and there are actually but five or ſix men, and three women, that have the reputation of ſinging well. The caſe is the very ſame with the compoſers; they have juſt loſt one of the ableſt men of that claſs, viz. LEONARD VINCI, who, they ſay, was poiſoned at Naples; but there are ſtill remaining Mr. HASS, commonly called the Saxon, and ſignior PURPORA, of whom the former is a German, who married the famous ſigniora FAUSTINA.

While I am giving you an account of the pleaſures of Rome, I ought not to omit the inundations of the ſquare Navona, which are performed on the four ſundays in the month of Auguſt. Two thirds of the ſquare being then laid under water, it forms a lake, in which the coaches make a ring. The adjacent windows are full of ſpectators, and the fronts of the houſes are crowded by the populace, who make hideous ſhouts and outcries, when a coach happens to take in a little water, or when one overturns, which ſometimes is the caſe. The oddeſt thing of all, to my mind, is, that while the people were intent upon ſeeing the coaches paſs, and paying a thouſand pranks, a jeſuit, mounted upon a rail, at the other end of the ſquare, bawled out in vain for an audience of penitents; and tho' very few, if any body heard him, yet he went on haranguing; and it was not his fault, that every body did not forſake all to hear him. About twenty paces from the preacher was a mountebank, who by the comical jeſts, and actions of his merry-andrew, drew a much greater audience to him than the jeſuit had.

Are not theſe very enchanting pleaſures? Yet a Roman, who never paſſed the Ponte Mole, as there are a great many who have not, will tell you, there is none like thoſe of Rome. But I affirm, that the Romans do not know what diverſion is; for in thoſe parties of pleaſure, where reigns the greateſt freedom, there is always an air of conſtraint, which one does not ſee elſewhere: nor does a free deportment become them; inſomuch, that when they aſſume ſuch a carriage, they naturally forget politeneſs; which, beſides, is not what they are much uſed to; for they know how to be reſpectful much more than to be polite. The way to be acquainted with them thoroughly, is to viſit them at their country-ſeats, where they are more frank, leſs ceremonious, and more ſociable, and where they live much better than they do at Rome; at leaſt they feed better: and I will even venture to ſay, that they there ſpend high, but they get not the credit by ſuch living which they ought, becauſe they do not ſet it off to the beſt advantage; and if I am not too much prejudiced, it ſeems to me that they grudge the expence. The moſt ſumptuous article of their repaſts is deſerts. They have excellent cooks and butlers, they pretend; but as for us, Ultramontains, we are not quite ſo well uſed to their method of cookery.

Every nation in Europe where the Roman catholick religion is profeſſed, have their hoſpitals for pilgrims in this city, but that of the Trinity receives all indifferently; inſomuch, that it had lodged and fed at one time fifteen thouſand perſons, beſides their ordinary quota.

The univerſity and publick ſchools, here called the Sapienza, were founded by Pope EUGENIUS IV. enlarged and beautified by URBAN VIII. and ALEXANDER VII. The ſtructure is magnificent, and the ſchools of all the faculties extremely commodious; and there are no leſs than forty profeſſors, who have good ſalaries; but they have very little buſineſs ſince the erecting the Jeſuits colleges, who ſeem to have engroſſed the education of youth here, and in moſt Roman catholick countries.

The palaces in Rome are very numerous, the nobility of Italy chuſing to reſide moſt part of the year in towns: and architecture is one of their favourite amuſements, and they are furniſhed with greater variety of rich materials from the ruins of the old city, and their own quarries, than are to be met with elſewhere.

The chief of the Pope's palaces are the Vatican, Monte Cavallo, and the Capitol. As to the palaces of the nobility, thoſe of Farneſe, Borgheſe, Colonna, Palavacini, and Barberini, are moſt admired; but we are not to imagine that the whole town conſiſts of palaces: even at the grand entrance of the gate del Popoli, there are as mean buildings on the right and left, as are to be ſeen in any town whatever, while thoſe in the front are ſurprizingly magnificent.

The Pope, conſidered as a temporal Prince, is one of the moſt abſolute monarchs in Europe: he holds, indeed, a conſiſtory of cardinals frequently, who are his council in eccleſiaſtical affairs, but are not permitted to intermeddle in the civil government. The Pope has of late years been very cautious in electing perſons of high birth, who are related to ſovereign princes, on account of the diſturbances that have been occaſioned ſometimes by their too powerful intereſts; and if ſuch perſons do obtain a cardinal's cap, they ſeldom are advanced to the papal chair, leſt they ſhould endeavour to fix it in their families. And the Popes having been Italians for ſeveral centuries, take care that there never want a great majority of the natives of Italy in that body, to ſtrengthen their intereſt againſt foreigners, who being advanced to the papal ſee, would naturally be partial to their reſpective countries, and, perhaps, give up the prerogatives of the church in favour of their natural Sovereigns. Such cardinals as have not a competent ſubſiſtence of their own, which ſeldom happens, are allowed, it is ſaid, a ſtipend of ſeven thouſand Roman crowns per annum, out of the apoſtolick chamber.

The Pope's chief miniſter is the cardinal patron, uſually one of the nephews, or a nearer relation, to whom he gives an opportunity of amaſſing prodigious ſums, if the pontificate be of a long duration; and theſe nephews have been the founders of ſome of the greateſt families in Italy. The ſecond miniſter is the Pope's vicar, who is always a cardinal, and has the juriſdiction of the ſecular and regular clergy, lay communities, hoſpitals, and Jews; and has a lieutenant for civil, and another for criminal affairs, and a biſhop for his vicegerent in matters belonging to his epiſcopal function.

Baron POLLNITZ, giving a character of Rome, and its modern inhabitants, ſays, I cannot conceive what motives, except devotion or curioſity, can bring any man to Rome, than which there is hardly a more melancholy city in the world: yet I know ſome foreigners, and particularly certain Engliſhmen, who are fond of Rome to a degree of enthuſiaſm.

The people here riſe late and go to bed late: the firſt thing which they do, is to drink chocolate; then they hear maſs in their domeſtick chapel, of which almoſt every houſe has one: they afterwards make ſome viſits, return home at dinner-time, undreſs, and dine frugally with their families. After their meal they get between the ſheets, and ſleep for an hour or two, and after that loiter away as much in doing nothing at all; but then they dreſs, and go to the ring, which is without the gate del Popoli; from thence to the Ponte Mole: there's a walk which is very ſorrily paved, between two walls and ſome pitiful houſes; and there is no air, but duſt enough to choke one. When the ſun is upon its decline, the beau monde repair to the ſquare, or place d'Eſpagne, where I think I have already told you how they amuſe themſelves: from the ſquare they go and make their viſits of ceremony: at two o'clock at night, which in the long ſummer days is about ten with us, they fall into aſſemblies. Theſe may be divided into three claſſes: the great companies, for gaming; the private companies, where they alſo play; and the ſocieties, in which they only converſe.

They play at ſuch games as we Ultramontains know no more of than magick, viz. ſuch as tarot, pazzica, premiere and milchiades. As to the laſt of theſe, I take it to be like languages, which it is difficult to be maſter of, unleſs people begin to learn them when they are young. It would take up a man's whole life to learn to know the cards, whereof at one game they play with 99, which are painted too with very extraordinary figures, of popes, devils, &c. and it often happens that the devil takes up the pope. During the conclave they play at pharo; but the Pope has prohibited all games of hazard.

The private aſſemblies differ only from the publick ones, in that they have not ſo much company. There is generally the miſtreſs of the houſe, and a dozen petits-colets, who really are the petit-maitres of this place, ſuppoſing them to be Italians; for you are not to imagine that theſe gentlemen will ſuffer a poor Ultramontain abbé to put in a word, becauſe they think he has neither ſenſe nor merit. As this is a country of prieſts, you ſhall ſee ten ſparks of the band to one of the ſword. It is true, that the abbé wears the ſame habit as the gentlemen of the gown, and as all others do, who are not able to lay out much money in clothes; ſo that when you ſee a petit-colet come out of any ſuſpicious place, you muſt beware of miſtakes; for they are not always prieſts, nor even clergymen.

A gentleman that lives beyond the mountains will here be apt to forget the good manners he has contracted in France, or elſewhere; the generality of the Romans know nothing more than ceremony, becauſe they are ignorant of good manners; and there is ſcarce one of them in a thouſand that has the air of a man of quality. To be judge of this, one muſt ſee them at table, and in what a very ſlovenly manner they behave at their meals, which is owing to their eating generally alone; for they then loll ſo much upon the table, that when they dine in company they are at a loſs what to do. They are not only naſty in their manner of eating, but in their clothes; for I believe there is not above one out of thirty that puts on freſh linnen every day.

The Italians are in general accuſed of being jealous; but I really think it wrong, for there is no nation where the ladies have more freedom than here. It is poſſible, that ſome of the leaven of the ancient jealouſy may ſtill remain among the citizens; but as to the people of quality, I do not think them any more liable to that imputation than our people are; I wiſh I could ſay as much in their vindication as to their avarice; but the fact is too well known, and it is the original ſin of almoſt all the Italians, particularly of the Romans, from the higheſt to the loweſt; and it is undoubtedly this avaricious temper, which makes them ſo ſober as they are; for when they are at other folks tables they are intemperate enough; yet I never ſaw the better ſort drunk, and the common people but very ſeldom. They are accuſed alſo of being revengeful, which may be true enough; but really they are cried out againſt upon that ſcore much more than they deſerve; for I have known ſome that have received affronts, ſo good-natured as to forget them. It is true, that the populace are very apt to make uſe of the ſtiletto; but this is owing to the too great indulgence of the magiſtrate. A man convicted of murder for the firſt time, is condemned to the gallies; though in ſome caſes indeed, he is only baniſhed from the city, and the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and then, after two or three years abſence, he pays fifty crowns, and returns to Rome. They who have committed a murder and are not apprehended, generally compound the matter with the government, by paying a certain ſum of money. If juſtice were no ſtricter in our part of the world, and if our churches were ſanctuaries, as they are here, we ſhould have more crimes perhaps committed among us than there are at Rome, where, when all is ſaid and done, we don't hear of robberies; nor of murders committed for the ſake of robberies; and though there are no lanthorns, nor watchmen, nor patrolls here in the night, I ſhould make no ſcruple to go from one end of the city to the other with my purſe in my hand. What I ſhould be moſt afraid of, would be the being aſſaſſinated by miſtake; but even murders of this kind are much oftner committed among the dregs of the people, than among perſons of condition; for ſince I have been here, I have not heard of ſuch an accident to any perſon of note.

The Campania of Rome is under the immediate government of the Pope; the other provinces of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, are governed by legates, or vice-legates; beſides which, there is a commander in chief of the forces in every province, and every city hath its governor deputed by the Pope; but as to the podeſtas or judges, and other inferior officers, they are elected by the inhabitants. The great oppreſſion complained of in the Pope's territories, is his ingroſſing all the corn in the country, obliging the owners and occupiers of lands to ſell his agents their corn at a very low rate, and retailing it out again at double the price; inſomuch that ſome gentlemen chuſe to let their lands lie uncultivated, rather than manure them, the charges of ploughing and ſowing exceeding the profits they make. But it can hardly be ſuppoſed, that this is generally the caſe; for if the people were diſcouraged in this manner from ploughing their grounds, the Sovereign muſt loſe the duty ariſing by corn, which is one of the beſt branches of his revenue: neither does he hold up the price of grain ſo very high, as ſome ſuggeſt, when he retails it out; for travellers all agree, that bread corn is very reaſonable at Rome; and tho' there have been ſome oppreſſors among the Roman Pontiffs, there have been others, who have diſtributed great quantities of grain to the poor gratis. So that to ſay with ſome, that the government is mild, and with others, it is oppreſſive, is ridiculous: it is by all allowed to be deſpotical, and varies according to the diſpoſition and temper of the Pontiff who happens to be upon the throne. Only thus much is obſerved in general, that there is more liberty allowed at Rome to thoſe of a different communion, than in any other Roman catholick city whatever. As to the Roman villa's:

Villa's Tivoli.

Tivoli, the ancient Tibur, ſaid to be built by the Greeks, is ſituated on the brow of a hill, near the river Anio or Teverone, about twenty miles to the eaſtward of Rome. The hill is covered with olive-trees for five or ſix miles together, and adorned with beautiful villa's, or palaces: from hence there is a glorious proſpect over the Campania, as far as Rome itſelf. In the time of the ancient Romans, it was eſteemed one of the moſt healthful, as well as pleaſant ſituations in Italy; on which account they had their ſummer retirements here. HORACE was ſo well pleaſed with the ſituation, that he wiſhed it might be the retreat of his old age. The Teverone forms a caſcade, or rather cataract, near this town, falling from a rock, in one of the cavities whereof is ſaid to be the grotto of LEUCOTHEA, the Tiburtin ſibyl, from whence ſhe uttered her oracles. Here are alſo the ruins of an ancient round building, ſurrounded with marble pillars, ſuppoſed to be the temple of HERCULES SAXANUS. One of the greateſt modern curioſities, is the palace belonging to the family of ESTE, or Modena, admired for its architecture, ſculpture, paintings, gardens, and water-works.

Tivoli is now reduced to a very little town, ſurrounded with an ordinary wall; but is ſtill the ſee of a biſhop. Not far from it is the rivulet of Salforata, formerly Albula, from whoſe waters there ariſes a ſulphureous ſtench, which may be ſmelt at a good diſtance. The little lake from whence this river iſſues, is one of the greateſt natural curioſities about Rome: it lies in the very bottom of the Campania, and is the drain of theſe parts; the ſides are covered with a kind of ſtony cruſt, and in it are ſeveral floating iſlands, twenty or thirty yards over, ſuppoſed to be formed originally by parcels of rarified ſulphureous earth, caſt up by the water, which, ſticking to ruſhes and herbs, have been augmented by degrees to this bigneſs. This lake is unfathomable, and yet not above a mile in compaſs at preſent: but Mr. ADDISON ſuppoſes the banks have grown over it in the ſame manner the iſlands have been formed in it; and that in time the whole ſurface will be cruſted over, as the iſlands are enlarged, and the banks cloſe in upon them; for all round the lake, where the ground was dry, they diſcovered it to be hollow by the trampling of the horſes feet. Near Tivoli alſo are the ſtone quarries, from whence they fetch that ſtone uſed in their buildings at Rome, called Tiburtine-ſtone, of which great part of St. Peter's is built, not comparable to Portland-ſtone, of which the churches in London are built.

As to the great outcry in our part of the world, againſt the luxury of the cardinals, ſays the Baron, I really think it unjuſt; for I cannot ſee wherein it conſiſts. Their houſhold is not over and above numerous. Their domeſticks are generally a maitre de chambre, an officer, who, they ſay, is tantamount to the great chamberlain of our electors; a cup-bearer, a train-bearer, one or two gentlemen, two or three prieſts, as many valets de chambre, eight or ten lackeys, three coachmen, eight horſes, and three coaches. Their furniture is red damaſk, very plain. They keep ſo frugal a table, that they commonly allow their cook but one or two teſtoons a day to defray the expence of it, excluſive of the wine, bread, and fruit; for they always eat alone. None but the cardinal miniſters keep an open table at any time.

The Princes of Italy every where give them the upper-hand; and a cardinal takes ſo much ſtate upon himſelf, that he refuſes the precedency in his own houſe to a Sovereign Prince of Italy. Our Princes, on the other ſide of the mountains, are, perhaps, as ſtanch Catholicks, and as much devoted to the holy ſee as the Italian Princes are; yet they don't pay this homage to the cardinals.

When one cardinal makes a viſit to another, the latter receives the viſitant at the coach-door, and conducts him into the chamber of audience, where they both place themſelves in arm-chairs, under a canopy; and after having been a few minutes by themſelves, the gentlemen of the cardinal that receives the viſit bring them ice, chocolate and ſweatmeats. When the ſtranger goes away, the other waits on him to the coach, lends him a hand to put him into it, and even ſhuts the coach-door. They give one another the title of eminency; but in all their interviews there is a great air of conſtraint.

The complete number of cardinals is ſeventy. They are the Pope's counſellors in ordinary, and have the right of electing him. They are diſtinguiſhed into three orders, viz. ſix cardinal biſhops, fifty prieſts, and fourteen deacons. Their number was fixed by Pope Sixtus V. The firſt cardinal biſhop is ſtiled dean of the ſacred college. This dean, the firſt cardinal prieſt, and the firſt cardinal deacon, are ſtiled chiefs of the order; and, as ſuch, they have the prerogative of giving audience to ambaſſadors, and to the magiſtrates of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, during the vacancy of the holy ſee. Innocent IV. while the council was held at Lyons, made a rule, that the cardinal's hat ſhould be red, to denote, that they were always ready to ſhed their blood for the liberties of the church. Boniface VIII. ordered, that they ſhould wear ſcarlet robes. Paul III. required, that their bonnets ſhould be of the ſame colour. And Urban VIII. granted them the title of eminency, which before that was only given to the eccleſiaſtical Electors of the empire, and to the Grand Maſter of Malta. The council of Trent owned it to be the right of all nations to put in for the dignity of cardinal; but thoſe who puſh for it with the greateſt ſucceſs, are the kindred of the reigning Pope, the nuncios in Germany, France, and Spain, the auditors of the rota, the clerks of the chamber, and, in fine, many of the Pope's great officers.

The Pope claims a power of depoſing cardinals, which they on the other hand deny he hath; and certain it is, that cardinal Coſcia, who ſo richly deſerved it, was not degraded, though a ſentence was paſſed upon him, and ratified, whereby he was declared excommunicate, and out of a poſſibility of being abſolved, but by the Pope, even in articulo mortis; he is alſo to be confined in a fortreſs, deprived of the power of ſpeaking or voting, &c. But as omnia venalia Romæ, even more now than in Jugurtha's time, the cardinal del Giudici, who is a friend of his eminency Coscia gave him to underſtand, that the Pope was reſolved to treat him as a grand vizir in diſgrace; that he muſt abſolutely refund, and that all his ſins ſhould be blotted out. Conſequently his eminency ſubmitted to implore his Highneſs's clemency, on condition of paying well for it; and, in fine, his pardon has been taxed at thirty thouſand ducats. He has clamoured againſt it not a little; but the holy father would not bate an ace of it, and the cardinal was forced to acquieſce: however, as he always watches for the death of the Pope, he deſired to pay it at ſeveral terms; and, upon depoſiting ten thouſand crowns down, he immediately received abſolution, his guards were taken off, and he had liberty granted him to walk about in the caſtle of St. Angelo, and to converſe there with his brother, the biſhop of Targa. He pleads poverty, and ſhuffles off his payment from one time to another, in conſtant expectation that the gout will riſe in the Pope's ſtomach, and take him out of the way. At length, in 1734, he paid down ten thouſand crowns more. But a collector of taxes, from whom he formerly received a great preſent, to procure him an acquittance from the chamber, to which he owed ſeventy thouſand crowns, died lately inſolvent, and without making good the fraud; and as Cæsar, they ſay, loſes nothing, the chamber comes upon cardinal Coscia, who is condemned to pay this deficiency too; and the Pope won't hear any talk of compounding it.

There are in Rome certain perſons ſtiled Roman Princes, who for the moſt part are only beholden for this princely dignity, to the happineſs of their families, in having one of them a Pope; for many of them are ſcarce ſo much as gentlemen. They are complimented with the ſtile of excellency; but this title extends only to the firſt-born of the family. They require a vaſt deal of homage from their domeſticks; and all affect to have canopies and chambers of audience in their palaces. They expect that a gentleman ſhould come to their houſes without ſending word beforehand, and wait in their antichamber till they are pleaſed to ſee him. You will think that they muſt be very neceſſitous gentlemen, who will ſubmit to this rule, and that their excellencies antichambers are only frequented by their own domeſticks. When they receive viſits from one another in ceremony, they ſeat themſelves under a canopy, like the cardinals; then they go abroad in ſtate, and have two coaches to follow their body-coach, in which his excellency ſits forward by himſelf, and his gentlemen ride backward; and at the boots of the coach a footman carries an umbrella before them, as is done before the cardinals, which is a ſignal of reſpect, that requires all coaches, except thoſe of the cardinals or prieſts, to give them the way, and even to ſtop while they paſs by.

The princeſſes formerly did not uſe to give the right-hand to the ladies of quality, at their own houſes; but ſince the honours annexed to nepotiſm have been aboliſhed, they have been obliged to humble themſelves, and to treat the ladies as their equals; yet for all this, they correſpond together very little. Heretofore too, the Pope's nieces did not give precedence to any body, not even to the princeſſes; and all ladies in general were obliged to be in a full dreſs when they paid them a viſit; nor did the nieces go to any body's houſe, but enjoyed all the honours of ſovereigns. But all this is over now; for the nieces of the preſent Pope not only give the right-hand to ladies of the loweſt rank, but alſo return their viſits.

The thing which puffs up this gentry to ſuch a degree, is, that gentlemen of good families make no ſcruple to wait on them; the poverty among the nobility being very great, and there being but a very indifferent chance for gentlemen of the ſword, becauſe the greateſt part of the Roman gentry are ſo much degenerated from their anceſtors, that they have no taſte for arms, while their fondneſs for Rome, and the notion they have, that there is not ſuch a delightful place in the world, hinders them from going abroad, and puts them under a neceſſity of being ſlaves to people who are very often inferiors in birth.

Nor do the Roman princes diſtinguiſh themſelves either by their air, or their manner of living. They have a great number of footmen indeed, ſome no leſs than two dozen; but they live very meanly; ſo that not one of them keeps an open table, or has any thing to treat with but ice, and at moſt a diſh of chocolate. The evening is the time to converſe with them; for as ſoon as the Angelus has ſounded, all ceremonies at Rome are over; the abbots and prieſts go in the lay habit to the cardinals, and all compliments at meeting are ſet aſide.

The princeſſes have the privilege of being lighted to the publick ſpectacles by eight flambeaux of white wax; but I have known ſome of them, who, for ſaving their wax, never burnt any till they came within four or five hundred paces of the theatre, when they ſtopped to give their lacqueys time to light their flambeaux in order that they might arrive at the opera in pomp; and when they went out they ſtopped at the very ſame place for their lacqueys to put out their flambeaux, from which place all the light the princeſſes had to go home by, was no more than a couple of little dark lanthorns, which are here made uſe of commonly. This way of going with eight flambeaux, puts me in mind of a certain Engliſh dutcheſs, who having travelled in that manner at Rome, would fain have introduced the faſhion at Paris too; but ſhe was forbid to make that parade there, becauſe the firſt two or three times that ſhe went abroad with ſo much ſplendor, every body fell on their knees, and thought the holy ſacrament was carrying to ſome ſick perſon.

Moſt of the ladies, as well as princeſſes, have very magnificent coaches, but ſeldom make uſe of them. The marquiſs SUDARINI, who has lately matched his ſon, has made his daughter in-law a preſent of a coach, for which he gave ſeven thouſand Roman crowns, and there are many others that coſt more money; but theſe coaches are terrible machines, and it is as much as a pair of horſes can do to drag them along. Beſides, theſe ſtately portable houſes have an attendance on them which is by no means ſuitable; they are generally accompanied by half a ſcore or a dozen ſhabby footmen, who, with the ſwords that they wear, look more like catchpoles than footmen; their liveries in general are ſcare-crows, and I do not think that there are any in the world more fantaſtical. The lacqueys are for the moſt part old, dirty, unſhapeable fellows, becauſe when once a poor wretch has a livery put upon his back, he never throws it off, and does not ſo much as attain the honour of being a valet de chambre: when he is paſt his ſervice his maſter jubilees him, that is to ſay, puts him upon half-pay, and he ſerves no longer. The appearance, or neatneſs of a ſervant, are things that are not regarded here, and provided they have but the number, what matters it, ſay they, how they look?

This humour of keeping ſo many lacqueys, has infected even the citizens; they who are in ſuch mean circumſtances, that they cannot afford to maintain them the whole year round, covenant with them only for ſundays and ſaints days. Thus a journeyman ſhoemaker, or a chimney-ſweeper, who has but that very day put a ſcrub livery on his back, and that often borrowed of a tallyman, ſhall walk gravely before young maſter or pretty miſs to and from church, with his greaſy hair turned up behind his ears, and a long ſword by his ſide. For it would be reckoned indecent here, to ſee a woman, or a miſs, go abroad alone, and the moſt abandoned proſtitutes are always attended with a matron.

They have but two ſorts of puniſhments at Rome, viz. the ſtrappa corda, and the gibbet. The firſt, tho' it is not mortal, ſeems to my mind more terrible than death itſelf: the malefactor being tied with his two hands together to a rope, by which he is hoiſted fifteen or ſixteen feet from the ground, and then let fall on a ſudden, ſo that he generally becomes a cripple for life. When a man is to be hanged they talk of it a week before-hand, as if it was the fineſt holy-day in the world. The night before the execution, ſeveral prelates, princes, and others of quality, admitted into the confraternity of comforters, repair at midnight to the priſon. When they come near the dungeon they make a great noiſe, and with a loud voice, aſk the gaoler, Where is ſuch a one? naming the criminal that is to be condemned. Here he is, ſays the man, loud enough to be heard by the criminal. Open the doors to us, ſay the comforters; he is in a bad ſtate there, we will remove him to a place where he ſhall be better. The turnkey opens the dungeon, and lets in the comforters, who exhort the criminal to go along with them; and being guarded by a company of the Sbirri, they put him in the middle, and carry him thro' ſeveral galleries and turnings towards the door of a chapel, before which is hung a piece of black cloth. Juſt as the criminal is preparing to enter it, the fiſcal, calling him by his name, ſays to him, You——there is your ſentence; and at the ſame time throws him a paper, in which the ſentence is written. The criminal reads it, or elſe one of the comforters does that office for him: that very moment the Sbirri withdraw, and the comforters remain alone with the criminal: then the cloth hung before the chapel door is lifted up, and the patient is led to the altar at the end of it, with a crucifix upon it, in the middle of ſix lighted wax-candles; where the queſtion is put to him, If he is willing to confeſs? If he ſays Yes, as very few Italians die willingly without confeſſion, a confeſſor is allotted him, who gives him the beſt advice he can.

After the criminal has confeſſed, he receives the ſacraments, and the comforters continue with him till the next day. At ten o'clock, which is the hour of execution, he is conveyed in a cart to the gallows, to which he rides backwards, attended by two prieſts, and two comforters: when they are come to the fatal place, they ſet him down out of the cart before a chapel to ſay his prayers, and then they make him walk backwards to the foot of the ladder, which he alſo mounts with his back to it; when the hangman, who is at the top of it, faſtens the rope about his neck, and then leans with all his weight upon his ſhoulders to put him out of his pain. After he is expired, maſſes are ſaid in all the churches, and even in the Pope's chapel, for the repoſe of his ſoul; and for this end a collection is made, to which the pooreſt people contribute ſomething: at length, after he has hung four or five hours, he is buried like another man.

I ſhall conclude, ſays the baron, with a remark I have made upon the Romans in particular, and the Italians in general; I mean as to the reciprocal hatred of the inhabitants of the different ſtates of Italy. I cannot imagine that they ſhould be ſo blind as not to ſee the prejudice it does them; for, in ſhort, it is not barely the hatred of one province to another, but it diffuſes its poiſon to the towns that are ſubject to one and the ſame ſovereign. Theſe people do not conſider, that they form one and the ſame nation; and that if they did but unite together, they would be both rich and powerful; but being jealous of one another, they only ſeek to ruin each other, and by that means deprive themſelves of the moſt ſolid ſupport of their liberty.

The former edition of the MODERN HISTORY of Italy, left Pope BENEDICT XIII. in the chair, exceeding weak and infirm: however, the pious Pontiff could not be perſuaded by his phyſicians, to omit his accuſtomed devotions; and in the month of October 1729, as he was celebrating maſs, and going to drink out of the chalice, his hands ſhook to that degree, that he ſpilt all the wine and water that was in it upon his veſtment and the ground, at which the Pontiff was in a great conſternation, and it was thought proper to burn the garment, to plain the foot of the altar, and burn the ſhavings.

His favourite cardinal COSCIA, having been accuſed about the ſame time of intolerable extortion and oppreſſion, of which his Holineſs would never believe him guilty; to ſecure his eminence againſt future enquiries, he ſigned an inſtrument of indemnity, importing, that this cardinal ſhould never be made accountable for his adminiſtration, or for any money that paſſed through his hands, by any future proceedings againſt him; and that whatever he acquired, his Holineſs made him a free gift of it.

But the cardinal ſoon after loſt his patron and protector; the Pope was taken ill of a fever on the 14th of February 1729-30, and died on the 21ſt of the ſame month, being then fourſcore years of age, and ſome few days more; for he was born on the ſecond of February 1650. He was the eldeſt ſon of Don FERDINAND ORSINI, or URSINI, Duke of Gravina, and was made cardinal by Pope CLEMENT X. on the 22d of February 1672. He was the oldeſt cardinal of the college when he was elected Pope, on the 29th of May 1724, and then took the name of BENEDICT XIII.

The Pope was no ſooner dead, but cardinal ALBANI, chamberlain of the holy ſee, cauſed the effects of cardinal COSCIA to be ſeized, and the principal agents of his extortions to be impriſoned; particularly his ſteward, and the farmer of the revenues ariſing by fiſh, who were in great danger of being pulled in pieces by the mob, as well as the cardinal himſelf; but he had the good fortune to ſave himſelf by a timely retreat: however, the cardinals aſſembling ſoon after, for the election of a new Pope, cardinal COSCIA found means privately to get into the conclave, where he made loud complaints of the ſeizing his effects, but could get none of them reſtored.

After a conclave of four months, the choice fell upon cardinal LAURENCE CORSINI, who was declared duly elected on the 12th of July 1730, taking upon him the name of CLEMENT XII. He was born at Florence April 7, 1652, and conſequently within two years of fourſcore at the time of his election, being of the noble family of the CORSINI's in Tuſcany.

I proceed now to give ſome account of the wars that happened in Italy, during the pontificate of CLEMENT XII. which may be in a great meaſure aſcribed to the treaty concluded at Seville, between Great Britain and Spain, in the year 1729, to which France and the States General alſo became parties; for by this treaty, it was agreed, that the contracting parties ſhould introduce ſix thouſand Spaniards into the dutchy of Tuſcany, to ſecure the ſucceſſion of Don CARLOS, Prince of Spain, to that dutchy, after the death of the then reigning Duke: which the Emperor appeared extremely averſe to, and ordered great bodies of his troops to march into Italy, in the year 1730, to oppoſe the Spaniards and their confederates, if they ſhould attempt to put that article of the treaty in execution, which prevented the tranſporting the Spaniards to Italy that year: but the Emperor, finding that they would be aſſiſted by the fleet and land forces of Great Britain the following year, if he did not come into the meaſures preſcribed by the treaty of Seville, he conſented, at length, very unwillingly, that if Great Britain, and her allies, would guarantee his hereditary dominions to himſelf, and his heirs female, he would ſubmit to the introduction of ſix thouſand Spaniards into Tuſcany; and they were accordingly convoyed to Italy in the year 1731, by the united fleets of Great Britain and Spain, and took poſſeſſion of the dutchy of Tuſcany; which proved, as the Emperor expected, the ruin of his affairs on that ſide; for the Queen of Spain, whoſe ambition, probably, will never be ſatisfied, till ſhe ſees her ſon, Don CARLOS, ſovereign of all the Spaniſh territories in Italy, having thus got footing there, entred into a confederacy with the King of France, to drive the Emperor out of all the Italian provinces which formerly belonged to the crown of Spain, and prevailed on the King of Sardinia to come into this ſcheme, contrary to his moſt ſolemn treaties and engagements with the Emperor; Spain offering to augment his dominions with the dutchy of Milan, or the greateſt part of it. The grand motive which prevailed on France to come into this confederacy, was the weakening the Emperor, whom ſhe ever looked upon as her moſt formidable rival in power. The confederates laid hold of the ſlighteſt pretence imaginable for putting their deſigns in execution; namely, the Emperor's making intereſt to get the Elector of Saxony advanced to the throne of Poland: and obſerving, that his Imperial Majeſty, relying on the guarantee of the maritime powers, for the ſecurity of his Italian territories, had withdrawn moſt of his troops from Italy; in this favourable juncture, they united their forces that were in gariſon in Tuſcany, with thoſe of the King of Sardinia, and invaded Milan the latter end of the year 1733, and being ſupported by another body of troops from France, under the command of marſhal VILLARS, reduced almoſt all that dutchy within the ſpace of a few months; while another army, commanded by the Duke of Berwick, was ordered to paſs the Rhine, and invade the frontiers of Germany, as has been related already.

The following year, the Spaniards having tranſported another army of twenty thouſand men to Italy, Don CARLOS invaded the kingdom of Naples; and being arrived at Averſa, three leagues from the city of Naples, on the ninth of April 1734, deputies came from thence, and made their ſubmiſſion to this Prince, delivering him the keys of the city. While the King remained in the neighbourhood of Naples, the count de Montemar, the Spaniſh general, was ordered to purſue the Imperialiſts; who, to the number of ſix or ſeven thouſand men, commanded by general VISCONTI, retired to a camp of difficult acceſs near the town of Bitonto, where they were attacked on the 25th of May by the Spaniſh army, which were three times their number, and totally defeated; for which victory, Don CARLOS cauſed Te Deum to be ſung in the cathedral of Naples, and created count de Montemar duke of Bitonto, being the place where he gained that memorable victory, which rendered Don CARLOS maſter of that kingdom.

After this victory the Spaniards laid ſiege to Gaieta, which ſurrendered on the fifth of Auguſt, and then made preparations for the invaſion of Sicily, and landed twenty thouſand men there, under the command of the duke of Bitonto, in the beginning of September 1734. whereupon the whole iſland revolted to them, except the citadel of Meſſina, and the fortreſſes of Syracuſe and Trepani. The Spaniards afterwards laying ſiege to the citadel of Meſſina, that fortreſs ſurrendered on the 22d of February 1734-5, on the taking whereof, the Infante Don CARLOS, now ſtiled King of Naples and Sicily, embarked for that iſland, where he landed on the ninth of March; and, on the ſecond of June, the town of Syracuſe ſurrendered, and immediately after the fortreſs of Trepani, which had been blocked up ever ſince the Spaniards landed in the iſland: and now the Spaniards, being entire maſters of Sicily, Don CARLOS made a triumphant entry into the capital city of Palermo, on the thirtieth of June 1734, and on the third of July following was crowned King.

The town of Capua having been cloſely blocked up ever ſince the arrival of the Spaniards in the kingdom of Naples, ſurrendered on the 21ſt of November 1734; and ſoon after the duke of Bitonto reduced Orbitello, and Porto Ercole, and the reſt of the fortreſſes the Imperialiſts were poſſeſſed of on the coaſt of Tuſcany: after which, he detached part of his army to the aſſiſtance of the confederates in Lombardy; whereupon the Emperor was obliged to abandon all the places he was poſſeſſed of in Italy, except the city of Mantua, as has been related already; and the following year 1735, a treaty of peace was concluded between the Emperor on one ſide, and the Spaniards and their confederates on the other; whereby the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily were confirmed to Don CARLOS; and on the other hand, Milan and Mantua (except ſome few places aſſigned to the King of Sardinia) were yielded to the Emperor, and Tuſcany to the Duke of Lorrain (after the death of the then Duke) as has been related already in the hiſtory of Germany.

But to give a more particular account of the late war in the north of Italy; although the Emperor was ſurpriſed at the beginning of the war, and loſt moſt of the towns in Milan within the ſpace of a few months, for want of gariſons to defend them: he afterwards reinforced his army in the Mantuan, and diſputed the ground by inches with the French and their confederates, maintaining the remainder of his Italian territories with great obſtinacy, till the confederates were joined by the victorious army from Naples; and then the Imperialiſts, finding it impoſſible to reſiſt the united power of the confederates, retired out of Italy, as has been ſaid, in the year 1735.

During this war, the moſt conſiderable actions were, firſt, that of Parma, of which we received the following account from Mantua, viz. On the 27th of June 1734, count MERCI paſſed the Parma with his army: the ſame day he received advice, that the marſhal DE COIGNY had likewiſe ordered his army to march. The 29th, count MERCI advanced towards the village of Croceta: he found that the enemy had already began to intrench themſelves under the walls of Parma, and that they had poſſeſſed themſelves of two caſſines. That general, at the head of five companies of grenadiers, ſupported by five or ſix battalions, attacked the enemy about eleven o'clock with ſo much vigour, that he took one of the caſſines, and ſix pieces of cannon, which he immediately turned upon the French; but he being unfortunately killed ſoon after with a cannon ball, and his troops not being timely ſupported, the enemy obliged them to abandon the caſſine: the fight continued, nevertheleſs, with a great deal of vigour till night, without any conſiderable advantage on either ſide. The Prince of Wirtemberg, who took upon him the command of the army, as ſoon as he heard that count MERCI was killed, behaved very gallantly: he received two wounds, and had ſeveral horſes ſhot under him: there was only the right wing of our army engaged, that is to ſay, eighteen battalions, with a regiment of horſe, and another of dragoons, the left wing not having fired a ſhot. We had about four thouſand men killed and wounded upon the field of battle.

Among thoſe killed the 29th, beſides count MERCI, were the Prince of Culmbach, counts NICHOLAS PALFI and HARRACH, general DE VINK, colonels FORMENTINI and SECKENDORF, counts DAUN, NESSELROTH, SCHEFFENBURG, the marquis D'ESTE, the young prince of Lowenſtein, &c. Among the wounded were prince LEWIS of Wirtemberg, the Count DE CASTELBARCO, M. DE DIESBACH, M. DE WACHTENDONCK, M. DE RESTONI, &c. General DE LA TOUR was likewiſe wounded, and taken priſoner.

On the other hand, the French acknowledged they had three or four thouſand men killed and wounded in this action, which they obſerved laſted longer, and was more bloody than any in the memory of man. It ſeems to have been a drawn battle, both ſides claiming the victory, and very probably, had not count MERCI, the German general, been killed in the beginning of the action, the Gemans had obtained a compleat victory.

The next conſiderable action was on the 15th of September, when count KONINGSECK, the Imperial general, paſſed the river Sechia in the night, ſurpriſed marſhal BROGLIO, the French general, in his quarters, took great part of his baggage, and made between two and three thouſand priſoners, the general having but juſt time to make his eſcape in his ſhirt; and four days after, viz. on the 19th of September, another obſtinate battle was fought under the walls of GUASTALLA, where neither party would acknowledge themſelves beaten, but loſt four or five thouſand men each; and among the German officers was killed Prince LEWIS of Wirtemberg.

The celebrated marſhal VILLARS commanded the French army in Italy, in the beginning of the year 1733; but his memory and judgment failing him, he became troubleſom to the army, and he would have endangered all, if the King of Sardinia had not prevailed on the King of France to recall him. He fell ſick at Turin in his way home, and died there on the 17th of June 1734, in the 84th year of his age. He was page to LEWIS XIV, but went very young into the army, and ſoon diſtinguiſhing himſelf, owed his advancement more to his merit than his fortune. The French looked upon him as the reſtorer of their reputation in Flanders the laſt war, and the greateſt general in his time: he was to the laſt a man of uncommon gaiety and gallantry; for whether fighting or dancing, he appeared with the ſame vivacity and good humour, and ſeemed an enemy to none except the jeſuits. What did not conſiſt well with ſuch a temper was his love of money; he inriched himſelf too much by the ſpoils of war, and the contributions he uſed to raiſe for ſafe-guards.

The war in the Netherlands being finiſhed by the peace of Utrecht, the marſhal DE VILLARS had again the command of the army in Germany. When he took his leave of the King, he ſaid to him, I moſt humbly intreat your Majeſty to conſider, that I leave you in the midſt of my enemies, whilſt I am going to fight yours. During the campaign, his enemies told the King, in hopes his Majeſty would cenſure him for it, that he laid out the ſum of eighteen millions of livres in the the purchaſe of an eſtate. The King aſking him one day at dinner, if it was true, that he had made ſuch a purchaſe; Yes, Sir, replied the marſhal, who ſuſpected, that thoſe who told the King of it were then at the table, I have bought an eſtate which coſt me eighteen millions of livres, and if the war continues, and your Majeſty truſts me with the command of your army, I hope to purchaſe a more conſiderable one next year at the expence of your enemies.

Before I leave Italy, it may be proper to take notice of the abdication of VICTOR AMADEUS, King of Sardinia, and of his attempts to re-aſcend that throne, of which baron POLLNITZ has given us the following particulars, viz.

VICTOR AMADEUS, King of Sardinia and Duke of Savoy, after the death of the Queen his wife, who was daughter of PHILIP of France, duke of Orleans, by HENRIETTA of England, fell in love with the marchioneſs of * St. Sebaſtian, lady of honour to the princeſs of Piedmont. The virtue of madame de St. Sebaſtian, and the King's devotion for her, induced him to marry this favourite. But not thinking it honourable for a King to place a ſubject on his throne, he took a reſolution to reſign his crown before he contracted ſo unequal a † match. He imparted his deſign to madame de St. Sebaſtian, who did all ſhe could to prevail with VICTOR to continue upon the throne; but finding he was reſolved not to make her a Queen, ſhe conſented to his abdication, ſtill thinking herſelf highly honoured, to become the wife of a Prince who had worn a crown. King VICTOR conſulted with his chief favourites, about his abdication, who all adviſed him not to leave the throne. His ſon, King CHARLES, conjured him to keep poſſeſſion of it. I proteſt to your Majeſty, ſaid this Prince, I never once indulged a wiſh to govern, and think my ſelf exceeding happy to be your Majeſty's firſt ſubject. But all his remonſtrances were of no effect; and the 4th of September, 1730, was fixed for the day of abdication. Upon that day all the chief perſons in the government, and the ſenate, met in the great hall of the ‖ palace. There the King appeared, without any marks of

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* The Prince had a kindneſs for mademoiſelle DE CUMIANE, before ſhe was married to the count de St. Sebaſtian, when ſhe was maid of honour to madame royale. She was afterwards a lady of honour to the Dutcheſs of Savoy, and at laſt tire-woman to the Princeſs of Piedmont, late Queen of Sardinia. She was left a widow ann. 1723. While ſhe was married to the count de St. Sebaſtian, ſhe ſtill preſerved the King's friendſhip and eſteem, and was always in great credit with him. When ſhe became a widow, the old flames of love broke out again; the King gave her an apartment at court, where he could ſee her without been ſeen; and he took care of her family.

† It is ſaid, that the real motive of this abdication was his perplexity on account of the ſucceſſion of Parma and Tuſcany, and the introduction of Don CARLOS in Italy. They ſay, he entered into engagements relating to this, firſt with the court of Vienna, and afterwards with Spain, and it not being poſſible for him to ſatisfy either of theſe courts, without expoſing himſelf to the reſentment of the other, he reſolved to abdicate, at leaſt for a time, becauſe he knew of no other way to extricate himſelf from the dilemma.

‖ The abdication was performed the 3d of September, in the caſtle of Rivoli. The declared motives were, the fatigues of a reign of fifty years, the infirmities of old age, and the neceſſity of ſome interval of retirement between a throne and a tomb.

royalty, accompanied by the Prince of Piedmont, and declared to the aſſembly, that he was reſolved to yield the throne to his ſon; and that, from that moment, he exempted them, as he did all his ſubjects, from the oath of allegiance they had taken to him. He exhorted them at the ſame time to acknowledge his ſon Charles, Prince of Piedmont, for their King; and deſired them to be as loyal to their new Sovereign as they had been to him. Then the act of abdication was audibly read by the marquis del Borgo, ſecretary of ſtate, and Charles was recognized for King.

After the ceremony was over, King Victor, with the marchioneſs of St. Sebaſtian, whom he had married on condition * that ſhe ſhould wear no other title, ſet out for Chamberry, which he had choſe for the place of his retirement. But ſcarce a month was paſt, ere he began to repent of having given the reins out of his hands, though the King, his ſon, behaved as dutifully to him as if he had been ſtill his ſubject. When King Victor reſigned, he adviſed his ſon to cauſe the lands of the nobility and gentry to be ſurveyed, and to impoſe a tax on them in proportion to the number of acres. This ſcheme, tho' it had a view to the encreaſe of the King's revenues, tended to the ruin of the nobility; for which reaſon Charles, when he came to the crown, did not think proper to put it in execution. Victor being incenſed at it, wrote about it to his ſon, rather in the ſtile of his lord and maſter than his father; and perceiving that Charles was ſtill averſe to his counſel, he entertained a thought of re-aſcending the throne. † To this end, he ſecretly felt the pulſe of the people, and found them all faithful ſubjects to Charles: yet all this did not diſcourage him; he relied upon the troops, which he knew had an eſteem for him, and he thought they would alſo be his friends; for moſt of the officers having been preferred by him, he did not doubt but they were ſtill attached to him; and he flattered himſelf with their concurrence to his deſigns. He wrote to the marſhal Rhebinder, in general terms indeed, but in a ſtile that was very ſoothing and tempting. This general, who was commander in chief of the forces, being ſenſible of what conſequence it was to deprive King Victor of the leaſt hopes of re-aſcending the throne, returned him anſwer, that he owned he was obliged to him for his eſtate, honours, and every thing. "Your Majeſty, ſaid "the marſhal in his letter, has made me all "that I am. I am under no obligation to King "Charles, but my engagements to your Majeſty are inexpreſſible; though of all the favours "which you have heaped upon me, the honour of "your eſteem was always to me the deareſt. Give "me leave therefore, ſir, to preſerve that eſteem, "which I preſume to ſay, I have acquired by "the blood I have ſpilt for your ſervice; whereas, "ſir, I ſhould forfeit it, were I to be ſo unhappy "as to be guilty of perjury to the King you have "given me, and to whom you have enjoined "my obedience. I ſhall be as true to him as I "was to your Majeſty, and will ſpend the laſt "drop of my blood to maintain him on the "throne. I am, however, always ready to give "your Majeſty the moſt ſincere marks of my "reſpect for your perſon, being fully perſuaded, "ſir, that your Majeſty will lay no commands on "me, but ſuch as are agreeable to that juſtice "which ever accompanied all your actions, &c.

This anſwer was not ſufficient to cool King Victor's ambition to reſume the government. He wrote a ſecond time to the marſhal de Rhebinder, and to other general officers. He aſſumed an imperious ſtile, and ſignified that he knew how to puniſh thoſe that refuſed to obey him. All theſe letters were carried to King Charles; who being concerned to ſee his father ſo uneaſy, ſaid to thoſe who brought them, What would you have me do? He is my father; I depend upon your fidelity, and reſign myſelf to Providence.

The King was ſtill in hopes that he ſhould be able to make Victor eaſy, and was willing to have an interview with him, and for that purpoſe he went with his Queen to Evian, and from thence to Chamberry, where Charles paid his father a viſit, but found him very much out of temper. The Prince, however, bore all with the dutifulneſs of a ſon. But when he took leave of Victor, he paid a viſit to madame de St. Sebaſtian, with whom he had a long conference. He deſired this lady to pacify King Victor, and to diſſuade him from concerning himſelf any farther with ſtate affairs. He hath made me a King, ſaith Charles, and a King I will be. You can do any thing with him, therefore make him eaſy. If he does not like this, let him chuſe any other caſtle or place in my dominions that he likes better, of which he ſhall have the entire diſpoſal. They ſay Charles dropt a hint in this converſation, that he was inclined to yield his father a province in ſovereignty: however he promiſed great advantages to madame de St. Sebaſtian, not only for herſelf, but for the ſon ſhe had by a former marriage, and for her brothers. This lady promiſed the King all that he deſired, but kept her word very ill; for her ambition to be Queen prompted her to make King Victor every day more and more uneaſy.

Victor after this obſerved no meaſures, and ſaid publickly, that he would re-aſcend the throne. To this end, he thought it neceſſary for him to be nearer Turin. He therefore wrote to the King, his ſon, that the air of Chamberry was bad for his health, and deſired him to let him go and reſide at the caſtle of Montcallier. Charles was returned to Turin when he received this letter; but before he had time to anſwer it, he underſtood that the King his father, and madame de St. Sebaſtian, were already come to Montcallier. He was not at all ſorry for it; becauſe, as he knew King Victor's deſigns, he could better obſerve his motions when ſo near him: and King Victor, on his part, was glad that he was at Montcallier, in hopes that the neighbourhood of

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* The King was not married to the counteſs of St. Sebaſtian till he came to Chamberry, where ſhe met him; for he ſet out from Turin without her. When he married her, he gave her one hundred thouſand crowns, with which ſhe purchaſed the marquiſate of Spigo for her children, and then exchanged her title of counteſs of St. Sebaſtian for that of marchioneſs of Spigo.

† Victor Amadeus took it into his head to re-aſcend the throne as ſoon as he heard of the concluſion of the treaty of Vienna, by which the Emperor conſented to the Introduction of the Spaniards, he then let the marchioneſs del Spigo into the true motives of his abdication, and into the meaſures he intended to take for re-aſcending the throne. This ambitious woman encouraged him; and being withal a very cunning intriguing perſon, ſhe left no ſtone unturned, to bring a project to bear which would ſet her on the throne; and ſhe engaged all her friends and relations in the affair, of whom ſome betrayed her.

Turin might give him a better opportunity of tampering with the gariſon, and the commanding officer of the place. He did all that was in his power to gain them, and gave ſuch publick [*] proofs of his intention to re-aſcend the throne, that Charles's miniſters, [†] fearing leſt he ſhould call in foreigners to his aſſiſtance, unanimouſly adviſed the King to confine him. The young Prince exclaimed ſeveral times againſt this propoſition. What, ſaid he, make my father a priſoner? No; I can never conſent to that. And indeed it was a long time ere he could agree to it; but at length he was prevailed on by the ſtrenuous ſollicitations of his council; though, when he ſigned the order for confining him, his hand ſhook to ſuch a degree, that the ſecretary of ſtate was obliged to guide it.

The count de la Perouse, lieutenant general of his forces, was charged with the execution of the warrant for arreſting King Victor, and had a detachment given him of three thouſand men, drawn out of the gariſons of Turin, and other neighbouring places, to ſupport him in the undertaking. They all marched out at the ſame hour from their quarters, without knowing whither they were to go; and at two o'clock next morning they all arrived at the place appointed, at Montcallier. The count de la Perouse, attended by the chevalier de Solare, lieutenant governor, at the head of a detachment of grenadiers, with their bayonets ſcrewed to their muſkets, went up the great ſtair-caſe of the palace, which led to King Victor's apartment, while the marquis d'Ormea, ſecretary of ſtate, who carried the order ſigned by King Charles, ſecured the back-ſtairs with another detachment of grenadiers. M. de la Perouse finding the apartment ſhut, broke open the door, and after ſeizing a page in waiting, that was aſleep in the firſt antichamber, he made his way farther, and forced open all the doors till he came to the chamber where the King was a-bed with madame de St. Sebastian. This lady hearing a noiſe aroſe immediately, and having only time to ſlip on a night-grown, ran to the door, when ſeeing ſo many armed men, ſhe cried out, Oh, ſir, we are betrayed! They gave her no time to ſay more; but two officers carried her into the next chamber, where they cauſed her to be dreſſed, and afterwards conducted her to Ceve, a fortreſs of Piedmont.

Neither the outcry of madame de St. Sebastian, nor all the noiſe that was made, had awaked King Victor, who always ſlept ſound. The chevalier de Solare ſeized the King's ſword, which he ſaw lying on a table, and the count de la Perouse went to the bed-ſide, and opened the curtains. Upon that the King ſtarted out of his ſleep, and aſked, what was the matter? The count de la Perouse ſaid to him, that he had orders from the King to arreſt him. What King do you mean, ſaid Victor? it is I that am your King and maſter, you ought to acknowledge no other. Your Majeſty has been ſo, replied the count, but you are ſo no longer; and ſince it has pleaſed you to give us King Charles for our lord and maſter, and to command us to obey him, I hope your ſelf will ſet us an example of ſuch obedience. The King was in a violent paſſion, threatned the officers, and refuſed to riſe. The chevalier de Solare, coming too near the bed, the King punched him with his elbow in the belly, and commanded him in wrath to withdraw. As he ſtill continued obſtinate in his refuſal to riſe, the officers lifted him up, and dreſſed him. The King was heard to ſay, in the mean time, that he only wiſhed to ſit two hours on the throne, that he might hang up the raſcals that had miſled his ſon; and he named the principal lords of the court.

As ſoon as he was dreſſed the officers ſurrounded him, and conducted him down the great ſtair-caſe to his coach, that waited for him in the yard. The King ſeeing the anti-chamber full of grenadiers, ſeemed ſurpriſed at it; and the ſoldiers, who as yet knew not on what errand they were ſent, ſeemed no leſs ſurpriſed, when they ſaw their old King was to be carried off a priſoner. What? our King! ſaid they ſoftly to each other. What has he done? What is the matter? The count de la Perouse fearing a mutiny, called out, Silence, in the King's name, on pain of death. The old King found drawn up in the court-yard, a regiment of dragoons, which he had always valued above the reſt of his troops. The ſight of it affected him; and he would have ſpoke to it, but no time was allowed him, and he was obliged to go into the coach. The count de la Perouse, and the chevalier de Solare, aſked his leave to ſit with him; but the King anſwered, he would not ſuffer it. So they mounted their horſes, rode by the ſides of the coach, which was ſurrounded by the ſoldiers, and conducted him to Rivoli. I had almoſt forgot to tell you, that when he went from Montcallier, he aſked for three things; his wife, his papers, and his ſnuff-box, the laſt of which was all he obtained.

The day after he came to Rivoli, as they were clapping iron bars and double ſhutters to the windows of his apartment, the King aſked the glazier, what he was going to do? I am going, ſaid the man, to put on double ſhutters to your windows, that you may not catch cold this winter. How now, varlet! ſaid the King, do you think I ſhall ſpend all the winter here? Ah by my faith, replied the glazier, you will paſs this winter here, I believe, and many more.

This prince was attended with care, and treated with all the reſpect due to his perſon; and they ſay he began to be compoſed. The chevalier de Solare, and two captains of the guards, were appointed to take care of him, with whom he ſometimes played at billiards. They had orders to treat him with all manner of reſpect, but to give no anſwer to any of his complaints.[§]

In the whole courſe of this affair, it is fortunate for King Charles, that not one of his ſubjects failed in his allegiance to him; he has not been obliged to ſtain his government by any bloody execution, nor has he cauſed above three perſons to be apprehended, among whom were King Victor's two phyſicians that carried his letters, but they are lately ſet at liberty.

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[*] Theſe proofs were his ſending for the marquis del Borgo to Montcallier, demanding the inſtrument of abdication from him, giving him but twelve hours time to fetch it, and his appearing before the citadel of Turin, with a view of getting into it, and of animating the gariſon to aſſiſt him in his enterpriſe.

[†] Theſe were all privy counſellors and great men; who, being aſſembled by order of the King, and conſulted on the imminent danger of his being dethroned, were all of opinion for putting Victor Amadeus and his conſort under an arreſt,

[§] He died October 31. 1732.

They ſay, that madame de St. SEBASTIAN fell into a deep melancholy, and lived intirely upon broth of her own making. After her diſgrace, her ſon, who was an enſign in the guards, was no longer ſeen at court. The young King miſſing him, ordered the marquis D'ORMEA, miniſter and ſecretary of ſtate, to acquaint him, that he might come to court and continue in his employment, and that his Majeſty aſſured him, he did not intend he ſhould be a ſufferer for any crime whatſoever, which madame de St. SEBASTIAN had committed, and that he would take care of his fortune.

The Piedmonteſe are charmed with their new King; and indeed he is a Prince, ſays the baron, that has the qualities of a good monarch. He is humane, compaſſionate, generous, and beneficent. He is a little under ſize in ſtature, but very well ſhaped; dances well, loves pleaſures, and particularly hunting. Without flattery, one may ſay, he is endowed with a great many virtues; and that if he has faults, it is only owing to human nature, with which intire perfection is incompatible.

His firſt Queen was of the family of Heſſe Rhinfels. She brought the King two princes * and a princeſs; but dying in 1736, his Sardinian Majeſty is lately married to the eldeſt princeſs of Bavaria.

The death of JOHN GASTON DE MEDICIS, Duke of Tuſcany, happening in the month of June 1737, the Duke of Lorrain, in purſuance of the late treaty between the Emperor and France, and her allies, took poſſeſſion of that dutchy, as has been intimated already; and on his return to Vienna, appointed the princeſs ANNA-MARIA-LOUISA, ſiſter of the late Duke, to be regent of Tuſcany in his abſence. The Duke of Parma, ANTHONY FARNESE, father-in-law to the preſent Queen of Spain, died ſome years before him without iſſue, viz. in the month of January 1731.

What is moſt remarkable in the MODERN HISTORY of Genoa, is, the rebellion of their ſubjects in the iſland of Corſica, which could never have ſubſiſted ſo many years, if it was not fomented by ſome foreign powers; but who they are is yet a ſecret; and we know as little of THEODORE, who ſtiles himſelf their King; but he will probably be laid aſide, or forced to abdicate by the French, who under pretence of making themſelves umpires between the Genoeſe and their ſubjects, have introduced a body of troops into that iſland, and will probably give law to both.

The war in Corſica revived.

There was however a ceſſation of hoſtilities for ſome time, after the arrival of the French in the iſland of Corſica; but the natives apprehending they were too partial to their maſters the Genoeſe, the war was revived, and the Corſicans renewed their allegiance to King THEODORE by a declaration of the following tenor, viz.

WE declare and make known to the whole world our will and poſitive intention, that by reaſon of the intolerable oppreſſions, which we have ſuffered for a long while under the tyranny of the Genoeſe, we did ſome years ago chuſe Lord THEODORE, Baron of Neuhoff, King of the iſland of Corſica; that to him we now ſubmit and do intend for ever hereafter to ſubmit to his perſon, whom GOD preſerve, as alſo to his deſcendants. And moreover, that when we gave hoſtages, and appointed certain deputies with full powers, we never had it in our view or thoughts to retract the inviolable election of his ſaid Majeſty, but only to demonſtrate to all crowned heads, and particularly the King of France, the oppreſſions which we have ſuffered from the Genoeſe, and the validity of the election of our King THEODORE, the moſt Chriſtian King having not perhaps been duly informed of the miſery of the people of Corſica. And to the end that the ſaid monarch, if he ever formed a deſign to reduce the kingdom of Corſica under the Genoeſe tyranny, might know, that all the inhabitants had rather, with a ſalvo to their religion, deliver themſelves into the hands of the Turks, than the Genoeſe; the maſſacre of ſeven hundred of the principal Corſicans, which happened three years after the zealous reſentment of SAMPIERE the Corſican, and this too after having obtained the guarantee of France, being ſtill freſh in their memory: For this reaſon we declare, that the hoſtages and deputies have made an ill uſe of their commiſſions, contrary to their former election and ſubmiſſion. And that by this ſolemn act, the nation does now and for ever confirm the election of the ſaid Baron de Neuhoff for King of Corſica, and the iſland Caprara, with their dependencies. And that we do chearfully and unanimouſly declare the ſaid Baron to be our lawful King and Sovereign; and in conſequence ſubmit our perſons, lives and fortunes to the diſpoſal of our King THEODORE, whom GOD preſerve. Done in the great ſquare of the convent of Tavignia, where we are all aſſembled, Friday January 16, in the year of Grace 1739.

Ratified in the name of all the people by us, who are appointed Generals and Commanders,

HIACINTHO DE PAULI,
DON LEWIS GIAFFERI.

The Corſicans, not long after the publiſhing this declaration, defeated ſeveral parties of the Genoeſe, and their French allies; whereupon a further reinforcement of French troops embarked for that iſland, under the command of Marſhal Mallebois, who ſoon compelled the malecontents to ſubmit or quit the iſland, which moſt of their chiefs did; King THEODORE being abſent at that time ſoliciting the protection of foreign powers, or providing arms and ammunition for the ſervice of his new ſubjects. He arrived the latter end of the laſt year at Naples with three Dutch ſhips, loaden with arms and other proviſions of war, which were ſeized there, as well as his perſon; but his Sicilian Majeſty thought fit to give THEODORE his liberty, tho' he detained his effects and ſold them to the Genoeſe.

Naples &c. declare for a neutrality in the Italian war.

In the mean time a war commencing between Great Britain and Spain, his Sicilian Majeſty declared he would ſtand neuter, aſſuring the Britiſh merchants that they might continue their commerce with all freedom and ſecurity. He applied himſelf alſo to improve the manufactures and commerce of his dominions, ſuppreſſed ſanctuaries in a great meaſure, and would not ſuffer criminals to be protected in religious houſes or churches as they uſed to be, let their crimes be of never ſo high a nature.

And as Naples had declared for a neutrality between Great Britain and Spain, it appears the

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* There is now but one prince, the youngeſt being dead; but three princeſſes.

Great Duke of Tuſcany followed the example, as did almoſt all the Italian Princes, viz. The Pope, the Genoeſe, the Venetians and Modeneſe; though few of them ſeem to have obſerved that neutrality very ſtrictly, but have in a clandeſtine manner ſupplied and aſſiſted the reſpective parties they moſt favour.

1740. Jews invited to ſettle in Naples.

The Neapolitan Court continuing to encourage every project that might tend to the improvement of trade, among others invited the Jews to come and ſettle in that kingdom, from whence they had been baniſhed upwards of two hundred years, under the following reſtrictions:

They are permitted to reſide there fifty years, and if they are not ordered to depart then, fifty years more: They are alſo permitted to purchaſe lands, provided they are not fiefs to which a juriſdiction is annexed, and to ſell their lands and goods if they are ordered to depart: That they may eſtabliſh ſchools, and their rabbies ſhall have juriſdiction over their people in all caſes not capital: They ſhall have the free exerciſe of their religion, but not build temples: They ſhall not be confined to one quarter, or wear badges of diſtinction, but dwell in any town where they pleaſe: Thoſe who have ſtudied phyſick may take a Doctor's degree, and preſcribe to their patients: They may entertain Chriſtian ſervants, provided the men be 35, and the women 23 years old, and they be not permitted to remain in their maſters houſes all night without leave from the Biſhop.

The eccleſiaſticks preached violently againſt admitting the Jews on theſe terms, but they were ſilenced by the government, and a great many Jews actually reſorted to Naples and Sicily from Turky and ſeveral parts of Chriſtendom.

Commerce between Sicily and Turky.

The King of the two Sicilies alſo concluded a treaty of peace and commerce with the Turks this year; for ſuch has been the folly and ſuperſtition of the Spaniards and Sicilians hitherto, that they would have no commerce or friendly correſpondence with Jews or Turks, either in their Spaniſh or Italian dominions, but have been in a perpetual ſtate of war with both of them, making prize of all ſuch Turkiſh ſhips and merchandize as fell in their way, and putting to death all who profeſſed Judaiſm, and confiſcating their effects, as they do to this day in Spain and Portugal.

By the articles of commerce with the Turks, it was agreed that the goods of the Neapolitans ſhould pay a duty of three per cent. in Turky, and the Turks ſhould pay the ſame duty at Naples.

That their Miniſters, Conſuls and domeſticks ſhould enjoy the ſame privileges as thoſe of any other friendly power.

The King of the two Sicilies concluded a like treaty with Tripoli by the recommendation of the Grand Signior; but the Algerines could not be prevailed on by the Porte to conclude articles of peace and commerce with the two Sicilies; ſo that their Turky trade remains very precarious.

An earthquake in Sicily.

This year, on the 5th of March, a violent ſhock of an earthquake was felt at Salini near Palermo in Sicily. The Capuchins of that town hearing a great noiſe under their cloyſter, ordered ſome bricklayers to ſearch whether their houſe had not received damage by it. The workmen having examined it declared they did not apprehend any danger: however the Capuchins were ſo heartily frightned, that they thought fit to remain in their church the next night, and at five in the morning hearing the like noiſe they had done before, they ran out into the fields, and there ſaw their convent and garden overturned with a terrible noiſe, and ſo buried, that nothing remained above ground but the tops of two cypreſs trees.

The Pope dies.

The Pope dying on the 29th of January this year, in the 88th year of his age, and the tenth of his reign, his obſequies were begun on the 4th of February. His corps was laid upon a magnificent bed of ſtate in St. PETER's church, which was illuminated with a thouſand pound weight of wax-candles and flambeaux. On the 6th a funeral oration was made, and the next day the Cardinals went into the conclave, where ſixty-eight being aſſembled, they proceeded to elect another Pope, but did not effect it till the 17th of Auguſt, when Cardinal PROSPER LAMBERTINI, having 34 votes, was choſen, and took upon him the name of BENEDICT XIV.

Benedict XIV choſen.

He is of one of the nobleſt families in Bologna, and was Archbiſhop of that city, where he gained the love of all men by his charity and affability. As he is but ſixty five years of age, and of a ſtrong conſtitution, a long reign is expected as well as a good one.

1741. Spain tranſports 15000 men to Italy.

The Spaniards this year, on the third of November, aſſembled a fleet of two hundred ſail of tranſports at Barcelona, on which they embarked fifteen thouſand men in order to invade the Auſtrian dominions in Italy, in which they were not oppoſed by HADDOCK the Britiſh Admiral; tho' one principal deſign of ſending him to the Mediterranean was ſuppoſed to be to prevent any ſuch imbarkation. It was ſaid in his excuſe, that ſince the French had joined the Spaniſh fleet in that ſea, and taken them into their protection, his force was then much inferior to the united fleets, and he thought it more prudent to retire into Port-Mahon, and preſerve the men of war under his command than hazard the loſs of them in an unequal fight. But however that was, the combined fleets meeting with no other obſtructions than a ſtorm, in which they were no great ſufferers, landed the forces that were on board at the Spaniſh port of Orbitello on the coaſt of Tuſcany, from whence they were to march to Bologna, and be joined by the forces of the King of the two Sicilies. The Auſtrians in the Milaneſe and Mantuan thereupon made preparations to ſtop their progreſs, but no action happened this year in Italy between the contending parties.

1742.

In the beginning of the year following a ſecond imbarkation of Spaniſh troops arrived in Italy, and marched thro' the Eccleſiaſtical State, towards Lombardy. And the French demanded a paſſage for a body of fifteen thouſand more thro' the King of Sardinia's territories, but that Prince did not think fit to comply with the motion: On the contrary he declared he ſhould be an enemy to any power that ſhould diſturb the peace of Italy; and the Duke of Modena diſcovering an inclination to join the Spaniards, the forces of the King of Sardinia and the Queen of Hungary inveſted Mirandola, and threatned Modena with a bombardment. In the mean time the Duke of MONTEMAR, the Spaniſh General, advanced into the Bologneſe with twenty thouſand men, where he waited the arrival of the Sicilian auxiliaries. And Don PHILIP made preparations for invading the dutchy of Savoy, on the ſide of Dauphine.

Modena poſſeſſed by the Auſtrians.

The Duke of Modena finding the King of Sardinia perſiſted in his demands of having Modena and Mirandola delivered up to him, abandoned his dominions, but ordered the governor of thoſe cities to defend them to the laſt extremity: however both Mirandola and Modena ſurrendered in the month of July, and the gariſon of Modena, conſiſting of three thouſand men, ſubmitted to be made priſoners of war.

Don Philip invades Savoy.

On the other hand, Don Philip invaded Savoy, and penetrated as far as the capital city of Chamberry. He publiſhed his manifeſto on the 26th of Auguſt, declaring that the King of Sardinia having oppoſed the claims of his Catholick Majeſty to Lombardy, he had therefore cauſed his forces to invade the territories of the King of Sardinia, by way of retaliation, and iſſued his orders to the people of Savoy to ſend deputies from their towns to take the oaths of allegiance to him (Philip) and ſettle their contributions.

This ſucceſs of the Spaniards in Savoy obliged the King of Sardinia to ſeparate his forces from Count Traun, the Auſtrian General, and return to Piedmont to defend his frontiers. And now the Auſtrian and Spaniſh armies in the Bologneſe were pretty near equal: for as the King of Sardinia was obliged to return with his forces to Piedmont; ſo the King of the two Sicilies was compelled to withdraw his forces from his Spaniſh allies by the Britiſh fleet, of which Mr. Allen, the Britiſh Conſul at Naples, ſent the Duke of Newcaſtle the following account, viz.

The Britiſh ſquadron before Naples.

On Sunday morning, the 19th of Auguſt, N. S. a ſquadron of his Majeſty's ſhips, and four bomb veſſels commanded by Commodore Martin, appeared in the bay of Naples. And ſome hours before they came to an anchor before the town (which was about four o'clock in the afternoon) the Duke of Monteallegre ſent to his Majeſty's Conſul to deſire him to go on board the Commodore, to know whether they came as friends or enemies, the appearance ſeeming hoſtile, but that his Sicilian Majeſty would be glad to receive them as friends, deſiring nothing more than the amity of his Britannick Majeſty. The Conſul thereupon went on board the Commodore, who communicated to him the purport of the order he had received from Vice Admiral Matthews, and a meſſage to be delivered in the King's name to his Sicilian Majeſty (namely) That his Britannick Majeſty being in alliance with the Queen of Hungary and the King of Sardinia, and the King of the two Sicilies having joined his forces with thoſe of Spain to invade the Queen of Hungary's dominions, contrary to all treaties, he, the Commodore, was ſent to demand that the King of the two Sicilies ſhould not only forthwith withdraw his troops from acting in conjunction with thoſe of Spain, but that his Sicilian Majeſty ſhould promiſe not to give them any farther aſſiſtance of any kind whatever. Captain de Langle of the Durſley galley was charged with this meſſage, and the Commodore deſired the Conſul to accompany the Captain and be his interpreter. They went to the Secretary's office at five o'clock, the King was then at church, and was not to return till ſix; but the Duke of Monteallegre received the meſſage, and told them when the King returned he would give an anſwer. Accordingly about eight the Duke of Monteallegre came down from the King in council, and told them the demand would be complied with, and in writing as required, but deſired ſome anſwer alſo in writing, importing, that upon the ſaid compliance no hoſtilities ſhould be committed on their ſide. They then returned on board with General Bourke, who was ſent from his Sicilian Majeſty to deſire this of the Commodore; but he ſaid his orders were abſolute, and did not authoriſe him to give any anſwer, but that he expected a compliance in half an hour's time, or at furtheſt an hour, after the Captain and Conſul's being on ſhore. The Duke of Monteallegre then deſired that he might inſert in his letter, That upon the Conſul and Captain's aſſurances by word of mouth, that no hoſtilities ſhould be committed, his Sicilian Majeſty did promiſe, &c. Captain de Langle deſired the Conſul to tell the Duke, that he apprehended the Commodore would not be ſatisfied with that condition; upon which the Duke deſired the Conſul to aſſure the Commodore, that if he objected to it, it ſhould be left out, and that the ſubſtance of the letter being fully what was required, he hoped it would be ſufficient for that night. It was two hours paſt midnight when the Conſul returned on board, and the Commodore was ſo far ſatisfied as to promiſe he would not commence any hoſtilities upon the aſſurances given him by the Conſul, that any thing he objected to in the form would be altered: And accordingly in the morning another letter was wrote in the exact words required, and upon the receipt of it the Commodore ordered all the ſhips to prepare for ſailing, and they were under ſail before night, and out of ſight the next morning (the 21ſt N. S.) having been only 24 hours at anchor in the bay. The whole city was in the greateſt conſternation imaginable, during this negotiation.

The letter written by the Duke of Monteallegre to Commodore Martin.

SIR, August 20th N. S.

The King had already reſolved and given orders that his troops, which are joined with thoſe of Spain, ſhould withdraw in order to the defence of his own dominions. His Majeſty commands me to promiſe you in his name, that he will forthwith repeat his orders, that his troops withdrawing from the Romania, where they are at preſent, ſhall immediately return into the kingdom, and that he will not in any manner whatſoever either aid or aſſiſt thoſe of Spain any more in the preſent war in Italy.

Signed
The Marquis of Salas,
Duke of Monteallegre.

To Capt. William Martin
Commander of the Engliſh
ſquadron.

The court of Spain it ſeems were ſo ill ſatisfied with the Duke of Montemar's conduct, who commanded their army in Lombardy at this time, that he was recalled, and ſucceeded in that command by the Count de Gages an Iriſh nobleman in the Spaniſh ſervice.

The King of Sardinia advancing as far as Montmelian to oppoſe the Spaniards, who had already penetrated into the heart of Savoy, received intelligence on the 7th of December, that the enemy had formed a deſign to attack him the next morning; whereupon he drew up his army in order of battle, and expected their approach; but while the Marquis de Minas the Spaniſh General faced the King of Sardinia with the groſs of his army, he detached a body of four thouſand men through the mountains of Dauphine, and attacked the caſtle of Appremont, which commanded an important paſs, and made himſelf maſter of it after battering the walls 48 hours, tho' it is ſaid the little gariſon made a brave defence, and did not ſurrender till they ſaw their walls tumbling down.

The King of Sardinia abandons Savoy.

On the loſs of this poſt the King of Sardinia found himſelf obliged to abandon his camp at Mians on the 17th of December, and retire to Montmelian, from whence he marched the 18th with his army towards St. John de Maurienne and the Tarentaiſe, in order to retire into Piedmont, which he did without much loſs, though purſued by the Spaniards. But the poor Savoyards being thus abandoned, were ſoon made ſenſible of all the miſeries of war. Their houſes were burnt and plundered, men, women and children murdered in cold blood, and a general deſolation among the villages about Chamberry. Upon this retreat, the King of Sardinia wrote the following letter to the King of Great Britain.

His letter to his Britiſh Majeſty thereupon.

SIR, my brother,

YOU have already been acquainted, by my Miniſter at your court, with the reaſons which obliged me to withdraw my army from Savoy, and to cauſe it to return to Piedmont. Your Majeſty ought to have been informed, at the ſame time, that I did not take this ſtep till I was reduced to the laſt extremity, and till after it was impoſſible for me to ſupport myſelf againſt an enemy greatly ſuperior to me in ſtrength. Thoſe perſons, who are deſirous of rendring ſuſpicious the moſt faithful exactneſs in fulfilling engagements, will not fail of endeavouring to cauſe this retreat to be attributed to other motives, than thoſe which are actually the true ones. Evil-minded people will not fail too, according to their accuſtomed manner, to uſe their utmoſt artifices to give a colour to their ſuggeſtions, which are as falſe as they are malicious, by inſinuating, that propoſitions have been made me. But I expect, from the penetration of your Majeſty, that you will eaſily diſcern the truth, and not ſuffer yourſelf to be impoſed upon by ſuch illuſive inſinuations, but will be more than ever perſuaded of my unſhaken fidelity to the engagements which I have entered into, not only with your Majeſty, but likewiſe with the Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, for the mutual defence of our dominions in Italy. I alſo flatter myſelf that your Majeſty, by your Miniſters reſiding at the court of that Princeſs, will at a proper time uſe your utmoſt endeavours to cauſe to be performed the particular engagements which are underſtood and couched in thoſe which induced me to take up arms, and was the occaſion of our troops joining.

Your good brother and ally,
CHARLES EMANUEL.

1743. The Auſtrians victorious in Italy.

To make ſome amends for the loſs of Savoy, the Auſtrian and Sardinian forces, commanded by Count TRAUN, obtained a victory over the Spaniſh forces in Lombardy, commanded by the Count de GAGE. The Spaniards it ſeems paſſed the Panaro in the evening of the 8th of February, N. S. and attacked the Auſtrians at ten at night, in hopes of ſurpriſing them before their forces were joined, but found their whole army ready to receive them; whereupon an obſtinate battle enſued, wherein both ſides claimed the victory; but it was evidently on the ſide of the Auſtrians, the Spaniards retreating over the Panaro at four the next morning, and retiring to their old quarters at Bologna. In this action the Spaniards had upwards of three thouſand men killed, and two thouſand wounded. And the Auſtrians twelve hundred killed, and four hundred wounded. Count BYERSBERG, Lieutenant Field Marſhal of the Queen of Hungary's armies, received two and twenty wounds in the battle, of which he died ſoon after. Count APREMONT, a General of the King of Sardinia's, alſo died of his wounds.

Count de GAGE retiring into the Pope's territories, and being followed by the Auſtrians, the Pope's ſubjects were obliged to furniſh both parties with proviſions for a conſiderable time, which almoſt ruined the country, and occaſioned lamentable complaints from his Holineſs to the reſpective powers, who made ſo free with the lands of the Church; but they both repreſented the neceſſity they were under to ſupply their troops with proviſions, and the plundered inhabitants met with no redreſs.

The plague in Sicily.

This ſummer the plague was brought into Sicily from Turky, and the city of Meſſina almoſt depopulated by it. It was afterwards carried over into Calabria in Naples, ſo that the Italians were afflicted with war and peſtilence at the ſame time.

Don PHILIP made ſeveral attempts this campaign to penetrate into Piedmont through the paſſes of the Alps, but was conſtantly repulſed, and loſt a great many men in the attempt. And at the ſame time the Count de GAGE continued to retreat before the Auſtrians, and fortified his camp, not being in a condition to act offenſively.

Final propoſed to be given to the King of Sardinia.

In the mean while, it was agreed at a treaty between the Miniſters of his Britiſh Majeſty, the King of Sardinia, and the Queen of Hungary, that the town and territory of Final in Genoa ſhould be transferred to the King of Sardinia, tho' the Genoeſe lately purchaſed it of the houſe of Auſtria, at which that Republick was greatly alarmed, and prepared to defend their poſſeſſion.

Some conjectures why Naples is ſo ſubject to earthquakes and fiery eruptions: by the Royal Academy of Sciences at Naples, founded by DON CARLOS, *the preſent King of the two Sicilies.*

The ſoil of Naples repleniſhed with ſulphur and nitre.

THE kingdom of Naples in moſt places abounds with vaſt quantities of ſtrong minerals, eſpecially ſuch as are moſt ſubject to inflammation, and moſt capable to preſerve a long time the heat they have once contracted; to this cauſe it is owing that theſe provinces in all ages have been ſo ſubject to natural accenſions, or conflagrations.

That there is plenty of ſulphur, bitumen, nitre, allum, vitriol, and ſalts of every kind, as well as minerals of a more exalted quality, is evident from the mineral ſprings that frequently occur, and the innumerable places where theſe minerals appear on the ſurface of the earth, either by mere chance, or by the eaſy induſtry of the inhabitants, who make a profit of their diſcovery.

The ſource of their health and fertility.

The Neapolitans ſay it is to the fiery quality of the ſoil they are indebted for the prodigious fertility of their lands, the purity and wholeſomneſs of their air and water, the virtue and efficacy, as well as the variety of thoſe remedies their mineral ſprings and baths; and for all thoſe advantages that have given Naples the reputation of the moſt agreeable and healthy country in Europe.

Be this as it will, it is eaſy to imagine, how ſuch inflammable materials as theſe, ſcattered and hid beneath the ſoil, have increaſed and amaſſed themſelves in ſome particular place, whereby the aſſiſtance of ſome internal motion they have catched fire; and of conſequence this fire has ſplit the upper ſtratum that confined it, to give vent to its rage, with all thoſe violent phenomena that uſually attend the eruptions of volcano's.

In imitation of this operation of nature it is, that the chemiſts have contrived their aurum fulminans. This artificial compoſition not only kindles at the leaſt approach of any thing hot, but it breaks out, thunders, burſts the veſſels in which it is incloſed, and produces all thoſe violent effects that have given it ſo terrible a name.

In the ſame manner, the celebrated Lemery made an artificial volcano, by a paſte compoſed of two equal parts of ſulphur and ſteel-duſt mixt up with a little water. This he buried in the earth at a proper depth, and in about nine hours the ground began to ſwell and open in ſeveral places, from which iſſued a hot and ſulphureous ſmoke, which in a few minutes was ſucceeded by flames. Theſe chemical experiments, with others of the ſame nature, are ſufficient to explain what has been ſaid with regard to the natural diſpoſition of the ſoil.

Hence it appears that the ſources of fire have been ever found in this country. Many of them have been forgot, either becauſe their force has been exhauſted ages ago, or becauſe they were too weak to be of long duration, or for other reaſons which cannot at preſent be aſſigned.

As we now behold on the riſing grounds that lie about Naples to the weſt, north and eaſt, vaſt quantities of burnt ſtones, aſhes, and other bodies that bear viſibly the marks of fire, it has given occaſion to ſome authors to think, that formerly theſe places have ſuffered a conflagration, the memory of which time has effaced; whereas the caſe is quite different with Veſuvius, whoſe fire has preſerved itſelf unextinguiſhed from time immemorial.

The Dominican Fathers, a few years ago, having occaſion to dig a well in their convent of Notre Dame de l'Arc, the workmen at the depth of thirty feet, diſcovered the veſtigia of an old torrent; continuing to dig they were ſtopped again by a ſecond, and then a third, and in ſhort, in leſs than an hundred foot they found four ſtrata, all reſembling the petrified torrents which are daily to be ſeen near the ſouthern declivities of this mountain.

If the igneous matter is either generated or increaſed by internal mutations in the ſubterraneous caverns, a volcano may ſuddenly break out in a place where it is leaſt ſuſpected, as by the ſame rule an ancient volcano may as unexpectedly be extinguiſhed for want of proper fuel. Natural hiſtory affords us examples of each kind.

The firſt eruption of Mount Veſuvius.

The firſt memorable eruption of Veſuvius, of which we have any diſtinct account, is that which happened in the reign of TITUS, A. D. 79. Of this PLINY the younger, whoſe uncle periſhed by his curioſity on this occaſion, has given us a particular relation in two letters. DION in the life of TITUS, as well as the hiſtorians of that age, mention it; and the Poets ſpeak of it in a very expreſſive manner. It is highly probable that on this occaſion the face of Veſuvius underwent ſome remarkable change.

Since that time to the preſent there have happened ſeveral ſucceſſive eruptions, of which modern authors have given us a detail. If there be ſome little variation in their accounts, it is becauſe ſome have placed in their catalogue, eruptions of little note, which others have neglected to particularize.

The eruption of 1630.

As to the reſt, theſe ſucceſſive conflagrations have been quite uncertain as to their ſeaſons, intervals, violence, and duration, all which have been regulated by the caprice of nature. We ſhall only obſerve that the eruption in 1630 was one of the moſt dreadful ever happened, and has left behind it marks of its fury, which are viſible to the preſent age. The red hot ſtones, and other fiery ſubſtances which it threw out on this occaſion, burnt up trees, deſtroyed all the neighbouring villages, and ſet the country in a flame. Seven villages were entirely ruined by the torrent of liquified fire, and near ten thouſand (ſome reduce the loſs to five thouſand) perſons periſhed either by the aſhes or the flames.

However, the eruption of 1730 deſerves our notice, not only on account of its fury, but becauſe it made a ſenſible alteration in the ſummit of the volcano, for a great quantity of combuſtible and liquid matter, ſettling near the mouth of the volcano, rendered the top much higher and more pointed than it was before.

Another particularity remarkable in the ſame eruption was, that the flames were much brighter and livelier than uſual, and roſe into the air to a prodigious height. The fiery torrent which deſcended on the ſlope of the mountain, made no great progreſs, but on the ſide, where the ſouthern borders of the volcano were ſheltered by the rocky circuit of Mount Somma, a horrid inundation of fire covered all the bottom of the plain called the valley of Atria.

The chief damage ſuſtained aroſe from the burning cinders, that ſet fire to a large wood in the diſtrict of Ottajano, which would have been entirely conſumed, if, by cutting down the trees that lay in the way, a ſtop had not been put to the progreſs of the flames.

An account of the great eruption of Veſuvius, in 1737.

The eruption of 1737.

EVER ſince the eruption of 1730 to 1737, the ancient baſon of Veſuvius has conſtantly emitted ſmoke, often intermingled with flames, ſo that every day gave new tokens of the conflagration ſpreading within, and ſeemed to warn the neighbourhood of an approaching eruption. Theſe marks or ſymptoms for three or four months preceding the event, became ſtill more violent. An unintermitted ſmoke with bright flames daily increaſed. This is no new object to the people of Naples. A long ſeries of years has made it familiar, and the vulgar are ſo far from being alarmed at it, that they look on it as a favourable ſign, believing that the better theſe ſubterraneous fires vent themſelves, they have leſs cauſe to apprehend violent eruptions or earthquakes, which many imagine to proceed from one and the ſame cauſe.

Whatever truth there is in this popular notion, with reſpect to the danger of eruptions, the laſt ſhewed it was not to be depended on; for towards the end of April and beginning of May 1737, even when the volcano diſcharged itſelf in clouds of ſmoke, the conflagration began.

On the 14th and 15th of May the flames and ſmoke increaſed to that degree, that on the night of the 15th the volcano threw out red-hot ſtones, at the ſame time a torrent of liquified matter, deſcending from the mouth, ſeemed to threaten Boſco, a village ſituated at the foot of the mountain to the eaſt.

On the 17th and 18th of the ſame month the flames increaſed violently, and the ſmoke augmented in proportion; and what gave new force to the inflammation was, that the cavity of the volcano was at that time almoſt covered with ſulphur, which had been incruſted there for a long tract of time.

Sunday, May 19th, the conflagration ſpread with new rage. The thick and black ſmoke that iſſued, formed clouds of darkneſs that covered the air, and by the force of the flames were carried to a ſurprizing height. The mountain made a roaring noiſe, which was echo'd from the hills adjacent. Then firſt a panic appeared in every face, and the terror of the people hourly increaſed at ſo dreadful a ſpectacle. Such it really was, to behold through ſo gloomy a ſmoke a prodigious quantity of ſtones and rocky ſubſtances red-hot hurled in the air to an amazing height, and falling down with incredible noiſe along the ſides of the mountain. This terrible ſcene continued till the next day, the eruption ſtill gaining new ſtrength.

On monday, May 20, at eight in the morning, the ſtorm of burning ſtones and cinders became more furious than ever, and the inflammation roſe to that degree, that in ſpite of the ſun, the flames were viſibly obſerved through the ſmoke of the volcano, as bright as rockets in a dark night.

Towards the evening the tempeſt grew more outragious, and was attended with an inundation of burnt ſtones, pumice, and aſhes. The ſmoke changed its dark colour to a clear brown, but the circles it made in the air were larger than ever. In the mean time the fire of the ſummit plainly ſpread, as every moment ſome part of the cavity fell into the gulph beneath. Filled with horror, and dreading the worſt, the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages began to retire with their effects.

The ſame day, about two o'clock, the mountain gave a peal aſtoniſhing beyond the loudeſt thunder. Some attributed this to a large rent made in the ſide, the effects of which did not appear till about ſeven o'clock the ſame evening.

This rent or crack was made in the lower part of the S. W. ſide of Veſuvius, properly ſo called. The firſt thing obſervable was, that it flamed violently even when the top of the volcano ſeemed itſelf inflamed the moſt; and as the ſmoke of the upper part now received a new additional ſupply, ſo it had certainly obſcured all the W. coaſt of Naples, if the briſk ſoutherly winds had not ſtopt its progreſs, and diſſipated it.

During this time the noiſe of the volcano was no leſs horrible than uninterrupted. About 8^{h}. 22^{m}. the mountain was all covered with a thick cloud, thro' which every moment the flames darted like lightning. They are indeed a ſort of lightning which are peculiar to this volcano in its eruptions, and much reſemble the rockets uſed in fireworks.

Soon after a fiery torrent appeared from this new opening, taking its courſe along the deſcent with a viſible rapidity towards the village of Reſina; but about 9^{h}. 25^{m}. it ſeemed to deaden in its progreſs, and loſe its fiery aſpect. Juſt the ſame thing happened to another ſtream of the ſame ſort, that iſſuing from the mouth of the volcano bent its way towards Boſco. Many from hence concluded theſe Lavangi, or torrents of liquified matter, were in reality extinguiſhed, and that there was no more to fear.

In the mean time all the ſymptoms of the eruption, ſuch as the ſmoke, flames, ſtones, &c. continued ſtrong as ever, the noiſe no way decreaſed, and the air ſeemed tormented with unabated fury.

Thus matters continued till 11^{h}. 22^{m}. at night, when the new aperture broke out afreſh, with a ſtorm more violent than before, even throwing out ſtones of a large ſize, which it had not done hitherto ſince the firſt eruption. At the ſame time the fiery torrent iſſuing from it, renewed its courſe with greater impetuoſity. The whole mountain ſeemed on fire, both on account of the flames, and their reverberation from the darkneſs with which they were by the ſmoke ſurrounded. In one moment the whole mountain gave a crack as if it was falling into ruin; and this noiſe continued ſome moments without intermiſſion. The earthquakes that accompanied it were as violent as frequent, ſo that all who had as yet the courage to ſtay in their houſes, were now obliged to quit them. Nothing could be ſeen but crowds of people flying on all ſides for a place of ſafety.

Immediately after, the torrent of fire filled up a great part of that flat called Terra-plana, which lies oppoſite to the new aperture, and which we have deſcribed as the baſis of Veſuvius, making an inundation of about 500 foot in length, and 300 in breadth, where it ſettled from 11^{h}. 22^{m}. the night of the 20th till three o'clock in the morning on the 21ſt.

Scarce had the next day, May 22 begun, or about half an hour after one that morning, when the Lavangi, or torrent that had iſſued from the ſummit extending towards Boſco appeared totally extinct. A ſecond ſtream from the ſame ſource ſtill crept to the weſtward, but very ſlowly. The laſt, which iſſued from the new breach, and which without diſpute was the largeſt, after forming a lake in the bottom, as we obſerved, being continually puſhed forward by new ſupplies, fell into the adjacent vallies, dividing itſelf into ſeveral branches, according to the ſituation of the grounds it paſſed through.

The firſt of theſe branches took its way towards Reſina, but by the way broke into a valley where ſeveral improved grounds, planted with trees, were the prey of its conſuming heat. In the eruption of 1698, which alſo fell out in May, this ſame valley met with the like fate.

It appeared that the firſt branch was the moſt conſiderable of all, its front extending near 30 foot in breadth. It ſtopped at length, but had it continued its progreſs in the ſame direction, it had probably fallen on the Greek tower, by the convent of the Capuchins.

From the extremity of this branch, a fiery rivulet detached itſelf, which, though inconſiderable, did ſome damage in the low grounds adjacent.

The violence of another branch of this torrent was more conſiderable. It penetrated into a valley, through which it made its way in a body to a place called the White Ditch [foſſa blanco] where ſpreading into two arms, that on the right ruined ſome fields, the left made little progreſs, and did no great miſchief. This White Ditch had been infeſted before with a torrent from Veſuvius in the eruption of September, 1696.

Notwithſtanding this ſecond branch of the torrent from the aperture ſeemed thus ſtopped, yet on Tueſday May 22 it reſumed its courſe, not by either of the arms beforementioned, but by an intermediate channel, falling firſt into ſome vineyards, where it formed a kind of burning lake. Though this ſeemed to exhauſt a great part of the fiery liquified matter, yet it ſtill continued its courſe, till after deſtroying ſome country-ſeats, it fell towards the weſt ſide of the Greek tower. Here it deſtroyed a bridge which had been erected to carry on the King's road over a narrow valley about twenty five foot deep, between the chapel of purgatory, and the Carmelite monaſtery; and having croſſed this valley, it proceeded towards the ſea.

Theſe two diviſions of the ſecond branch, thus falling into the highway, were about twenty three foot each in front, and took ſix hours to complete their courſe, i. e. from ſeven o'clock on tueſday morning to ſome minutes after one the ſame day.

Another rivulet exhauſted its fury on ſome incloſed grounds, where it ſtopped: all the reſt were done at half an hour paſt one, except a ſmall branch, which bending ſlowly towards the ſhore, determined its courſe at four in the afternoon.

During all this time, till May 23, the ſummit of Veſuvius ejected violent flames, accompanied with ſhowers of burnt ſtones and cinders. On the 24th, after a long exploſion of lightnings uſual on theſe occaſions, the fire at top ſeemed to abate a little of its rage, but the ſmoak and aſhes ſtill continued to be ejected as before.

The 27th the flames ſenſibly ſubſided, though the ſmoak was whirled out with as much impetuoſity and as high as ever, but its blackneſs was conſiderably lightened and decreaſed.

On the 28th the fire of the ſummit was reduced almoſt to nothing; and on the 29th and following days, totally diſappeared.

May 30 and 31ſt and from the 1ſt to the 5th of June, there ſtill iſſued a great quantity of ſmoke, but of a pale and whitiſh colour.

June 5 and 6, there fell a great deal of rain, which occaſioned the Lavangi, or fiery torrent extinct, to exhale a great ſmoke, ſo thick as to prevent the diſtinguiſhing of objects near them: that eſpecially near the Greek tower caſt a ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell, which had never been obſerved there while it continued its courſe. This noxious vapour infected the ground for about ſix hundred foot in circumference, withering the leaves of the trees and blaſting the young fruits.

After ſome days interval, a ſecond rain occaſioned the torrent to ſmoke as before, but this new exhalation had no ſulphureous odour, but one much more offenſive to the head. It was the more remarkable as it had no reſemblance with any known ſmells, and it continued to be felt in that place for a long time after.

As to the fire of the torrent, it preſerved its fierceneſs outwardly till May 25th, when, the ſurface being expoſed to the air, began to cool, the heat retiring to the heart of the Lavangi, where it continued about a month ſo intenſe, that when it was opened half a foot, and a ſtick introduced through the aperture, it took fire inſtantly.

The buildings of Naples ſhaken without an Earthquake.

The moſt remarkable thing in the laſt eruption, was, the thundering noiſe heard from the bottom of the volcano, eſpecially on monday May 21, at which time, not only the ſtrongeſt edifices in Naples felt the ſhock in a ſenſible manner, but the effects of it extended to the diſtance of 15 miles or further. That this phenomenon did not proceed from the ſhaking of the mountain, or that of the adjacent parts, it ſeems reaſonable to believe. To what then could it be aſcribed? To the agitation the air ſuſtained, by the ſucceſſive torrents of flame; ſo gunpowder, thrown on a plate of metal red-hot, ſparkles and cracks with double impetuoſity.

The thunder that followed the lightnings of the volcano, differed from the common in this, that it conſiſted of one clap, without either echo or prolongation, as happens to the former, from the repercuſſion of air through the ſinuoſity of the clouds, or the obſtruction of other bodies. The noiſe of the Veſuvian thunder was momentaneous, like the diſcharge of a cannon fired at ſea at a ſmall diſtance.

Among the various appearances that attend the eruption of Veſuvius, the firſt place is due to thoſe fiery ſtreams of liquified matter called Lavangi. The exceſſive hardneſs they contract, in loſing their heat, leaves them to the view, as eternal monuments of the force of that furnace, that is able to diſſolve them, and give them ſuch a fatal fluidity.

We do not find in the moſt ancient writers any diſtinct account of theſe Veſuvian torrents, but we know that in 1630, they forced a paſſage from the ſummit of the mountain to the ſea. The dreadful conflagration of Ætna in 1669, left, near the city of Catanea, a monument yet more remarkable, for the ſtream of fire penetrated ſo far into the ſea, as to form a mole or key, whoſe harbour was capable of receiving veſſels of good burthen. It will not here be amiſs to obſerve the uſe to which the ſtones of thoſe ancient petrified torrents have been for many years employed by the people of Naples: they hew into large ſquares that conſolidated rock, which once was a ſtream of fiery liquified matter, and pave their ſtreets with them.

The length of the principal Lavangi proceeding from the lower aperture, and ending near the ſea, was found to be about 3350 Neapolitan canes. (The Neapolitan cane is 8 palms, a Neapolitan palm is ⅚ of the Paris foot; ſo that ſix of their palms equal five feet French meaſure. This makes the length of the torrent 134,000 French feet.) For the firſt 750 canes (or roods) reckoning from the ſource of the torrent, its breadth was the ſame, and its depth eight palms. For the laſt 2800 canes, eſtimating it at a medium taken from obſervations in ten ſeveral places, the breadth was 188 palms, the depth 30. As to the ſtreams that are branched from it, the one which fell into the vineyard was found to be 1150 canes in its whole length, of which, by a like computation, 1050 were 250 palms broad, and 10 deep, and the reſt about 100 palms broad. The other ſtream, which extended towards the Capuchins, was 1800 canes long, its breadth 548 palms, its depth 20.

So that from the preceding calculation it follows, that the total quantity of the fiery liquified matter, ejected by the volcano in the laſt eruption, amounts to 595,948,000 cubic feet, excluding the ſtones and aſhes thrown out, as well as the torrents that iſſued from the ſummit, and which made no conſiderable progreſs.

Lavangi or fiery torrents deſcribed.

It is one thing to conſider theſe torrents in their fluid ſtate, and another to regard them when they have been conſolidated by the impreſſion of the external air.

In the firſt caſe, a Lavange ſhews but three remarkable qualities, 1. Its ſtate of fluidity, by which it flows like other liquid bodies. 2. Its red or fiery colour. 3. Its conſuming heat.

Theſe torrents, beheld at a diſtance in the dark, give a light, not like that of a bright flame, but more dull and faint, ſuch as bodies heated in a furnace red-hot. When you approach them pretty near, you preſently are ſenſible of their violent heat, which is fatally deſtructive to houſes, trees, or whatever elſe lies near their paſſage.

As ſoon as the rage of this fire begins to abate, the torrent loſing its fluidity, congeals into a hard and brittle ſtone, it next loſes its fiery colour, and laſtly its heat, which it retains longer than all the reſt of its qualities.

The fluidity of the Veſuvian torrents reſembles that of melted pitch, or rather of glaſs in its ſtate of liquefaction. However it is neither equal in all the torrents, nor even in different parts of the ſame torrent; for beſides the diverſity ariſing from the mixture of heterogeneous bodies, more or leſs ſuſceptible of fuſion, the degree of fire has certainly a great influence in giving a proportional degree of fluidity.

Hence it is eaſy to acount, why in the laſt eruption the torrent that iſſued from the new aperture at the foot of the volcano, was much more liquid than thoſe that flowed from the ſummit, as was apparent from their motion; no doubt it was owing to the activity of the fire, which was greater at that part of the mountain than at the top. The ſame rule alſo proves, why the torrents are always more fluid towards their ſource, and in proportion to the length of their courſe grow leſs and leſs liquid.

If the melted ſubſtances that compoſe the Lavangi are not equally liquid in all eruptions, or if their fluidity appears ſtronger or weaker in various parts of the ſame torrent, the inequality is the ſame with reſpect to the external ſurface, and the inſide of the ſame ſtreams; for ſeveral have remarked, that in ſtriking with a ſtick the outſide of a Lavange, yet running, they found it hard, ſometimes to that degree as to give a hollow ſound, while the inſide was certainly fluid, otherwiſe it could not have held on its courſe.

Theſe Veſuvian torrents are compoſed either of metals, or inflammable minerals, or ſtones, or other bodies ſubject to fuſion, or ſimilar ſubſtances, or rather, perhaps produced by a mixture of all theſe together.

That theſe fluids are wholly metallic is contrary to experience, for we know all metals are malleable bodies, i. e. ſubject to bend under the hammer without breaking, a property not to be found in the fragments of the Lavangi, for chuſe what piece you will, it will fly in pieces, rather than yield to the moſt violent blow.

If theſe torrents are not purely a compoſition of metals, much leſs are they an intire mixture of ſalts, ſulphur, bitumen, and other inflammable minerals; for neither the exceſſive hardneſs, nor the prodigious heavineſs of the Veſuvian torrents agree with the nature of ſuch a mixture.

The appearances of the maſſes that conſtitute our Lavangi are innumerably varied. Nothing can be more confuſed; but then nothing is more eaſy, on a cloſer view, than to diſtinguiſh them from each other than their principles. Every one may conceive, how by the exceſſive action of ſuch a ſubterraneous fire, and by the mixture of a hundred various bodies, things muſt change their aſpect in ſo violent an operation. We may even doubt if they may not be ſo metamorphoſed as to loſe their natural figure, and aſſume a deluſive appearance. Willing therefore, to keep cloſe to truth in our enquiry, we ſhall only ſpeak of thoſe minerals that are moſt viſible, and in greateſt quantity, viz. ſalts, ſulphur, and a certain fat and bituminous ſubſtance, which we may call petrelæum or rock-oil.

Of the laſt this volcano ſeems to contain an inexhauſtible fund, as appears from great quantities of this oily or unctuous matter, which conſtantly floats on the ſea, near the coaſts of the bay. But in all the eruptions ſulphur has the precedency, the volcano itſelf is quite lined with ſulphureous concretions; laſtly, the third mineral abounding in the Veſuvian fluids is ſalt, which, by the obſervations and experiments made on it, is judged by ſome to be ſal-armoniac.

The ſtones thrown up ſeem not to be original ſubſtances formed in the cavities of the mountain, but rather concretions ariſing from maſſes formerly melted down and lodged in the cavities of the volcano.

The Italian architects highly value theſe ſpongy, perforated ſtones (the pumice ſtones) for the building of vaults or arches, not only on account of their lightneſs, but becauſe they cloſely receive the mortar, two points that greatly contribute to the ſolidity of architecture. Vitruvius praiſes theſe ſtones and the mortar of Puzzoli for their great uſefulneſs in the perfection and ſtrength of architecture.

It is obſervable that the Moffetti, or peſtilential exhalations always attend the conflagrations of the volcano.

Of the ſtate of Veſuvius ſince the laſt great eruption, A. D. 1737.

BEFORE the eruption, the ſouthern ſummit of Veſuvius, from whence the flames proceed, was both higher and more piked or ſharp than at preſent.

The form of Veſuvius altered by the laſt eruption.

The inſide of the volcano, or its gulf, has alſo changed its aſpect, as appears from this, that the ſmoke which continually exhales from thence is no longer united in one body as formerly, when it proceeded from one aperture, but is divided into five or ſix ſtreams ſpringing from ſo many funnels ſeparate from each other, as may be eaſily ſeen before ſun-riſe, when the air is clear and calm; and if the ſmoke ſometimes whirls out as if from one vent, it is owing to the quantity of the vapour or to the briſkneſs of the wind.

Thus much is viſible from Naples, but it is neceſſary to give the reader a nearer view taken on the ſpot, in which were obſerved the following particulars.

1. The perimeter or circuit of the baſe of Veſuvius in its utmoſt extent, is near forty Italian miles, but its neareſt circuit does not exceed thirty; by the neareſt circuit is meant, the place where it begins to riſe above the plain.

2. The height of the northern ſummit, meaſured from the level of the ſea, is about 720 Neapolitan canes, that of the ſouthern point, or volcano, 646.

3. The new aperture, which is broke out on the declivity of the ſouthern ſummit, from whence iſſued the principal torrent of fire, is 552 canes above the water-level.

4. The two ſummits are diſtant from each other at their points 340 canes, at their baſe 150; that is to ſay, in the place whence the two diviſions of the mountain riſe, called the Val d' Atrio.

5. The top of the ſouthern ſummit is hollow, and preſents to the eye a gulph of a circular figure, whoſe largeſt diameter, called its baſon, lies from E. to W. and is 350 canes over.

6. This baſon or cavity is edged with a border or bank, which projects to the inſide, like a precipice, and nearly reſembles the banks of a river hanging over, whoſe earth the floods have carried away.

7. This border is pretty equal round all the gulph, only to the W. it is interrupted by the advance of ſome fragments of rock exceeding hard, and which ſeem to be of the ſame ſubſtance with the internal matter of the Lavangi.

8. On the eaſt ſide, where this bank is ſmootheſt, is a ſloping deſcent which leads to the bottom of the gulph, ſo that one may go down it though with much difficulty.

9. All this opening, ſuch as now deſcribed, is the mouth of an abyſs that pierces the intrails of the mountain in form of a truncated cone, of which the circumference of the opening makes the baſe.

10. The ſides of this baſon are all covered with cinders towards the eaſt, unleſs where ſome pieces of rock appear through, near which lie ſeveral unperceived vents, from whence exhales the ſmoke; and about them are found various concretions of ſalts and ſulphur. This is the ſide, which affords the eaſieſt deſcent to the bottom of the baſon.

11. Towards the ſouth, the declivity appears much ſteeper, though naturally laid with great ranges of ſtone. The thickeſt ſmoke ariſes from this quarter, (at leaſt during the time theſe obſervations were made) which is without doubt the cauſe that the mineral ſalts and ſulphur are here found in greater quantities than towards the eaſtern ſide.

12. On the W. and N. the ſides are almoſt perpendicular, formed of vaſt ſtones, ſome of which project out, and are as it were varniſhed or coated over with ſulphur, the effect of the prodigious ſmoke which iſſues on that ſide.

13. The bottom of the baſon lengthens a little between the north and ſouth, its ſmalleſt breadth is about 50 canes.

14. When theſe obſervations were made on the internal ſtate of the volcano, there was towards the ſouth-ſide a ſmall collection of rain-water, which covered near half the bottom of the baſon.

15. The water was blackiſh and warm. It appeared frothy towards the edges, and had a bad taſte of ſalt and ſulphur. Its depth did not appear to exceed two palms, or thereabouts, as was judged from ſeveral ſtones, which the obſervers threw in.

16. This lake of rain-water was cloſed on one ſide by a bank of aſhes, on which were obſerved the traces of ſeveral ſtreams, that had run over into the empty part of the baſon, but now loſt and dried up.

17. The dry part of the baſon appeared extremely rough and uneven, full of holes and breaks, and covered with ſalts and yellowiſh ſulphur, ending like the hollow of a ſea-ſhell between the north and weſt, and from this cavity, which was deeper than the lake, aroſe the thickeſt ſmoke.

18. It was impoſſible to meaſure the depth of this part of the baſon, for want of a proper place to fix the inſtruments neceſſary for ſuch an operation. The obſervers, however, willing to examine this matter as well as the ſituation of things would permit, took the following method; they choſe that part of the north ſide of the rock where the precipice was ſteepeſt and leaſt interrupted, ſo that by caſting in ſtones, from hence, had hopes they would meet with leaſt obſtacles in the deſcent. They threw very large ſtones five or ſix times, while perſons, placed on the other ſide the baſon, meaſured the time of their fall by the beating of the pulſe. The pulſations each time exceeded forty, ſo that taking each for a ſecond, and ſuppoſing the ſtone to fall to the bottom with the ſame degree of velocity, the depth muſt be 84 canes. But as the man whoſe pulſe was examined was much fatigued with climbing the mountain, and as the air was no doubt heated by the quantity of hot and ſulphureous vapours, as well as by the weather, it being the heat of ſummer, no doubt the pulſations were too quick for an eſtimation of them at a ſecond each: on the other hand, they ſuppoſed the degree of velocity in the fall of the ſtone to be equal, excluding the acceleration of it, as well as the obſtacles it might meet in the deſcent, and believe their calculation not far from truth.

Such was the ſtate of this volcano, at the time of the examination of it. I ſhall here add the opinion of ſome concerning this lake; which though the rains had been great, yet in September it took up but the half of the cavity of this baſon.

They think then, that from hence they may account for the origin of thoſe mineral ſprings that abound at the foot of the mountain in different places, and whoſe waters are impregnated with a ſalutary virtue.

By the former meaſures it is computed, that the mouth of the volcano, taken in breadth and length, contains 6,160,000 ſquare palms. Now the rain that falls in the territory of Naples for the courſe of a year, amounts to about three palms in depth. By this computation it follows, that the cavity or baſon of Veſuvius receives about 18,480,000 cubic palms of rain water annually: It is ſaid about this quantity, becauſe it is doubted whether the quantity be ſo great, for at the top of the mountain the rain falls always in leſs quantity than on the plain. This is known by the convergence of the drops in their deſcent from the clouds.

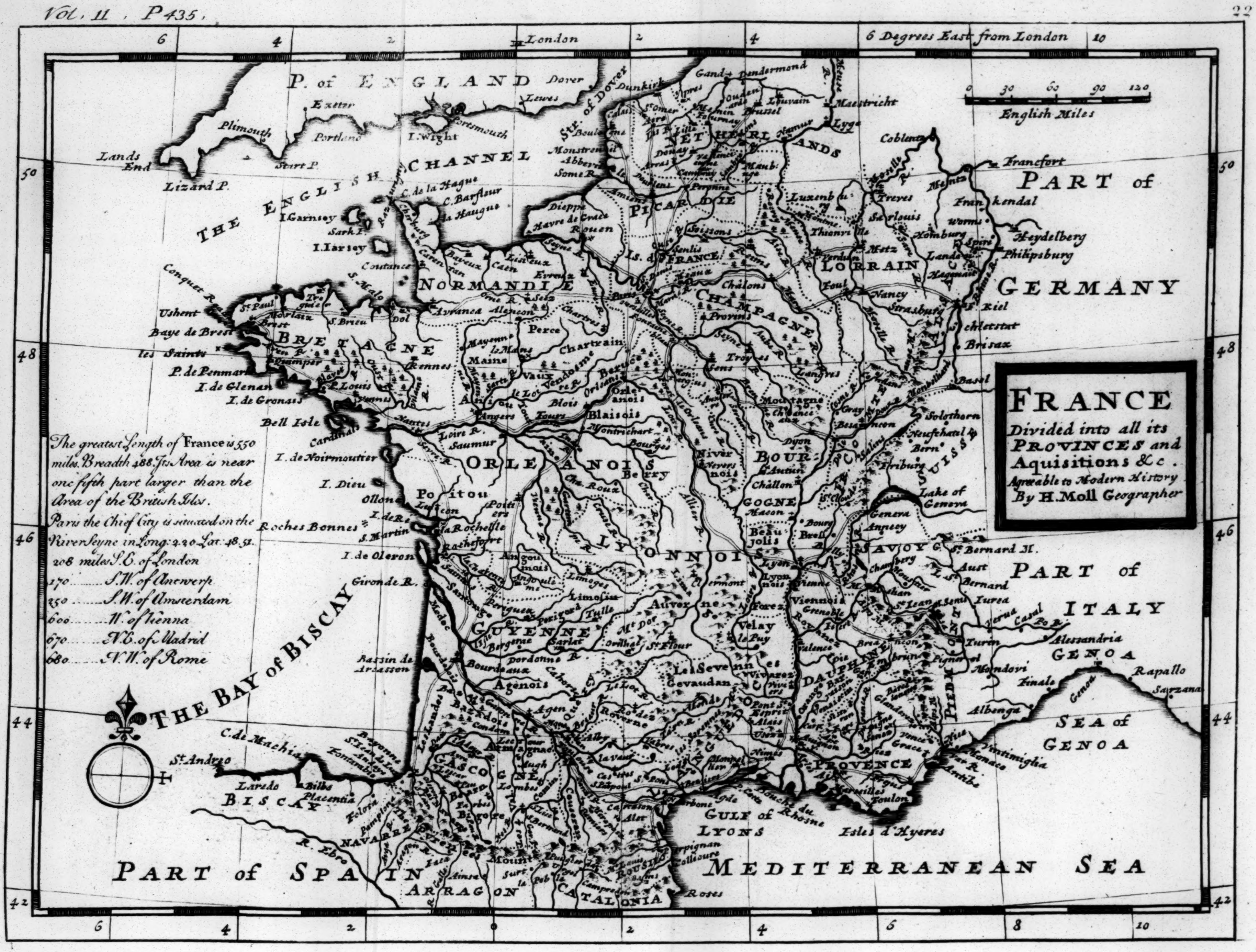
Now though a great part of this water is evaporated by the ſubterranean heat, yet it may be ſuppos'd there remains ſufficient to ſupply perpetually the wells and rivulets adjacent to the foot of the mountain. This quantity is alſo decreaſed by what the ſurface of Veſuvius drinks in, which falling or ſinking through its cavities, forms a new ſupply to the ſprings beneath.

Hence it is eaſy to judge that the ſprings which riſe at its foot become impregnated deeply with ſeveral minerals, eſpecially thoſe of the ſaline and ſulphureous kind. And hence may proceed their diuretic quality, and that they are gently purgative and ſoftening in ſeveral indiſpoſitions; of this there is a remarkable inſtance in the baths of Piſcarielli, which riſe behind the Solfatara near the lake of Agnano, and very probably do proceed from the ſnow and rains, which fall in the cavities of the volcano.

As the baſon of Veſuvius is only a plain ſunk in the middle, the water can find no iſſue but by paſſing through the cavities of the Solfatara, where it takes a ſtrong tincture of ſulphur and allum, and ſprings out very hot at the foot of one of thoſe rocks that form the baſis of the mountain.

Amongſt the changes produced by the laſt eruption, may be reckoned the impediment of the high road near the E. ſide of the Greek tower, for the way is there yet interrupted by the vaſt torrent which advanced near the ſea-ſide. A prodigious bank was raiſed by it, which would have prevented all paſſage, if the labourers had not wrought to clear a way through this Veſuvian mound, and carried off the largeſt of the ſtones; it is ſtill a little troubleſom to croſs the remains. The reſt of the torrents did little damage.

3 MA 53



FRANCE
Divided into all its
PROVINCES and
Aquisitions &c.
Agreeable to Modern History
By H. Moll Geographer

The greatest Length of France is 550 miles. Breadth 488. Its Area is near one fifth part larger than the Area of the British Isles.

Paris the Chief City is situated on the River Seyne in Long: 2.20 Lat: 48.51.
208 miles S.E. of London
170 .... S.W. of Antwerp
250 .... S.W. of Amsterdam
600 .... W. of Vienna
670 .... N.E. of Madrid
680 .... N.W. of Rome

6 Degrees East from London
London
0 30 60 90 120
English Miles
P. of ENGLAND
Exeter
Plimouth
Portland
Lands End
Lizard P.
Start P.
I. Wight
Portsmouth
Lewes
Dover
St. of Dover
THE ENGLISH CHANNEL
I. Garnsey
Sark I.
I. Jarsey
C. de la Hague
C. Barfleur
la Hague
Conquet R.
Ushent
Baye de Brest
les Saints
P. de Penmark
I. de Glenan
I. de Gronais
Bell Isle
I. de Noirmoutier
I. Dieu
Olone
Roches Bonnes
I. de Re
S. Martin
I. de Oleron
Gironde R.
Bassin de Arcasson
THE BAY of BISCAY
C. de Machia
St. Andero
Laredo
Bilbo
Placentia
BISCAY
Fontarabia
NAVARRE
R. Ebro
PART of SPAIN
ARRAGON
CATALONIA
Roses
Collioure
Perpignan
GULF of LYONS
Isles d'Hyeres
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SEA of GENOA
GENOA
Savona
Rapallo
Sarzana
Finale
Albenga
Nice
Monaco
Vintimiglia
Alessandria
Mondovi
Turin
Casal
Ivrea
PART of ITALY
St. Bernard M.
Aust
S. Bernard
Lake of Geneva
Geneva
Annecy
SAVOY
Chamberry
SUISSE
Basel
Solothorn
Neufchatel
Bern
Friburg
Brisac
Schletstat
Riel
GERMANY
PART of
Francfort
Frankendal
Worms
Heydelberg
Philipsburg
Spire
Landau
Coblentz
Treves
Sarlouis
Homburg
Mentz
Maestricht
Liege
Namur
Louvain
Brussel
Gand
Dendermond
Ypres
Lille
Dunkirk
Calais
St. Omer
Doway
Arras
Cambray
Peronne
NETHERLANDS
Boulogne
Monstreuil
Abbeville
Some R.
Amiens
PICARDIE
Dieppe
Havre de Grace
Rouen
Soissons
Senlis
Is. de FRANCE
Paris
Luxemb
Thionville
Metz
Verdun
LORRAIN
Nancy
Strasburg
Toul
CHAMPAGNE
Chalons
Troyes
Provins
Langres
Rheims
NORMANDIE
Caen
Bayeux
Lisieux
Evreux
Alençon
Avranches
Coutances
S. Malo
Cherbourg
BRETAGNE
St. Paul
Morlaix
Brest
S. Brieu
Dol
Rennes
Quimper
P. Louis
Vannes
Nantes
Mayenne
Le Mans
Maine
Perche
Chartres
Chartrain
Vendosme
Blois
Blaisois
Orleans
Tours
Angers
Saumur
Loire R.
ORLEANOIS
Poitou
Poitiers
Luçon
La Rochelle
Rochefort
Angoumois
Saintonge
Berry
Bourges
Nivernois
Nevers
Allier R.
BOURGOGNE
Dijon
Autun
Challon
Mascon
Beaujolois
Bresse
Besançon
LYONNOIS
Lyon
Limoges
Limosin
Tulle
Auvergne
Clermont
Mt. Dor
St. Flour
Forez
Velay
Le Puy
Viennois
Grenoble
Valence
DAUPHINE
Embrun
Briançon
Pignerol
PIEDMONT
GUYENNE
Perigueux
Bergerac
Sarlat
Dordogne R.
Bourdeaux
Medoc
Agenois
Agen
Cahors
Quercy
Les Sevennes
Gevaudan
Vivarez
Rovergue
Rodez
Nismes
Montpellier
Beziers
Narbonne
Toulouse
Albi
PROVENCE
Aix
Marseilles
Toulon
Grasse
Antibe
Gulf of the Rhone
Bouches du Rhosne
Les Landes
Bazadois
Condom
GASCOGNE
Bayonne
St. Jean de Luz
Pau
Bigorre
Tarbes
Foix
Couserans
Mount Louis
Pampelona
Jaca

The republick of Geneva alſo has been in ſome confuſion lately, by an inſurrection of the populace, and made France umpire of their differences; but all is quiet again there.

As to the republick of Venice, they ſeem to have remained in a ſtate of indolence of late years, ſtudying nothing more than to be at peace with all their neighbours; however, they happened to give ſome diſguſt to the court of Great Britain, by the honours they paid the ſon of the Chevalier St. George, and their miniſter at the Britiſh court was thereupon commanded home.

THE PRESENT STATE OF FRANCE.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the name, ſituation, extent and boundaries of this kingdom; and of the air, ſeas, rivers and mountains.

CHAP. I.

The name.

MODERN France contains a medley of nations, which in their turns have had the ſovereignty of this country; as the Gauls, Romans, Franks, Goths, Burgundians, Normans, &c. but the Franks, a German people who inhabited the banks of the rivers Maine and Sali, (which province is at this day called Franconia) had the honour of communicating their name to this deſirable country; and this name it hath retained ever ſince the fifth century. It is true the learned generally agree that the name of Franken, or free people, was not appropriated to any one claſs or tribe of Germans, but to all thoſe powers that confederated themſelves againſt the Romans in defence of their liberties: it is not however improbable that the inhabitants of Franconia might firſt propoſe the entring into this alliance, and lay the foundation of it, which might occaſion their country to be called by way of eminence Frankenland.

Situation and extent.

The kingdom of France is bounded by the Britiſh channel and the Netherlands towards the north; by Germany, Switzerland, Savoy, and Italy on the eaſt; by the Mediterranean and Spain on the ſouth, and by the Atlantick or weſtern ocean on the weſt; extending from the 42d to the 51ſt degree of north latitude, and taking up above eleven degrees of longitude, the moſt eaſterly part of Provence, lying ſeven degrees to the eaſtward of London, and the moſt weſterly part of Bretagne, four degrees odd minutes to the weſtward of London. Were it not for the province of Bretagne, which ſtretches itſelf above an hundred miles farther into the ocean than any other part of the kingdom, the form would be almoſt ſquare, and the breadth and length pretty near equal, viz. about five hundred and forty miles; but making allowances for hills and valleys, and the winding of the roads, it muſt be above ſix hundred miles over either way in a traveller's account; and was exceeding populous till perſecution, war, and famine leſſened their numbers: ſcarce a country in Europe that is not crouded with French ſervants, or French refugees; and their armies, which in the laſt war conſiſted of four or five hundred thouſand men, could not but contribute to depopulate the kingdom: the famine which happened at the ſame time alſo in Paris only, ſwept away about an hundred thouſand people, and more in proportion in the reſt of the kingdom; ſo that if there was ever any colour for thoſe high calculations of their numbers which ſome of their writers have made, computing the ſouls in France at nineteen millions and upwards; thoſe who now eſtimate them at five or ſix millions, poſſibly come much nearer the truth.

CHAP. I.

The air.

The air is temperate, equally exempted, ſay the French writers, from the extremities of heat and cold, and on that account France is preferable to Germany and the northern countries on one hand, as it is to Spain and Italy on the other; and this happy ſituation occaſions a great plenty of all things deſirable in life, as corn, wine, oil, flax, &c. But I propoſe to give an account of the ſoil and produce in the deſcription of the reſpective provinces, and return to the temperature of the air, which the natives ſo much boaſt of. Certain it is, that the northern provinces of France, and even the neighbourhood of Paris, is much colder in winter than England; as we are ſurrounded by the ſea, we are not ſo ſubject to continued froſts, nor are we ſo ſenſible of the cold, becauſe we are much better ſupplied with firing. The poor people in France often undergo much greater hardſhips in a ſevere ſeaſon than they do in England, or more northern ſituations; I muſt confeſs, that clear ſettled weather, which we uſually meet with on the continent, both in winter and ſummer, is preferable to that perpetual change which iſlanders are ſubject to, provided there is no want of fuel: but the northern people in this reſpect ſeem to have the better of the French, whoſe bodies are not only better prepar'd to endure cold, but have furs to clothe them when they go abroad, and ſtoves to lie in at night, ſo that they are in no danger of periſhing by the ſeverity of the winter, as the common people in France ſometimes are: and as the ſummers in France are hotter, this may probably be one reaſon they are more ſenſible of cold weather in winter than their northern neighbours are. But to conclude this head, every country has its conveniences and inconveniences, and whenever we hear a foreigner boaſting of the clemency of the air, the beauty or fertility of his native place, we may ſafely conclude there are allays to be met with which may poſſibly counterpoiſe the happineſs he boaſts of: and on the contrary, how cold and comfortleſs ſoever ſome places may be repreſented, the natives ſtill find ſomething to render their condition tolerable, and in their opinion perhaps preferable to their ſouthern neighbours.

The ſeas.

In one reſpect indeed we muſt allow, that France has the advantage of any kingdom of Europe, and that is in the ſeas which border upon it, which afford them an eaſy communication with the reſt of the world; the Britiſh channel waſhes all its northern ſhores, the Atlantick ocean the weſtern coaſts, and the Mediterranean the ſouth; no country therefore can be better ſituated for the advancement of trade and navigation, of which however they do not make the advantages they might, as will appear hereafter.

Rivers. The Loire. The Rhone. The Garonne. The Seine. Mountains

It is alſo extremely well watered with navigable rivers, of which the chief are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. Of theſe the Loire is the largeſt; it riſes in the mountains of the Sevennes in Languedoc, and taking its courſe north and north-weſt, runs by Nevers to Orleans, and from thence directly weſt by Tours, Angers and Nantz in Bretagne, and falls into the ocean forty miles below Nantz, receiving in its courſe the Aller, the Cher, the Indre, the Vienne, Sarta, the Mayenne, and ſeveral other rivers, and communicates with the Seine by the canals of Briare and Orleans; the whole courſe, with all its windings from the ſource to the ſea, is computed to be about five hundred miles. 2. The Rhone, which riſing in the mountain La Fourche in Switzerland, runs weſtward through the country called the Valais, dividing it into two parts; after which it paſſes thro' the lake of Geneva, and having viſited that city, becomes navigable at Seiſſel, four or five leagues below Geneva, which it is not before, on account of the falls and cataracts that are met with in it: afterwards it flows on ſouth-weſt to Lyons, where it joins the Soan, and then runs on due ſouth till it falls into the Mediterranean by three ſeveral channels, having received the Iſere at Valence, and the Durance at Avignon, and paſſed by the city of Arles. 3. The Garonne, or Gironne, which riſing in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its courſe firſt north-eaſt to the city of Thouloufe, and afterwards north-weſt to Bourdeaux, and fifteen leagues below that city falls into the ocean near the tower of Corduan by two channels, having received in its courſe the Auriege, the Sare, the Tara, the Lot, the Dordonne, and ſeveral other leſſer ſtreams, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by the royal canal, the work of LEWIS XIV. 4. The Seine, which riſes near Dijon in Burgundy, and runs to the north-weſt, viſiting Troyes, Paris and Rouen in its way, and falls into the Britiſh channel near Havre de Grace: it begins to be navigable at Troyes, the capital of Campagne, and receives in its courſe the Yonne, the Loing, the Marne, the Oiſe, and the Eure, and ſeveral other leſs conſiderable ſtreams. The higheſt mountains are the Alps, which ſeparate France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide it from Spain; and the Cevennes, which run through the Lower Languedoc to Auvergne.

CHAP. II.

Treats of the perſons and habits of the French, of their genius and temper, diet, exerciſes and diverſions.

CHAP. II.

THERE being ſuch a multitude of French families in London, and other parts of England, it may ſeem unneceſſary to ſay any thing on the heads enumerated in the title of this chapter; many will be apt to ſay they are perfectly acquainted with the perſons and manners of this people, and that I cannot give them a truer notion of the French than they have already, and this may be true in a great many inſtances: I ſhall however, for the ſake of thoſe who have not had the opportunity of converſing ſo familiarly with them, attempt a character of the French according to the beſt of my judgment.

The perſons of the French.

The French then as to their perſons are generally of a lower ſtature than their neighbours of Germany or Holland, and of a much ſlighter make, but nimble, active and well proportioned, their hair and eyes are for the moſt part black, and their complexions brown; the northern people it muſt be owned have an advantage of them in this reſpect, as well as in point of ſtature, their features alſo are ſmall and not very engaging, at leaſt to an Engliſh eye: I muſt confeſs however, that I have ſeen ſome tall perſonable men of good complexions, and ſeveral beautiful females amongſt them; and there is no reaſon to ſuppoſe that thoſe provinces of France which border upon Flanders and Germany, and intermarry with the natives of thoſe countries, ſhould not equal them in theſe reſpects: nay, I am apt to think that the breed muſt be much mended on both ſides, where a tall phlegmatick Dutchman happens to join iſſue with a little airy French lady. It is obſervable alſo, thoſe of the French who come over hither very young and remain long amongſt us, have more florid complexions than thoſe who have been bred up in France; and another obſervation I believe all that have been acquainted with this people muſt make is, that both men and women wear very ill, and that as they grow into years, their features appear very harſh and ſhocking.

Their habits.

As to their habits we may ſee them imitated by our gentry all over England, tho' it muſt not be thought that the ſame dreſs is ever in faſhion at Paris at the ſame time it is at London, for by that time it has got over hither, the French are infallibly in a new mode; and if a gentleman ſhould go over to France in clothes that were made here by the beſt French taylor in town, he would probably find himſelf under a neceſſity of making ſeveral alterations on his arrival there; and therefore an Italian painter, when he was directed to draw a Frenchman, drew him with a pair of ſhears and a piece of cloth, intimating, that he was ever cutting out ſomething new; and of all the bubbles in Europe, no nation follows their foppery ſo cloſely as the Engliſh: the Italians, the Spaniards and the Dutch, who are their neareſt neighbours, deſpiſe their levity, and do not alter the faſhion of their clothes once in an age.

Their temper and genius.

As to the temper of the French, they are a merry ſprightly generation, who ſeldom lay any thing to heart, familiar and acquainted at firſt ſight, but exceſſively vain and talkative. If a native of

France ſpeaks of his country, he tells you in the phraſe of one of their authors who now lies before me, that it is the moſt ancient and illuſtrious kingdom in the world; that the fertility of the ſoil and clemency of the air is no where to be parallelled; that their religion, laws and government are the beſt that ever were inſtituted, and their prince the greateſt monarch in the univerſe; and that arts and ſciences never arrived at ſuch a pitch as in this glorious kingdom; even the Hugonots, who fled from thence on account of the perſecution, will ſubſcribe to every part of this deſcription, unleſs it be the point of religion.

The vain-glory and obſequious flattery ſo natural to the French, is ſufficiently evident from the inſcriptions on ſome of their royal palaces and ſtatues, which I ſhall have occaſion hereafter to recite in the deſcription of them, and ſhall here only give a ſpecimen or two of them; and firſt on the Louvre we meet with an inſcription which tells us, that their King, their nation, and that palace, are the three wonders of the world, and that God only excels their King, as heaven does this houſe.

Under the ſtatue of Lewis XIV. in the place of Victory is another modeſt inſcription, viz. *Viro immortali*, to the immortal man: and there they tell us alſo that their grand monarch gives laws to the whole world, which never was truer perhaps than at this day. Nor is it only at court that flattery is predominant, but in imitation of their ſuperiors the loweſt claſs of men ſeem to reverence, and even adore thoſe who are a degree above them, and by this fawning inſinuating behaviour many of that nation have raiſed their fortunes amongſt us, and been on a ſudden metamorphoſed from lackeys into gentlemen; they have that wiſdom where there is a proſpect of advancement to ſuffer themſelves tamely to be trod upon, and not only to put up all ill uſage, but even to ſeem pleaſed and contented with it, and as they ſee the ſilly animals they ſerve delighted with the worſhip that's paid them, never fail to let them have their fill of it. But as this people are ſo exceeding humble while they are in a ſtate of dependance, they are no leſs imperious when their fortunes happen to mend; they expect the ſame homage from their inferiors, which they were uſed to pay to thoſe above them. To proceed in their character; they have a genius, ſays Puffendorf, fit to undertake any thing, whether it be in learning, trade, or manufactures, eſpecially thoſe things which depend more upon ingenuity and dexterity, than hard labour. Another author rightly obſerves, that they have generally quick and ready apprehenſions, but too often run away with a ſuperficial knowledge of things, not having patience to dive to the bottom of them: they are much commended by ſome for their hoſpitality to ſtrangers, but I am really at a loſs to diſcover wherein it conſiſts, unleſs it be in formal compliments and ceremony, which they are ready enough to afford foreigners, or one another, but are not much given to make entertainments, or relieve the diſtreſſed; our refugees ſcarce meet with ſo good entertainment there, as the French do here. They are more extravagant in their dreſs, than in eating and drinking: it has been obſerved in Flanders, that a French officer covered with gold lace ſhall dine upon a roll and a few raiſins, or perhaps a diſh of ſoop and herbs, when an Engliſh officer of the ſame rank ſhall ſpend three or four ſhillings at and ordinary; and this brings me to enquire into their diet. It is very certain that the French do not eat that quantity of fleſh that we do, nor do they often dreſs it in the ſame manner; ſoops, fricaſſees, ragouts and haſhes, diſguiſed with onions, herbs, and ſpices, are preferred before whole joints boiled or roaſted, and what they do boil or roaſt, has ſcarce a drop of gravy left in it; they chuſe to hang up their meat alſo before it is dreſſed, till it is ſo very tender, that an Engliſhman would think it fit for nothing but the dunghill, and were it not for the high ſeaſoning and herbs they uſe with it, would ſcarce be eatable: but if the French eat leſs meat than we do, they are perfect devourers of bread, of which they uſually eat twice the quantity, and their bread is generally exceeding light and good.

Their diet.

They have alſo a great variety of wines which are their ordinary drink, and are ſuppoſed to contribute to that ſprightlineſs and vivacity, ſo conſpicuous in the French; thoſe people that uſe malt liquors, and eat great quantities of fleſh, may well be ſuppoſed to be heavier and ſlower of apprehenſion, tho' they may be of a larger ſize and better fitted for laborious employments: cyder is pretty much drank in the northern provinces of France, which yield little or no wine; and we are not to imagine that they commonly drink in the other parts of France, ſuch good old generous wines as they tranſport abroad: no, they content themſelves uſually with thoſe poor thin wines which will not keep, and are but a degree better than cyder, and ſend their beſt to market; inſomuch that it is the opinion of many, that there is more good old wine drank in London, if we may take Portugal and Spaniſh wines into the account, than there is in Paris. It is within our memory that port bore an equal price with French wine here, nor was the ordinary French valued without a mixture of port, or ſome ſuch ſtrong wine; it was the high duty laid upon it that contributed chiefly to that mighty eſteem we have for it at this day; the vanity alſo of being able to drink a wine that our neighbours pockets can't reach, may have had ſome ſhare in the ſetting ſuch an unreaſonable value upon it. A native of France tells me, that they have ſeveral ſorts of wine that will not bear the bringing over, and muſt be drank at ſuch certain ſeaſons, or they are good for nothing, a month ſooner or later makes a great alteration in them; but I ſhall have occaſion to treat farther of their wines when I come to enquire into the produce of the country. I proceed now in the character of the people. It is obſerved that they allow their women all imaginable freedoms, and are ſeldom troubled with jealouſy; a Frenchman will ſuffer you almoſt to court his wife before his face, and will even take it amiſs if you do not admire her perſon; and by the freedom the lady takes in company, it is difficult ſometimes to diſtinguiſh which is the huſband and which is the ſtranger; nor are they much ſurprized if you find them doing the offices of nature; an Engliſh woman would ſneak and put herſelf to great inconveniencies, rather than a man ſhould ſee her going towards the place where thoſe things are uſually done; whereas a French woman would not be out of countenance, or avoid you if ſhe was actually about it; and to ſay no more of them on this head, all that have had any converſation with them muſt allow, that they are not the cleanlieſt people in the world.

Their women.

A litigious people.

Another obſervation made of the French is, that they are a very litigious people, and ready to commence a ſuit of law upon every trifle. Some have carried it ſo far as to ſay, there are more lawyers and law-ſuits in France, than in all the kingdoms

Given to duelling.

doms of Europe, and theſe indeed find buſineſs for the ſeveral parliaments of the kingdom, who are the laſt reſort in civil cauſes where the crown does not think fit to interpoſe. Another inſtance of their peeviſh querulous temper is, their being ſo much addicted to duelling, which coſt LEWIS XIV. more pains to break them of, than any one tranſaction of his reign. This was really a noble attempt, and reflects true glory on that monarch, and is a thing that could never have been effected but by a deſpotick prince, who would admit of no evaſions of his decrees. Whatever ſtated laws are made may be eluded, but if this Prince or his judges believed the party guilty but of deſigning or intending a challenge, they were ſure to be puniſhed with the loſs of their lives and eſtates, and conſequently the entire ruin of their families: not that I am an admirer of ſuch arbitrary proceedings, but am obſerving that it would have been exceeding difficult to ſuppreſs this itch of duelling, in a government where the judges were not veſted with ſuch arbitrary powers. We ſee amongſt our ſelves that the pretence of a ſudden quarrel, and the fact being done in the heat of blood, renders all our laws ineffectual againſt this ſpecies of murder: if a formal ſettled malice is not proved beforehand, or there be not ſome extraordinary aggravations of the offence, the criminal ever eſcapes.

Eſteemed good ſubjects.

The French are commended much for their ready obedience to their governors, and the uncommon veneration they pay their prince; but very late hiſtories will inform us it was not always thus, rebellions and civil wars have been as frequent in France as in any other country, while the people had any thing left to contend with the crown for; but now as the king is entirely maſter of their fortunes, and diſpenſes to them all temporal bleſſings, no wonder that they adore him as a god; upon his frowns or ſmiles their happineſs or miſery depends. They have the name of eſtates and poſſeſſions, but are really no more than tenants at will, vaſſals and factors for him. Their lands are taxed at that rate, that they will ſcarce afford the proprietor a ſubſiſtence who has not a place: and it is true, there is ſcarce a conſiderable family in the kingdom that has not ſome preferment in the church, the court, or the army, which are all in a manner in the diſpoſal of the crown, and conſequently the ſureſt way to advance their fortunes is, by expreſſing an unlimited devotion for their Prince. In Ruſſia they ſay, God and the Great Duke knows every thing, and does every thing; and ſo it is in France, God and the Prince are equally adored, as the ſubjects look upon themſelves to be equally in their power. What would all their ſtruggling for their ancient privileges avail them now, againſt ſuch numerous armies of regular troops paid with their own money? They have neither forces or treaſure to oppoſe againſt them; it is their wiſdom therefore to make a virtue of neceſſity, and pretend to be contented with what they cannot remedy: nay, they do well to ſeem to be moved by a principle of love and affection for their Prince, becauſe on his approbation depends their own and their families welfare.

It is obſerved of the nobility and gentry of France, that they never apply themſelves to trade or merchandize, and that they loſe their quality whenever they do; but if this was not the caſe, it is no wonder that they decline this way of making their fortunes, when there are ſo many other more ſuitable to their genius. A French gentleman ſeems naturally cut out for a courtier or an officer, and if he happens to be of a melancholy diſpoſition, or a man of letters, here are always convents and numerous preferments to be met with in the church; and the court having given great encouragement the laſt hundred years to the liberal arts, France has produced many learned men in moſt arts and ſciences: for tho' people may be inclin'd themſelves to ingenious ſtudies, they ſeldom make thoſe advances as when they are morally ſure their labours will be rewarded with honours and preferments.

Military virtues.

As to their military virtues, it muſt be acknowledged that the French have brought the art of war to great perfection; there are no people who attack or defend a place better than they do, or are better verſed in fortification: their horſe alſo, eſpecially their gendarmerie, were deſervedly eſteemed as good as any troops in Europe, till the battle at Hockſtet, when they were miſerably broke: by the continuance of a long war they had taught their enemies to equal them, if not ſurpaſs them. There is no wonder that the French had ſome advantage of us in the beginning of the war, their King having during a long reign made it his buſineſs to eſtabliſh a good body of horſe, and the nobility and gentry of France being fond of this ſervice, and perpetually qualifying themſelves for it; and it was to his ſuperiority in cavalry, that his ſucceſſes at the beginning of the war were principally owing. Their foot are alſo exceeding well diſciplined, but unleſs they were aſſiſted by Swiſs or Bavarians, they were liable to be born down by the weight of the Dutch and German infantry, who are generally much larger bodies of men, for which reaſon they were ſeldom ſucceſsful where they had not a ſuperiority in point of number, after the confederates came to be equally diſciplin'd: for to ſuppoſe that the courage of the French or the confederates gave them any advantage over their enemies is very idle; war is become a trade, and any people who have been ſeven years in conſtant ſervice will be good ſoldiers: if there be any advantages to be expected, it muſt be from the conduct of the general, or the weight and ſuperiority of his troops; horſes and men of a ſmall ſize will never be a match for thoſe of a larger bulk, and that ſide which hath the greateſt weight and numbers, will infallibly carry their point, if there be not a very great diſparity in the ſkill and conduct of the generals. It was indeed a profane ſaying of LUXEMBURGH, that give him a ſuperiority of ten thouſand men, and he would give providence leave to take the enemies ſide; but this we may ſay in regard to the courage of any people, that let the contrary party out-number them by ten thouſand men in an hundred thouſand, and they will run a great hazard of being defeated, let their natural or acquired courage be never ſo great.

Their exerciſes and diverſions.

As to their exerciſes, there are few French gentlemen that do not learn to dance, to fence, and ride the great horſe; hunting alſo after their way is pretty much uſed, but we muſt not think they often ride a fox chaſe: when a French gentleman goes a hunting, he equips himſelf with a heavy pair of jack-boots, a huge war ſaddle, and a monſtrous curb bridle, that you would think he was going to charge an enemy, rather than ride after a timorous hare or deer, but theſe gentlemen go rather to ſee the game killed than hunted; this is the buſineſs of the huntſmen, who only call their Lords to ſee the game deſtroyed, which they have brought into the toils, or direct them to proper ſtations where they may take a view of the chaſe now and then. Their other diverſions are much the ſame with ours, or rather we have introduced almoſt every French game amongſt us, we follow them as cloſely here, as we do in the faſhion of our clothes; nothing will go down with us that is not French, and therefore it is perfectly unneceſſary to inlarge upon this head. I proceed in the next place to a deſcription of the ſeveral provinces.

CHAP. III.

Shews the ſeveral provinces, or general governments the kingdom of France is divided into, and treats particularly of the government of Paris.

General diviſion of France.

FRANCE, when the three eſtates of the kingdom, the clergy, nobility and commons uſed to aſſemble in parliament, and give their conſent to ſuch laws as were enacted, was divided into twelve provinces, from whence they uſed to be ſummoned, viz. from Normandy, Picardy, the Iſle of France, Champagne, Bretagne, Orleanois, Burgundy, Lyonois, Guienne, Languedoc, Dauphine and Provence: but theſe parliaments having been diſcontinued ever ſince 1614, there is now no foundation for this diviſion. The kingdom is at preſent actually divided into thirty-ſix provinces, or general governments, which ordinarily go under the name of generalities, viz. 1. The general government of Paris. 2. Of the iſle of France. 3. Picardy. 4. Champagne. 5. Burgundy. 6. Dauphiné. 7. Provence. 8. Languedoc. 9. The government Du Foix. 10. Navarre and Bearne. 11. Guyenne and Gaſcony. 12. Saintonge and Angomois. 13. D'Aums. 14. Poitou. 15. Bretagne. 16. Normandy. 17. Havre de Grace. 18. Du Maine and Perche. 19. Orleanois. 20. Nivernois. 21. Bourbonois. 22. Lyonois. 23. D'Auvergne. 24. Du Limoſin. 25. De la Marche. 26. The government of Berry. 27. Touraine. 28. Anjou. 29. Saumur. 30. Flanders. 31. Dunkirk. 32. Metz and Verdun. 33. Toul. 34. Alſace. 25. Franche Compte. And, 36. Rouſſillon. Theſe I ſhall endeavour to deſcribe in their order; but becauſe the limits of the governments of Paris and the iſle of France are not exactly ſettled by any of their writers, I ſhall throw them both together.

36 general governments.

The Iſle of France.

The iſle of France, ſo named from its being encompaſſed with rivers, is bounded by Picardy on the north, by Champagne on the eaſt, by la Beauſſe and Orleanois on the ſouth, and by Normandy on the weſt, and is near fifty French leagues in length, and about as much in breadth, and is divided into the following diſtricts, viz. 1. The iſle of France proper, or the Pariſis. 2. La Brie Francoiſe. 3. Le Hurepois. 4. The Beauvaiſis. 5. The Valois. 6. The Soiſſonois. 7. The Laonnois. 8. The Noyonois. 9. The Vexin Francoiſe. 10. The Gatenois. 11. The Mantois; and 12. The county of Senlis. And the principal rivers are the Seine, the Marne, and the Oiſe.

Subdivided.

The Iſle of France proper.

The Iſle of France properly ſo called, in which Paris ſtands, is not above fifteen French leagues in length, and nine in breadth; this diſtrict alone was anciently called France, and afterwards communicated its name to the whole monarchy; the moſt remarkable places in it are, 1. Paris. 2. The foreſt of Vincennes. 3. Montmorency. 4. Dammartin. 5. Charenton; and 6. St. Dennis.

Chief places.

Paris city, the name.

The city of Paris was anciently called Lutetia, from its miry ſituation according to moſt writers, but this etymology ſome modern French authors ſeem very much aſhamed of, they cannot conceive that the metropolis of this glorious kingdom ſhould ever have ſo filthy an epithet belonging to it as dirty, the *dirty* town: they object, that it was called Lutetia before the time of the Romans, and that it is ſtrange, the Gauls, who were unacquainted with their language, ſhould give it a Roman name; but ſtill they do not give any other account of the original of the name which is more ſatisfactory. However certain it is, that this town being the capital of a people, called Pariſiens, at the time it was conquered by the Romans, from them afterwards obtained the modern name of Paris, but took up no more ground then than the little iſlands encloſed by the branches of the Seine, which is ſcarce a twentieth part of the whole town at this day. But to proceed; modern Paris is of a circular form, encompaſſed with a wall, and divided by the river Seine, almoſt into two equal parts, being ſituated in 48 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, two degrees ſome odd minutes to the eaſtward of London, from which it is about two hundred miles diſtant, an hundred and twenty-eight to the ſouthward of Calais, near ſix hundred north-eaſt of Madrid, and as much to the weſtward of Vienna, and about ſeven hundred miles north-weſt of Rome.

The form and ſituation.

General diviſion of the city.

Thoſe who deſcribe this city, uſually divide it into three principal parts. 1. The town, which is the largeſt, ſituate on the north-ſide the river, containing the ſuburbs of St. Anthony, the temples St. Martin and St. Dennis, with the palaces of the Louvre, the Tuilleries, the royal palace, the place royal, the Baſtile, and the arſenal. 2. The city, which is much the leaſt, but the moſt ancient, conſiſting of three little iſlands in the middle of the Seine, called the Palais, the iſle of Notre Dame, and the Louviers, which have a communication with the reſt of the town, and with each other by ſeveral bridges. And, 3. The univerſity, which lies on the ſouth-ſide of the river, and comprehends beſides the colleges, the ſuburbs of St. Germains, St. Michael, St. James, St. Marcellus, and St. Victor: and theſe, as well as thoſe on the other ſide the water, are denominated ſuburbs, not becauſe they are without the preſent walls, but becauſe they were all built ſince that part of the town which ſtands upon the little iſlands and the river, and is ſtill called by way of eminence the city. I ſhall take an opportunity to obſerve farther, that all that part of the town, which ſtands on the north-ſide of the river, and to which the name of Town is appropriated, lies upon a perfect flat, and was heretofore a moraſs; the city alſo lies low, but that part which lies on the ſouth-ſide of the river, and has obtained the name of the Univerſity, has ſeveral riſing grounds and eminencies in it. The air of Paris is ſomething groſs, but generally eſteemed healthful; the hills, which lie to the ſouthward, abound in pleaſant ſprings, and the adjacent country is full of ſtone quarries, from whence they fetch their materials for building; and there are ſome pleaſant groves on the banks of the Seine and Marne. The hills in the neighbouring country alſo afford excellent wine, as the plains to the ſouthward do corn: all the country about Paris is watered with innumerable little ſtreams, which fall into the Seine and Marne; and ſeveral of their ſprings are medicinal. Having thus given a pretty exact deſcription of the ſituation of Paris, I ſhall next proceed to give an account of the quarters it is at

The air and country about it.

preſent divided into, and of the moſt celebrated palaces and publick buildings in them. About the year 1702, there paſſed an act of their council of ſtate, for dividing the whole town into twenty ſeveral quarters or wards, as follows, viz.

Paris divided into 20 wards, or quarters.

1. The city, containing fifty-three ſtreets, 2. St. James's of the ſhambles, containing fifty-five ſtreets. 3. St. Oportune, thirty-four ſtreets. 5. The Louvre quarter, comprehending St. Germain, l'Auxerrois, and containing twenty-five ſtreets. 5. That of the palace royal, or St. Honorius, containing forty-nine ſtreets. 6. Mont Martre, containing forty-one ſtreets. 7. St. Euſtace, containing twenty-nine ſtreets. 8. The halls, containing twenty-ſeven ſtreets 9. St. Dennis, containing fifty five ſtreets. 10. St. Martin's, containing fifty-four ſtreets. 11. The Greve, containing thirty-eight ſtreets. 12. St. Paul's, or the Mortellerie, containing twenty-ſeven ſtreets. 13. St. Avoye, or the Verrerie, containing nineteen ſtreets. 14. The temples, or Du Marais, containing fifty-two ſtreets, 15. St. Antony's, containing ſixty-eights ſtreets. 16. The place Maubert, containing eighty-one ſtreets. 17. St. Bennet's, containing ſixty ſtreets. 18. St. Andrew's, containing fifty-one ſtreets. 12. The quarter of Luxemburg, containing ſixty-two ſtreets. And, 20. St. Germains de Prez, containing fifty-five ſtreets.

Of the extent of Paris, and the numbers in it.

According to the author of the late deſcription of Paris, written in French, the whole town is about two common French leagues in the diameter, and ſix in the circumference; but notwithſtanding moſt of the French writers boaſt, that it takes up more ground than any town in Europe, and eſpecially London, all foreigners who have viewed both, and ſome of their own authors, do agree, that it is not ſo large as London. And it is eaſily demonſtrated, that it is not ſo populous from the bills of mortality of each city, thoſe of London exceeding the other one third uſually: and though it be objected, that we take in ſome of the adjacent villages about London into the weekly bills; it is certain, that theſe are not equivalent to the numbers which belong to the ſhipping, and are annually ſent from London to the plantations, and other foreign countries who die abroad: and it being generally agreed, that London is one of the moſt healthful towns in the world, it cannot be ſuppoſed, that there die greater numbers in proportion here, than there do in Paris; therefore, when the French writers talk of their being eight or nine hundred thouſand ſouls in Paris, they are certainly under a very great miſtake, the bills of mortality in London ſeldom amount to more in one year than ſeven or eight and twenty thouſand people of both ſexes, and ſuppoſing that one in thirty dies, which is the general eſtimate, as one in forty is for country places, and we multiply 28 by 30000, this makes but eight hundred and forty thouſand. And as the bills at Paris are at leaſt a third leſs, if we allow there are ſix hundred thouſand ſouls in that city, we certainly over-do it: notwithſtanding which, the French author above cited ſays, he can bodly affirm, that the city of Paris contains more inhabitants than any city in Europe, and that they amount to eight hundred thouſand at leaſt. Nay, before the late war, and the famine which happened in the year 1709, that they amounted to an hundred and fifty thouſand more. He ſupports his aſſertion by another calculation, perhaps as wide as this; namely, the numbers of oxen, ſheep, and other animals conſumed annually in this city, telling us, that they do not kill leſs than ſeventy thouſand oxen, ſeven hundred thouſand ſheep, &c. but this is a very uncertain way of computing, for an ox or ſheep of one country, may be three times as large as thoſe of another. We find here, that thoſe of Lincolnſhire far exceed the cattle of Wales and Scotland; and ſo no doubt they do the cattle in many of the provinces of France. He adds, that they uſe no leſs than twenty thouſand coaches, and an hundred thouſand horſes; and yet gentlemen who have viſited Paris, don't obſerve that there appear to be more there, than there are in London; and I believe every body, at firſt view, muſt admit, that this would be a very extravagant eſtimate even for London. He tells us farther, that there are twenty-four thouſand houſes in Paris, that they are generally ſeven or eight ſtories high, and filled from top to bottom, there being frequently ſeveral families in one houſe: now, if we allow, that there are one with another four families in every houſe, and ſix people in every family, that is, twenty-four in each houſe, which is a very large allowance, the number of inhabitants will not this way (multiplying 24000 by 24) amount to more than five hundred and ſeventy-ſix thouſand men: but tho' ſome of the meaner tradeſmens houſes may be crouded with ſeveral families, it is to be obſerved, that the royal palaces, noblemens houſes, colleges and monaſteries, with the gardens belonging to them, take up a conſiderable part of Paris, and the inhabitants in theſe parts are but very thin. Can any one think, that when all the ſpace between Temple-bar and Weſtminſter was taken up with noblemens houſes, gardens and monaſteries, there were a fortieth part of the inhabitants there are now in the Strand, and the adjacent ſtreets which have been built in the room of them? And this is the caſe at Paris at this day, there is ſcarce a French nobleman but has his hotel and gardens in that city, which take up an extent of ground equal to ſome ſtreets; beſides the royal palaces of the Louvre, and others, which may be ſome miles in circumference; ſo that put all things together, I believe it will be eaſily admitted, that Paris is neither ſo large or ſo populous as London is. I might obſerve farther, the vaſt reſort of ſhips to the port of London, which Paris wants, that muſt contribute to fill our ſtreets and houſes with people; but whether London or Paris be the largeſt or the fineſt city, I muſt confeſs is not worth while to contend; much leſs would a writer render his veracity ſuſpected, by making untrue or extravagant calculations in favour of his native place: it is ſchool-boy like, thus to be ever magnifying the town or ſociety we happen to be of, and deſpiſing every thing that is foreign. By the encomiums the French are ever giving their country and their prince, they would have us I preſume applaud their happineſs, and imagine, that ſome uncommon privileges are derived to them beyond the reſt of mankind: but ſome will be apt to retort upon them; if this be true, how come we to find ſo many of you in all the kingdoms of Europe, who voluntarily baniſh yourſelves from this deſirable place? Thoſe who are forced out of France on account of religion, are not ſo many as thoſe who leave it out of pure neceſſity and want, and who are content to ſubmit to a ſtate of ſervitude in Spain, Italy, Germany, England and Holland, in popiſh as well as proteſtant countries, rather than remain in your own, which you have repreſented in ſuch beautiful colours, ſuitable to the inſcription on the Louvre;

Non orbis gentem, non urbem gens habet ullam,
Urbſve domum, dominum nec domus ulla parem.

The buildings of Paris.

The houſes in Paris are generally built of hewn ſtone, five or ſix ſtories high, with ſaſh windows; there are abundance of ſpacious ſtreets and ſquares in it, and the royal palaces and thoſe of the nobility are many of them exquiſite pieces of architecture, much beyond any thing we can pretend to in or about London: but then they have no ſtreets of tradeſmen, which make an appearance comparable to thoſe of Cornhill, Cheapſide, Fleet-ſtreet, and the Strand, for near two miles together; and tho' ſome of their writers have been ſo vain to boaſt of the rich merchants that are found in Paris, I may modeſtly ſay, there are many more to be met with in London; that our rich companies and banks are not to be parallelled there. And laſtly, which I am very ſorry to obſerve, the taxes raiſed in London, tho' our government is not commonly thought arbitrary, I doubt exceed thoſe of Paris, if we reckon the cuſtoms, exciſe, land-tax, &c. And I am informed, that Paris does not pay leſs than three millions ſterling per annum to the crown. But to be a little more particular, the things which beſt deſerve a traveller's attention at Paris, are, their palaces, their churches and abbies, their univerſity, academies, libraries, hoſpitals, ſquares, ſtatues, gates and bridges.

Palaces in Paris.

The royal palaces are four in number. 1. The old palace which gives name to the iſland on which that quarter of the town ſtands, which is called the city. 2. The Louvre. 3. The Tuilleries. 4. The palace royal; to which I ſhall add the palace of Luxemburg or Orleans, the Baſtile, and the Hotel de Ville or town-houſe, tho' not properly royal palaces.

The old palace.

1. The palace ſituate at the eaſt end of the iſland of that name, which was the conſtant reſidence of the Kings of France, till the reign of Lewis XII. who aſſigned it to the uſe of the parliament and courts of juſtice; it is a ſpacious old edifice, particularly the great hall, which is arched with ſtone, and ſupported with pillars, and ſerves like Weſtminſter-hall for a kind of Exchange, where milliners, perfumers, bookſellers, &c. keep their ſhops, as well as to accommodate the courts of juſtice. The great chamber of this palace is the place where the King holds his bed of juſtice, as it is called, and the Peers of France have their ſeſſion; here alſo are the court of requeſts, the court of aids, &c.

The Louvre.

2. The Louvre, ſaid to have been anciently a hunting-ſeat of the Kings of France, ſtanding then out of the town, and the wolf being their principal game, from thence obtained the name of Lupara, and afterwards by corruption that of Louvre, according to the French writers: it is ſituated in that part of Paris called the town, on the north-weſt bank of the river Seine, but was never finiſhed according to the original deſign, conſiſting at preſent only of two piles of building three ſtories high, the firſt adorned with the Corinthian order, the ſecond with the Compoſite, and the third with the Attick. Lewis XIII. finiſhed the weſt front, and built a large pavilion in form of a dome, in the middle over the gate, which is ſupported by two rows of large pillars of the Ionick order. Lewis XIV. expended immenſe ſums on the eaſt front, in the middle whereof is the principal gate of the palace, being in length fourſcore and ſeven toiſes and an half, or a hundred and ſeventy-five yards; the beauty of the architecture, ſculpture, incruſtations of marble, paintings, and other rich ornaments, ſays an Engliſh gentleman who viewed it, are ſurpriſing, and had it been finiſhed according to its firſt deſign, would have been one of the moſt glorious palaces in the world; but this it is never like to be, now Verſailles is built, whither moſt of the fine ſtatues and paintings which adorned the Louvre have been carried. The reader may form a tolerable idea of the eaſt front of this celebrated palace, if he has ever ſeen the hoſpital of Bethlehem in London, which was built after the ſame model, tho' it falls much ſhort of it in the value of the materials and ornaments, as well as in the ſituation, the Louvre ſtanding on the banks of a fine river.

The Tuilleries.

The Tuilleries is another fine palace, or as ſome will have it part of the Louvre, becauſe it is joined to it by a long gallery, which fronts the river Seine, and ſtands within that circuit of ground that was at firſt laid out for the Louvre. The front of the Tuilleries is an hundred and ſixty-eight toiſes and an half in length, or twice ſo many yards, having four great ſquare pavilions, with pillars of the Compoſite order, and a fifth pavilion covered with a dome in the middle, under which is the great hall and ſtair-caſe, which leads to the apartments. It was begun by Catharine de Medicis, and finiſhed by Lewis XIV. having on one ſide three fine courts, and on the other beautiful gardens, which, if completed according to the firſt deſign, it is ſaid, would fall little ſhort of thoſe of Verſailles; and here it is the quality walk in fine evenings, as they do in the Mall at London. The terrace, which runs parallel to the river, is eſteemed one of the greateſt ornaments to theſe gardens, being two hundred and eighty-ſix toiſes long, and fourteen broad, and planted with trees, from whence there is an admirable proſpect both of the town, the river, and the adjacent country: the long gallery is alſo much admired, which runs from the Louvre to the Tuilleries, being two hundred and twenty-ſeven toiſes long, and four toiſes five feet broad, in which the painting and ſculpture is admirable. Under this gallery is the royal printing-houſe, and the apartments of ſeveral ingenious artificers, employed and encouraged by the crown, as engravers, painters, watch-makers, goldſmiths, cabinet-makers, &c.

The Palace Royal.

The Palace Royal ſtands not far from the Louvre, having been built by Cardinal Richlieu, and given by him to Lewis XIII. in his life-time, on condition it ſhould never be alienated from the crown; it conſiſts of ſeveral large piles of buildings, ſeparated from each other by ſpacious courts, of which the two largeſt are in the middle, the outſide makes no great ſhew, but is exceeding plain, tho' the apartments within are very noble. It is ſaid, the Cardinal avoided the making too great an appearance without, leſt it ſhould create him the envy of the nobility; and as it was, he thought it his wiſeſt way to make a gift of it to the crown at laſt. What is moſt admired in this palace is a gallery, wherein moſt of the illuſtrious perſonages that France has produced, are drawn by the greateſt hands. The gardens are ſmall, but admirably well deſigned.

Luxemburg palace.

The palace of Orleans, generally called the palace of Luxemburg, from its being erected on the ruins of the Hotel de Luxemburg, is ſituated on an eminence in that part of the town called the Univerſity, and was built by Queen MARY of Medicis, the dowager of HENRY IV. who laid the foundations of it about the year 1615, and having finiſhed it in ſix years, left it by her laſt will to her ſecond ſon JOHN GASTON, Duke of Orleans. This palace conſiſts of one large court, at the end whereof is the principal building, having five pavilions or advanced works, two at each end, and one in the middle; in the laſt whereof is the ſtair-caſe and paſſage to the garden, and before it is a terrace the whole breadth of the court paved with marble. The outward building, by which we enter the court, conſiſts of an open gallery or terrace, with a pavilion in the middle covered by a dome, adorned with pillars and ſtatues, and at the end of each gallery on the right and left, is a large ſquare pavilion which jetts out, and is advanced beyond the reſt of the front: the court is terminated on the right and left with galleries and piazza's, both fronts of the principal building are adorned with double pilaſters. The orders obſerved chiefly here, are the Tuſcan and the Dorick with the Attick above them; and they have alſo added the Ionick to the pavilions, which renders them more lofty than the reſt. But there is nothing more admired in this palace than the great gallery on the right, painted by the celebrated RUBENS; containing the hiſtory of MARY of Medicis, from her nativity to her death, in twenty large pieces, ten foot in height each, and placed between the windows.

The Baſtile.

The Baſtile is an antique fortification, conſiſting of an ordinary wall and eight towers, encompaſſed with a ditch, and ſerves chiefly at preſent for the confinement of ſtate priſoners; near it is the Arſenal, furniſhed with arms and old armour, not unlike the armoury in the Tower of London.

The town-houſe.

Their town-houſe or guild-hall makes no great appearance; it ſtands upon the Greve, a void ſpace by the river-ſide, where the people aſſemble on feſtivals and rejoicing days; and here alſo criminals are executed.

Notre Dame cathedral.

The great church or cathedral of Notre Dame, is ſituated on a little iſland of the Seine, to which it communicates its name, and is joined to the larger iſland of La Palais and the reſt of the town by ſeveral bridges. The church is a majeſtick old Gothick ſtructure, ſixty-five toiſes or fathoms long, and four and twenty broad, and its height ſeventeen toiſes or fathoms: it is ſupported by an hundred and twenty large pillars, and the front admired for its ſculpture, on which are the ſtatues of eight and twenty of their Kings; the laſt being that of PHILIP AUGUSTUS. Here are forty-five chapels built without, but opening into the body of the church, and two ſquare towers in the front thirty-two toiſes in height, with galleries about them on the outſide. But the greateſt curioſity in this church, is the high altar, begun by LEWIS XIII. and finiſhed by LEWIS XIV. compoſed of the fineſt Egyptian marble: at the upper end of the choir where the altar ſtands, is an image of the virgin, in a ſitting poſture, at the foot of the croſs, with a dead Chriſt upon her knees. On the right hand is the figure of LEWIS XII. upon his knees, cloathed in his royal robes, offering his crown and ſcepter to the virgin; and on the other LEWIS XIV. in the ſame poſture. Six angels guilt, large as the life, carrying the ſeveral inſtruments of our Saviour's paſſion, are placed three on each ſide. The principal altar ſtands a little farther advanced in the middle of the ſanctuary, an angel of a large ſize in the poſture of adoration being placed without the rails at each end of it: the whole choir is beautified in an extraordinary manner, ſcarce inferior in the richneſs of the materials, the carving or workmanſhip, to any in Italy. The other churches and chapels in Paris, which make the beſt figure, belong generally to the abbies and convents, as the church belonging to the abby of St. Genevive, that belonging to the ancient abby of St. Germain, and the church in the nunnery of Val de Grace, founded by Queen ANNE, upon the miraculous birth, as it is called, of LEWIS XIV. after ſhe had been married two and twenty years without children. The cupola and high altar here are mightily admired, but nothing renders it more remarkable than the inſcription over the portal, viz. *Jeſu naſcenti Virginique matri*: To the infant JESUS, and to his virgin mother.

The univerſity.

Colleges.

The univerſity, which gives name to that part of the town that is ſituated on the ſouth-ſide the river Seine, the Pariſians pretend is one of the moſt ancient in Europe, and that it formerly conſiſted of an hundred colleges, though there are but fifty-four houſes at preſent that bear that name, and of theſe not more than ten where exerciſes are performed; theſe are the colleges of, 1. Navarre. 2. Du Pleſſis, which prepares the ſtudents for the Sorbonne. 3. The college of Harcourt. 4. The college of Beavois. 5. The college of the Cardinal Moine. 6. The college De la March. 7. The college de Liſieux. 8. The college de Montagu. 9. The college de Graſſins. And, 10. The college of the four nations. It is needleſs, ſays my French author, to name the reſt, where no lectures are read: in this univerſity are profeſſed divinity, law, phyſick, and the liberal arts, comprehending humanity, languages and philoſophy: the Sorbonne and the college of Navarre, are appropriated chiefly to divinity; the ſchools for law are in the college of Cambray, and in the ſtreet Beavais; and the phyſicians have a noble anatomical theatre in the ſtreet de Boucherie, and a hall where they read lectures. The Sorbonne, eſteemed one of the fineſt colleges in Europe, not only on account of its buildings, but the learned doctors who inhabit it, received its name from ROBERT de Sorbonne its founder, and made but a very mean appearance till Cardinal RICHLIEU rebuilt and beautified it; the church is a very elegant ſtructure, having this inſcription over the portal, viz. DEO OPT. MAX. ARMANDVS CARDINALIS DE RICHLIEV. It has a dome and four towers, and on the ſide of the court next the houſe, is a handſome portico aſcended by ſixteen ſteps, where we read another inſcription, viz. *Armandus Joannes, Card. Dux de Richlieu, Sorbonæ Proviſor, ædificavit domum & exultavit templum ſanctum Domino 1642.* The inſide of the church is adorned with pilaſters of the Corinthian order, between which are niches filled with ſtatues of angels and apoſtles; the dome is finely painted, and the high altar adorned with ſix marble pillars of the Corinthian order; their baſes and chapiters braſs gilt, and on it a fine crucifix of white marble is placed, eſteemed an admirable piece of workmanſhip. The tomb of the Cardinal is in the middle of the choir, on which he is repreſented in an almoſt cumbent poſture, ſupported by religion, and the afflicted ſciences weeping at his feet: the library is a handſome fabrick, extremely well furniſhed with manuſcripts as well as printed books, having the Cardinal's dinal's picture at one end of the room, and his buſt in braſs at the other, the fathers and ſchool-divines are regularly placed one after another, with their reſpective annotators under them; the college contains apartments for thirty-ſix doctors, thoſe who are admitted amongſt them before they have obtained their doctor's degree, are only ſaid to be of the hoſpitality of Sorbon, and not of the ſociety; ſuch is the reputation of this college, that the whole univerſity is ſometimes denominated the Sorbon. After the ſtudents have attended publick lectures three years, they are qualified for the degree of batchelors, and wear lambſkins and tippets two years; afterwards they are advanced to the degree of licentiates, when they are generally made opponents to thoſe who come for their doctor's degree; tranſubſtantiation, the trinity and incarnation, are frequently the topicks they diſpute of; and in theſe debates my author obſerves, they take as much liberty almoſt as they would in proteſtant countries. The univerſity of Paris, according to their own writers, was founded about the latter end of the eleventh century, their firſt ſtatutes were inſtituted anno 1215, by Robert Corceon, legate of the holy ſee, in which there is no mention made of any other faculties, but arts, philoſophy and divinity. Innocent III. introduced the canon law about the year 1216. And it appears by a bull of Pope Gregory's, anno 1231, that there were phyſicians then members of this univerſity: canon law only was read in the univerſity till the laſt century, when lectures were inſtituted for the civil law, and the common law of the nation, their ſchools being firſt founded for the liberal arts only. The head of the univerſity, who is called rector, is always elected from that body, and never of the other faculties. He has the precedence in the univerſity of all perſons who are not princes of the blood; his habit of ceremony is a violet-coloured gown with a mantle of ermins; he is elected every three months. The faculty of arts is diſtributed among the four nations. 1. The nation of France. 2. The nation of Picardy. 3. The nation of Normandy. And, 4. The German nation, which comprehends all foreign nations, as German, Engliſh, Iriſh, Italian, &c. The head of each nation is called the procurator, and is of the rector's council, without whom he tranſacts nothing of conſequence. The uſual titles given to the four nations are, *Honoranda Gallorum Natio* for France; *Fideliſſima Picardorum Natio* for Picardy; *Veneranda Normanorum Natio* for that of Normandy; and *Conſtantiſſima Germanorum Natio* for that of Germany: the other three faculties alſo have their titles, as *Sacræ Theologiæ Facultas*, for that of divinity; *Conſultiſſima Decretorum Facultas*, for law; and *Saluberrima Medicorum Facultas*, for that of phyſick. Before a perſon is admitted a graduate in the univerſity of Paris, he ought to continue his ſtudies five years, namely, two in philoſophy, and three in divinity, law, or phyſick.

This univerſity had formerly civil juriſdiction, and if any of its members had committed a crime, he was not anſwerable for it in other courts; but the caſe is far otherwiſe now, they have loſt moſt of their privileges, and other colleges, academies and ſocieties for improving arts and ſciences, have been erected of late years by the royal licence and encouragement, in oppoſition as it were to the univerſity, which have no dependance on it; to which the univerſity made a ſtrenuous oppoſition, but could not prevent it.

The revenues of the univerſity which aroſe from a grant of the letter-office were reſumed by the government, and only a penſion of forty thouſand livres allowed to the ten colleges where exerciſes were held, till the year 1619, when the duke of Orleans by letters patent raiſed it to an hundred and twenty thouſand livres and upwards, which may amount to eleven thouſand pound per annum ſterling. But I do not perceive the colleges are endowed with any eſtate in lands, but lie wholly at the mercy of the government; and whenever the court have extraordinary occaſion for money again, probably the univerſity will have their penſion reduced. What contributes moſt to make arts flouriſh in this univerſity at preſent, is that emulation that is between them and the other colleges and academies ſet up againſt them, and an apprehenſion that they may one day be judged uſeleſs by the ſtate, if they do not exert their talents.

The college royal.

The colleges which have no dependance on the univerſity are, 1. The college royal, founded by Francis I. about the year 1531, for philoſophy, eloquence, mathematicks, phyſick, the eaſtern languages, &c. ſituate near the college of Cambray. 2. The Jeſuits college, on the front of which is written in capitals, *Collegium Ludovici Magni*; beſides which, the Jeſuits have another college or two, wherein they obſerve their own diſcipline; but the ſtudents cannot take their degrees, unleſs admitted of ſome college in the univerſity.

Jeſuits college.

Academies.

Their academies are, 1. The academy Francois, which was at firſt only a ſociety of ingenious men, who met once a week at their reſpective lodgings for converſation, who being encouraged by Cardinal Richlieu, attempted the improving and poliſhing the French language, and in 1635 the academy was eſtabliſhed by a royal edict; Lewis XIV. appointed them an apartment in the Louvre, for holding their aſſemblies.

The royal academy of ſciences was eſtabliſhed by Mr. Colbert, about the year 1666, and is compoſed of the moſt celebrated philoſophers, mathematicians, &c. for whoſe uſe the King built the royal obſervatory in St. James's ſuburb, their inſtitution being much of the ſame kind as that of the royal ſociety in London.

There was alſo a royal academy eſtabliſhed for painting and ſculpture by Lewis XIII. and another for architecture by Lewis XIV. and the Gobelins was erected by royal authority, wherein all mechanick arts are exerciſed and improved, as the manufacture of tapeſtry, moſaick work, wrought plate, hard ware, or works of iron, ſteel, copper or braſs, embroidery, &c.

Libraries.

The principal libraries in Paris are, 1. The royal library, containing according to the French account ſixteen thouſand volumes of valuable manuſcripts in the Oriental, Greek, Latin, French, and other living and dead languages; and about eighty thouſand printed volumes: and in the year 1720, it was ordered by an arret of the council of ſtate, that the books, medals, and rarities which were in the king's cabinet at the caſtle of Verſailles, ſhould be conveyed to Paris to be kept in his Majeſty's library there; that no book or medal ſhould be lent out on any pretence, but by the King's expreſs order; but that all perſons, as well foreigners as others, ſhould be admitted to peruſe the books, &c. and accommodated with conveniencies for their ſtudies.

The library of St. Victor, famous for its manuſcripts, and a great number of excellent books, is open to the publick three days in a week.

The library of Cardinal Mazarin alſo has been publick ever ſince the year 1688.

The library of M. Riponfonds, advocate of the parliament of Paris, was left to the order of advocates, on condition it ſhould be publick.

The library of the fathers of the chriſtian doctrine near the gate St. Marnel, has been made publick ſince the year 1718.

There are ſeveral other excellent libraries, which are only open to the reſpective ſocieties to which they belong, as the library of St. Martins in the Fields. the library of St. Genevive, that of the Sorbon, the Jeſuits, &c.

Hoſpitals

I come now to the hoſpitals of Paris, which are about thirty in number, ſome founded for poor old infirm perſons, ſome for foundlings, or children whoſe unhappy parents know not how to provide for them, whether legitimate or not; others for orphans, mad people, blind, vagrants, and incurables; of which the four chief are thoſe called, the Hoſpital General, the Hotel Dieu, the Hoſpital of Charity. and the Hotel Royal des Invalides. The Hoſpital General is a vaſt pile of building, containing ſix diſtinct houſes, one whereof is for poor old women and girls: another for poor families and foundling children, the others for poor women ſent hither to lie-in: beggars, vagrants, &c. in all the ſix, it is ſaid, there are frequently ten thouſand people who are made to work when they are well, and taken care of when they are ſick: it was finiſhed by Cardinal Mazarin, anno 1657. The Hotel Dieu is the moſt ancient hoſpital in Paris, and entertains all people who are brought thither, whether natives or foreigners; whereupon it is often too much crouded: the ſick are attended here by the nuns of St. Auſtin with great tenderneſs, and the danger and trouble of this office making it eſteemed meritorious here, the ladies of the firſt quality have ſometimes undertaken it; the Dutcheſs of Nemours being among theſe heroic ladies thus charitably employed, took the ſmall pox and died of it: the number uſually taken care of here amounts to about two thouſand.

In the Hoſpital of Charity, the friars of St. John perform the ſame offices as the nuns do in the former.

The Hotel Royal des Invalides, or the royal hoſpital for wounded and infirm ſoldiers, is much the moſt magnificent; it is compoſed of five handſom quadrangles built of hewn ſtone, of which the largeſt ſtands in the middle of the reſt, the ſquares being ſurrounded with piazzas and galleries above them make a very ſplendid appearance. In the refectories where the ſoldiers eat, are all the famous battles and ſieges painted which have been fought of late years; the apothecary's ſhop is extremely well contrived, and furniſhed with drugs, and the ſick are attended by the ſiſters of St. Lazarus. Our countryman Dr. Northleigh is of opinion, that Paris is the beſt ſchool in the world for young phyſicians and ſurgeons, on account of the freedom allowed to ſtrangers to be preſent at their operations performed in all their hoſpitals, the advantage of their chymical lectures, phyſick-garden, and frequent practice of anatomy. There are uſually entertained in the hoſpital of Invalides two hundred officers, and three thouſand common ſoldiers; the officers lie two in a chamber, and the private men ſix or ſeven in a room, but every one has a bed to himſelf, and may follow what buſineſs he thinks fit: they eat in common, but every man has his portion of meat ſerved up to him, and they are permitted to go out and negotiate their affairs two days in a week.

Phyſick-garden.

The Jardin Royal, or phyſick-garden, in the ſuburb of St. Marcel, is well ſtored with all kinds of plants, and committed to the care of one of the King's phyſicians, being maintained at his Majeſty's charge; and here botanick lectures are held during the beſt ſeaſon for plants: it is ſomething longer, but not broader than that of Oxford, there belongs to it alſo a good anatomy-ſchool well provided with ſkeletons. In the King's laboratory every body is admitted to ſee the operations; and the medicines made here are beſtowed on the poor.

The Obſervatory.

The Obſervatory already mentioned ſtands in St. James's ſuburb, and was built by Lewis XIV. for aſtronomical obſervations; it is a vaulted fabrick without either wood or iron work, three ſtories high, and you deſcend from it into a cave with little alleys two hundred ſteps, from whence one may ſee quite through the top of the houſe to the ſky: by this contrivance they propoſed to obſerve the motion of the ſtars in the day-time, but it does not anſwer expectation, no ſtars being ſeen from hence, for none they ſay paſs through the Zenith of Paris; but this defect might have been foreſeen by the learned, as my author obſerves, before they had given themſelves the trouble of digging this ſubterraneous apartment.

Places or ſquares.

As to the places or ſquares in Paris, ſome reckon up near fourſcore, of which the principal are, Le Place de Louis le Grand, or of conqueſt, Le Place de Victoires, Le Place Royal, the Greve, the Place Dauphine, and the Place Maubert; the ſquare called the Place of Lewis the Great, or des Conquêtes, is a large octogon, open towards the ſtreet of St. Honore, capable of containing ten thouſand men, and ſurrounded with glorious buildings; but the greateſt ornament is the fine equeſtrian ſtatue of the late King Lewis XIV. in the middle of it, twenty foot in height, and made of braſs, ſaid to be run at one caſt; it ſtands on a marble pedeſtal filled with inſcriptions, containing the great actions of this prince's reign.

The Place de Victoires is not of a great extent, but of an oval figure, and encompaſſed with uniform magnificent buildings; in the middle of it is an admirable ſtatue of the late King, braſs gilt, and thirteen feet in height, dreſſed in his robes, with a Victory ſtanding behind him of the ſame ſize and metal crowning him, and under his feet is a three-headed Cerberus: the whole was caſt at once, and weighs thirty thouſand pounds and upwards, exceeding, ſay the French, any thing that ever was done of this kind, either by the Greeks or Romans; under the ſtatue is that inſcription already mentioned: *Viro immortali*, to the immortal man. The pedeſtal is of white marble twenty foot high, having at the corners the figures of four ſlaves in braſs, much larger than the life: the pedeſtal alſo is adorned with baſs-reliefs and inſcriptions, ſhewing the moſt memorable events of his reign. This proud monument was erected by the Duke de la Feuillade, to his maſter's glory in the year 1686. The tenour of the grand inſcription is as follows, viz. *Ludovico Magno, Patri Exercituum & Ductori, ſemper Felici, domitis Hoſtibus, protectis Sociis, adjectis Imperio fortiſſimis populis, extructis ad Tutelam Finium firmiſſimis Arcibus. Oceano & Mediterraneo inter ſe junctis, prædari Vetitis toto mari piratis: Emendatis legibus. Deleta Calviniana Impietate; Compulſis ad Reveren-*

tiam Nominis Gentibus remotiſſimis, cunctiſque ſumma providentia & virtute domi foriſque compoſitis.—— Franciſcus Vicecomes Daubuſſon, Dux de la Feuillade, ex Franciæ paribus, Tribunus Equitum unus, in Allobrogibus Prorex, & prætorianorum peditum Præfectus, ad memoriam poſteritatis ſempiternam P. D. C. Engliſhed thus; To Lewis the great, the father, and always ſucceſsful leader of his armies, having ſubdued his enemies, protected his allies, added mighty people to his empire; built impregnable citadels to defend his frontiers; joined the Ocean and Mediterranean; cleared the ſea of pirates, reformed the laws, eradicated Calviniſtical impiety, compelled the remoteſt nations to revere his name, and ſettled all things at home and abroad by his great prudence and valour: Francis Viſcount Aubuſſon, Duke de la Feuillade, Peer of France, Colonel of horſe, Viceroy of Savoy, and Captain of the royal guards, to perpetuate his memory to poſterity, has erected, dedicated, and conſecrated this ſtatue.

The Place Royal.

The Place Royal is perfectly ſquare, and one of the largeſt in Paris, about the ſame dimenſions as Lincolns-inn-fields in London; it has a piazza on every ſide, and the buildings are magnificent and uniform; in the middle of it is an equeſtrian ſtatue of Lewis XIII. erected by Cardinal Richlieu, with ſeveral inſcriptions, expreſſing the moſt remarkable events of his reign.

The Greve.

The Place of the Greve, I have obſerved already, lies by the river ſide, and is the place where the people aſſemble on rejoicing days, and here alſo offenders are executed for capital crimes.

The Place Maubert.

The Place Maubert ſerves for the holding one of the greateſt markets in Paris, on Wedneſdays and Fridays weekly, and lies near the keys de Tournelle and St. Bernard.

The gates.

The principal gates are thoſe of St. Denis, St. Martin, St. Antony and St. Bernard, which are not unlike that of Temple-Bar in London.

The port of St. Denis.

The port of St. Denis was the deſign of the Sieur Blondel, maſter of mathematicks to the late Dauphin; it is ſeventy two foot broad and of the ſame height, being built after the model of an ancient triumphal arch; there are two little portals on the ſides of the great one, the largeſt is twenty four foot in height, and on it are baſs-reliefs, repreſenting the French armies paſſing the Rhine, Waal, &c. with the following Inſcription, viz.

Ludovico Magno quod Diebus vix ſexaginta Rhenum Wabalim Moſam Iſalam ſuperavit, ſubegit Provincias tres, cepit Urbes munitas quadraginta, Emendator male memori Batavorum gente. Præfectus & Ædiles P. CC. Anno Dom. M.DC.LXXII.

And indeed the rapidity of his conqueſts ſurprized all Europe, the Dutch were unprovided of forces, and quarrelling about a Stadtholder; ſome of their towns would not admit of the States troops to defend them, and others were probably corrupted with French money, inſomuch that many of them ſurrendered to the French King without giving him the trouble of ſitting down before them. But this inſcription ought to have informed us alſo, that when the Dutch were recovered from their conſternation, and their allies marched to their aſſiſtance, this mighty conqueror left all his boaſted acquiſitions, and retreated with almoſt as much precipitation as he advanced, ſcarce retaining any one town he had made himſelf maſter of.

The port St. Martin

The gate of St. Martin was built in the year 1674, after the ſame model as that of St. Denis, reſembling a triumphal arch, having three overtures, one great one, fifty foot in height, and as many in breadth in the middle, with a little portal on each ſide, and this inſcription, *Ludovico Magno, Veſontione Sequaniſque Bis Captis, Et Fractis Germanorum Hiſpanorum & Batavorum exercitibus. Præf. & Ædil. P. CC. Anno R. S. H.* M.DC.LXXIV. And on the other ſide the following inſcription, viz. *Ludovico Magno quod Limburgo Capto impotentes Hoſtium minas ubique repreſſit. Præf. & Ædil. P. CC. Anno* 1674.

The gates of St. Antony and St. Bernard.

The gates of St. Antony and St. Bernard, are alſo both of them built after the model of a triumphal Arch; that of St. Bernard's is adorned with baſs-reliefs on one ſide, repreſenting the King diſtributing the wealth brought into this city by navigation with this inſcription, *Ludovico Magno Abundantia parta, Præf. & Ædil. poni CC. Anno R. S. H.* M.DC.LXXIV. On the other ſide we ſee a god ſteering a ſhip under full ſail, with the following inſcription, *Ludovici Magni Providentiæ, Præf. & Ædil. poni CC. Anno R. S. H.* M.DC.LXXIV.

And in fact moſt of the principal gates are ſo many triumphal arches, deſigned to eternize the memory of Lewis XIV. the vaineſt King of the vaineſt people upon earth. But I muſt not here forget the great and little Chatelet, which were the gates of Paris when the city was confined to the iſland of the palace ſurrounded by the branches of the Seine.

The great Chatelet.

The great Chatelet, or gate of Paris, according to tradition, was built by Cæsar, of which there remains now no more than ſome antique towers, all the reſt having been built ſince the year 1684; here the courts of juſtice are held for the provoſtſhip and viſcounty of Paris, and it ſerves for a priſon for criminals.

The little Chatelet.

The little Chatelet alſo is an antique fortreſs and a priſon for criminals, and generally pretty well ſtocked with them; and having a large overture in the middle, ſerved for a gate to the city.

Bridges.

As Paris is divided by the Seine into three parts, there are not leſs than ten or twelve bridges over the ſeveral branches of it, of which the three principal are the Pont Royal, the Pont Notre Dame, and the Pont Neuf.

The Pont Royal.

The Pont Royal is a plain ſtone bridge of five arches, built croſs the united ſtream of the Seine, over-againſt the Tuilleries, about the year 1685, in the room of a wooden bridge which was broken by the floods. Lewis XIV, to perpetuate his name, lodged in the ſtone-work of this bridge ſeveral cedar boxes adorned with the arms of France, in which he incloſed twelve copper medals, twelve of gold, and twelve of ſilver, one of which had for its motto, *Germania Servata*; another *Juſſit Quieſcere*; a third *Rheno Bataviſque una Superatis*; and on a fourth, Jupiter is repreſented with this motto, *Vibrata in Superbos Fulmina*; and underneath, *Genna emendata.* This bridge is ſeventy-two fathoms long, and eight fathoms four feet broad.

Pont Notre Dame.

The Pont Notre Dame, or Our Lady's Bridge, ſo called from its lying over that part of the Seine which runs between the iſland of Notre Dame and the ſouth part of the town, is alſo built of ſtone, and hath houſes on each ſide as London-Bridge, but is much ſhorter; it was built by Lewis XII. about the year 1507, in the room of a wooden bridge which was carried away by the ſtream.

Pont Neuf.

The Pont Neuf, or New Bridge, is a handſom piece of architecture, and lies over both branches of the Seine, and the weſt end of the iſland of la Palais: it is an hundred and ſeventy fathoms long and twelve broad, raiſed on each ſide for foot people to walk on, in which reſpect it is more commodious than London-Bridge, but is not near ſo large and ſubſtantial, nor indeed is there any occaſion it ſhould, the water not running with that force it does at London, and there being no manner of tide here. This bridge was begun by Henry III. anno 1578, and finiſhed by Henry IV. in 1604. On it is an equeſtrian ſtatue of this laſt Prince, much larger than the life, ſet upon a pedeſtal of white marble, with four ſlaves at the four corners, and the inſcriptions and baſs-reliefs ſhew the moſt memorable tranſactions of his reign. And thus I have given ſuch an account of the palaces and publick buildings of Paris, as is conſiſtent with the work I am upon.

A general account of Paris.

I ſhall only add what the late author of the deſcription of Paris ſays of this city in general, namely, that there are in it twenty two thouſand houſes, many of which are ſeven ſtories high, fifty two pariſhes, an hundred and thirty four monaſteries, of which fifty ſix are for friars and ſeventy eight for nuns, and nine hundred ſeventy nine ſtreets; more than fourteen thouſand coaches, and ſeven or eight hundred thouſand perſons, in which he is more modeſt than many of his countrymen. The conventual and parochial churches and chapels amount to two hundred and upwards.

Paris an archbiſhoprick.

Paris was a biſhoprick ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Sens, till Pope Gregory XI. erected it into an archbiſhoprick, at the requeſt of Lewis XIII. anno 1622. the ſuffragans whereof are Chartres, Meaux, Orleans and Blois; and in the year 1674 the archbiſhops of Paris were made perpetual dukes and peers of France by Lewis XIV. This archbiſhop exerciſes a civil as well as eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction in the lands belonging to his ſee: his revenue is computed at an hundred thouſand livres per annum, which amounts to between nine and ten thouſand pounds a year Engliſh money. As to the eccleſiaſtical government of Paris and the reſt of the kingdom, I reſerve a chapter particularly for it.

The civil government of Paris.

The civil government of Paris is diſtributed amongſt ſeveral courts of juſtice, of which the higheſt is the parliament, that extends over ſeveral of the neighbouring provinces, and is the laſt reſort in all cauſes where the court does not interpoſe, as will appear in the chapter ſet apart for treating of the civil government of France. The parliament of Paris conſiſts at this day of the chief preſident, nine preſidents a mortier, one and twenty preſidents by commiſſion, two hundred and fourteen counſellors, with the neceſſary officers, as attorney and ſolicitor general, regiſter, &c. and is divided into nine chambers or houſes that have their reſpective branches of buſineſs aſſigned them, on which I ſhall enlarge hereafter in treating of the civil government of the kingdom in general. The other courts in Paris are the chamber of accounts, the court of aids, the court des monoyes, which regards the coinage, weights and meaſures, the court of the treaſury, the court of the waters and foreſts, the court of the conſtable and marſhals, the court of admiralty, the Chatelet, or the ordinary court of juſtice for the civil government of the city, of which the provoſt or mayor, with the four eſchevins or aldermen, and twenty ſix counſellors are judges: the court of the Hotel de Ville, or Guild-Hall, which takes an account of the city rents, and of the taxes on all proviſions brought into Paris; and the court of the conſuls, which takes cognizance of all things relating to commerce; in which courts the provoſt (by himſelf or his lieutenant) preſides, who is nominated by the King.

The military government.

And there is a military, as well as a civil government in Paris, which in this and in every other province is independent if not ſuperior to the civil power: the courts above-mentioned are ſuffered to go on without interruption where the crown is not concerned, and while they obey the dictates of the miniſtry; but ſhould they preſume to diſpute the King's pleaſure, they would ſoon be made ſenſible of their error by a military force; Paris being in reality ſubject to a lieutenant general. The captains of the caſtles or palaces of the Louvre and Tuilleries receive orders alſo immediately from the King; and the governors of the Baſtile and the Hotel des Invalides are accountable only to his Majeſty.

The manufactures of Paris, and her trade with the neighbouring provinces, are very conſiderable, beyond eſtimation ſay the French.

Trade of Paris.

Their principal manufactures are gold and ſilver ſtuffs, wrought ſilks, velvet, gold and ſilver lace, ribbands, tapeſtry, linen and glaſs; not to mention their wines and other proviſions conſumed there; and there are two great fairs annually held here, viz. one in the ſuburb of St. Germains, which begins on the 3d of February and laſts a fortnight, and till paſſion week by the royal licence; and the other at St. Laurence's, which begins on the feſtival of that ſaint, and ends the ſeventh of September. There are in this city ſix principal bodies or companies of tradeſmen, out of which the conſuls who have the regulation of trade are choſen, viz. the drapers, the grocers and apothecaries, the mercers and jewellers, the ſkinners, the hatters, and the goldſmiths: beſides which, there are the bookſellers, the vintners and wine-merchants, the wool-merchants and timber-merchants, who have equal privileges, and are in a capacity of being elected conſuls.

CHAP. IV.

Contains an account of the principal places in the iſle of France.

Places in the neighbourhood of Paris, Vincennes. St. Denis.

THE moſt conſiderable places in the iſle of France proper, or the Pariſis are, 1. Vincennes on the eaſt-ſide of Paris, remarkable chiefly for its park or foreſt, as it is called, where the citizens go to take the air; in it is an antique caſtle or palace, in which ſome of their Princes formerly reſided, and was repaired and beautified by the late King Lewis XIV. 2. St. Denis ſituate near the Seine, in a fine plain about four miles to the northward of Paris, ſaid to have received its name from St. Denis the Areopagite, who firſt planted religion in this kingdom, and is ſuppoſed by ſome to have been the firſt biſhop of Paris: but I find the generality of their writers agree, that St. Denis the Areopagite never was at Paris, and that the chriſtian religion was not planted in France till the third century, when another St. Denis preached the goſpel here, and was conſtituted the firſt biſhop of this city. But however that be, there is a magnificent abby at St. Denis founded by Dagobert I. about the year 636, in the place where one of the ſaints of this name was buried, who is generally accounted the patron of France, and in it are ſeveral magnificent tombs and monuments of the Kings and Princes of the blood royal of France, of which the chief are thoſe of Francis I. and Lewis XI. Here alſo is a tomb erected to the memory of the celebrated Marſhal Turenne, by Lewis XIV. in an elegant marble chapel built

Montmorency.

Dammartin.

Charenton.

for that purpoſe: the great altar of this abby is plated with ſilver, and has a croſs of maſſy gold over it ſeven foot high, ſet with pearls and diamonds: the abbot kept the Regalia uſed at the coronation of the King, and was veſted with great privileges; but I find that in the year 1692, the title of Abbot of St. DENIS was ſuppreſſed, and his revenue given to the nuns of St. Cyr, by a bull of Pope INNOCENT XII. 3. Montmorency, a little town ſituate on a hill twelve miles north-weſt of Paris, which gives name to a pleaſant valley about it, beautified with the country ſeats of the nobility and gentry, and gave a title to one of the moſt ancient families in the kingdom: it was erected into a dutchy and peerage by HENRY II. anno 1551, in honour of———de Montmorency conſtable of France, who being put to death by LEWIS XIII. he conferred that honour on HENRY de Bourbon Prince of Conde, with the title of Enguien inſtead of Montmorency, and it belongs at preſent to his highneſs the duke of Bourbon. 4. Dammartin is an ancient town and caſtle, twenty miles north-eaſt of Paris, formerly the capital of a country. 5. Charenton, ſituate a little above Paris, at the conflux of the Seine and Marne, remarkable chiefly for a fine church, which the Hugonots had here before the repeal of the edict of Nants, in the year 1685. Hither the Proteſtants of Paris uſed to reſort to divine ſervice, and as they generally went by water, would in the view and hearing of their enemies ſet a pſalm or hymn, and ſing all the way up the river, whereby they highly provok'd the Roman catholicks; and this is thought to be one occaſion of drawing the reſentment of the government upon them; for I find their conduct in this particular very much cenſur'd even by their friends. The proteſtant church was demoliſhed on reverſing the ſaid edict, and a nunnery erected in the ſame place in the year 1703. Had that church been a heathen temple, the catholicks would have made no ſcruple of converting it into a chriſtian oratory; but ſuch was their hatred and deteſtation of the Calviniſts, that no new conſecration could be ſuppoſed ſufficient to purify a place defiled by this ſect. Thus we find it frequently happens among ſects of the ſame religion, who have uſually a greater averſion for each other, than for thoſe of a different faith, which probably proceeds from the daily inſults and provocations they give and receive.

Diſtrict of Brie Francoiſe.

In the diſtrict called the Brie Francoiſe the chief places are, 1. Lagni. 2. Brie Count Robert.

Lagny.

Brie Count Robert.

1. Lagny, the capital of the Brie Francoiſe, is ſituated on the Marne five or ſix leagues above Paris; it is a little town, and ſcarce remarkable for any thing but a convent of Benedictines, founded by St. FURSI a North-Briton. 2. Brie Count Robert, a little town ſix leagues ſouth-eaſt of Paris, conſiderable only for its market, and a convent.

Hurepois diſtrict.

In the diſtrict of Hurepois the chief places are, 1. Melun. 2. Dourdan. 3. Monthery. 4. Chartres. 5. Corbeil.

Melun.

Melun, *Melodunum*, is ſituated on the river Seine, ten leagues to the ſouthward of Paris, a large ancient town, the form and ſituation whereof exactly reſemble that capital, the river Seine forming an iſland in the middle, and dividing it into three parts, which have a communication by bridges: here are the ruins of an ancient temple dedicated to the goddeſs ISIS, ſeveral handſom churches, an abby dedicated to St. PETER, and other religious houſes. It has a good trade in corn, flower, wine and cheeſe, which they ſend to Paris by the river Seine.

Dourdan.

Dourdan ſtands about thirteen leagues ſouth-weſt of Paris, it is a little town, conſiderable chiefly for its manufacture of ſilk ſtockings.

Corbeil.

Corbeil is a pleaſant little town, ſituated at the conflux of the Seine and the Juyne, ſeven leagues to the ſouthward of Paris, and was anciently, according to tradition, a Roman colony; the principal trade of the place is in hides and tanned leather. The reſt of the towns in this diſtrict do not require a particular deſcription.

The Gatenois.

In the diſtrict of Gatenois the chief places are, 1. Nemours. 2. Courtenay. 3. Fontainbleau. 4. Moret.

Nemours.

Nemours, *Nemoſium*, ſituate between two little hills on the river Loing, eighteen leagues to the ſouthward of Paris, from whence the noble family of Nemours took their title, but not conſiderable on any other account.

Courtenai.

Courtenai is a little town, ſituated on the river Clairy, between Montargis and Sens, about five leagues from either, and gave name to ſeveral French princes celebrated in the hiſtories of Conſtantinople, of which they were ſome time ſovereigns.

Fontainbleau.

Fontainbleau is ſituated in the middle of a foreſt, fourteen leagues ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and is conſiderable chiefly for the royal caſtle or palace there, from whence it received its name, the palace being ſo denominated from a noble fountain in one of the courts: this palace has long been a hunting-ſeat of the Kings of France; and tho' it contains ſome magnificent piles of building, is a very irregular piece, having been built at ſeveral times, without any order or ſymmetry, containing as it is ſaid nine hundred rooms. There are ſome fine paintings in the galleries, and the gardens are adorned with ſtatues, fountains, fine walks, canals, grotto's, and every thing that can render a place pleaſant in the ſummer. The foreſt of Fontainbleau was anciently called the foreſt of Bierre, and contains ſix and twenty thouſand acres and upwards; it is of a round form, the palace ſtanding in the center.

The Mantois.

In the diſtrict of Mantois the chief places are, 1. Mante. 2. Monfort. 3. St. Germains en Laye. 4. Verſailles. 5. Trianon. 6. Marly. 7. Meudon. 8. St. Cloud. 9. Madrid. 10. Anet. 11. Poiſſy. 12. Dreux.

Mante city.

Mante, *Medunta*, is ſituated on the Seine, twelve leagues north-weſt of Paris, remarkable for a handſom ſtone bridge over the Seine of thirty-nine arches, and a convent of Celeſtins, which hath a little hill within its bounds that produces the beſt wine in France. The river Seine forms abundance of little iſlands hereabouts.

Montfort.

Montfort is a little town ſituate on an eminence, at the foot whereof there runs a rivulet, ten leagues from Paris, and has the additional name of D'Amauri, from ſeveral lords of that name who have poſſeſſed it. The trade of this place conſiſts in corn, wine, cyder, fruit and wood, of which the laſt is the moſt conſiderable bearing a great price at Paris.

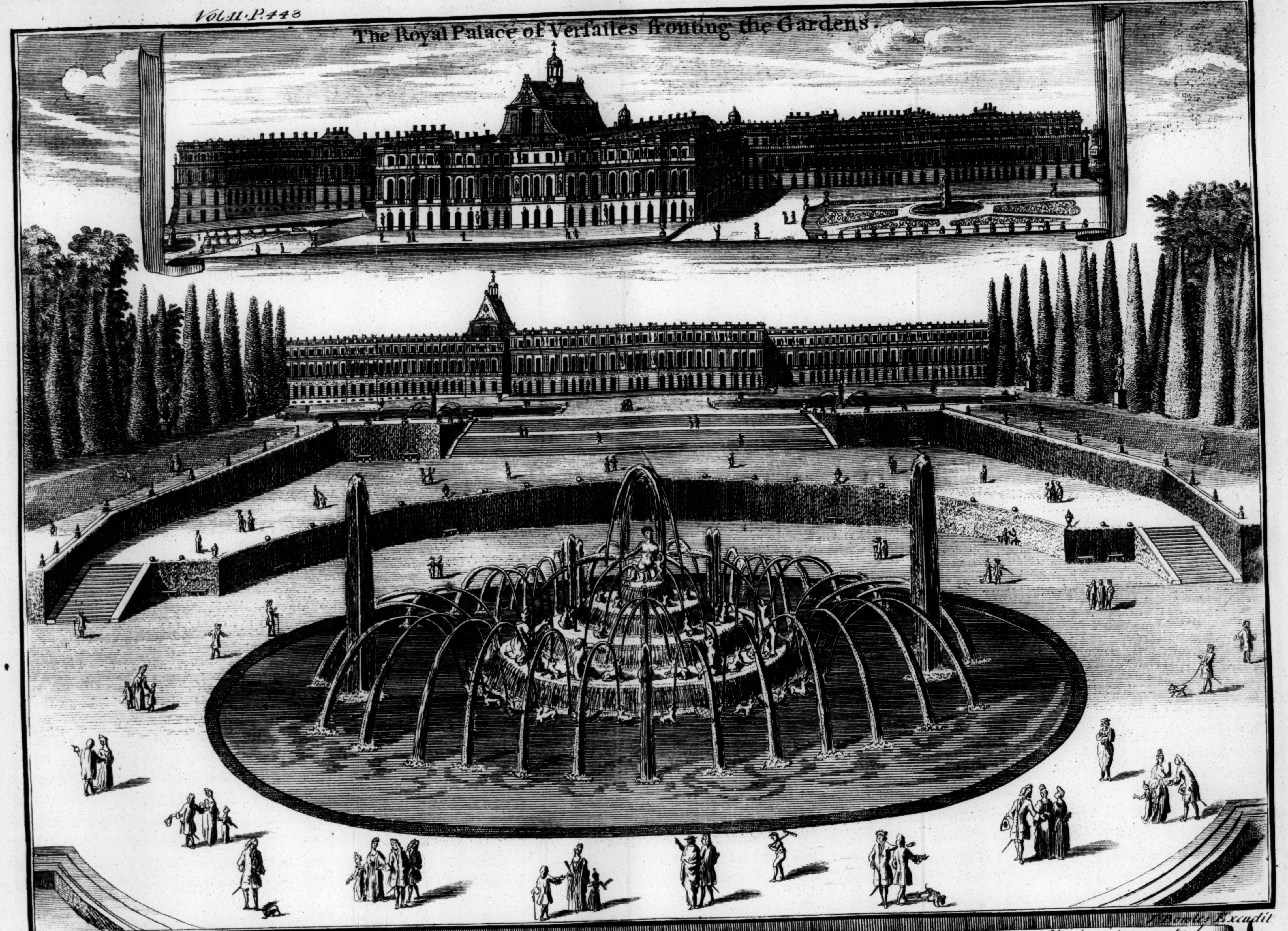
St. Germains en Laye.

St. Germains en Laye ſtands four leagues to the weſtward of Paris, and one from Verſailles; it is moſt remarkable for the royal caſtle or palace there, ſituate on a hill near the Seine, begun by CHARLES V. and enlarged and beautified by ſucceeding Princes, but by none more than by LEWIS XIV. who ſeems to have had the beſt taſte for building of any Prince of the laſt age: he added particularly the terrace of above three thouſand paces in length, the grand parterre, and the valley garden, as it is called, and cut moſt of the ridings thro' the neighbouring foreſt. The water-works here are very fine; in one of the grotto's is a virgin playing on the organs, and her eyes ſo artfully moved, that ſhe ſeems to be alive: in others, artificial birds ſinging and chirping; and in another, the repreſentation of ORPHEUS playing on a lute and keeping time, while the beaſts, birds, woods and rocks ſeem to follow him, with ſeveral repreſentations of the like nature, all put in motion by water. This palace is built in the form of a caſtle, and ſurrounded with a dry ditch, a magnificent ſtone gallery runs round the middle of the whole ſtructure, which is of an oval figure, and the roof is covered with thin flat free ſtone inſtead of tiles. The proſpect from this caſtle is admirable, eſpecially towards the river and the plains, having Paris, St. Denis and Marli within view of it. It ſtands in a healthful air, and the neighbouring foreſt contains five thouſand acres and upwards, and is cut thro' with an infinite number of large ridings, well repleniſhed with wild beaſts and game, which makes it a moſt agreeable ſituation for hunting. Here the late King of England, JAMES II. reſided with his court during his exile, being hoſpitably entertained by his old allie, LEWIS XIV, till his death, which happened in the year 1701. His corps was afterwards interred in the convent of the Engliſh Benedictines in Paris.

Verſailles

Verſailles is ſituated about eleven Engliſh miles to the weſtward of Paris, on an eminence in the middle of the valley, encompaſſed with little hills at an agreeable diſtance. Before the reign of LEWIS XIV. neither the town or palace had any thing extraordinary to recommend them, unleſs their being ſituated in a country fit for hunting, which occaſioned LEWIS the Thirteenth's building a hunting ſeat here in form of a caſtle. There are now three noble avenues to the palace leading from ſo many ſeveral towns, conſiſting each of three beautiful walks of trees, which terminate on a kind of parade, being a large void ſpace at a proper diſtance from the buildings. The middle walk of the grand avenue is fifty yards wide, and each of thoſe on the ſide of it twenty, the town of Verſailles ſtands on the right and left of it; that on the left is the old town, which the King hath enlarged and beautified; and that on the right is perfectly new, conſiſting of elegant uniform buildings, erected on purpoſe to grace the royal palace. At the upper end of the grand avenue, on the right and left, are the ſtables in form of a creſcent, ſo magnificently built and adorned, that few royal houſes excel them, in which the King has five hundred horſes, the fineſt that the world can furniſh him with for the coach or ſaddle. From the parade we paſs into the firſt court thro' an iron paliſade ſet upon a low wall; this court is flanked with four large pavilions, where are the apartments of the ſecretaries of ſtate, comptroller-general of the finances, and other perſons of diſtinction: from hence we aſcend by three ſteps thro' another iron gate adorned with trophies into the ſecond court, which is ſeparated from the firſt by an iron paliſade alſo, and is ſomething leſs than the former, there being a noble fountain in the middle of it, and magnificent buildings on each wing. From the ſecond court we paſs into a third ſtill leſs than the former, paved with black and white marble, to which we aſcend by five ſteps; this court has a marble baſin and fountain in the middle, adorned with ſtatues, copper gilt, and is terminated by a noble pile of building, which with the wings conſtitute the royal apartments. In the front of the palace is a glorious portico with three iron doors richly gilt and wrought, which gives an entrance into the hall and ſalons adorned with marble pillars, ſtatues and paintings done by the greateſt hands. The principal ſtair-caſe is above ten yards wide, and conſiſts of the fineſt marble that could be procured, and is beautified with admirable ſculptures and paintings. The grand apartment conſiſts of a long ſucceſſion of large lofty rooms exquiſitely furniſhed, where the very bedſteds and tables are of maſſy ſilver, or more valuable materials. The cabinet of rarities is of an octogonal figure, and receives its light from the vaulted roof, being in the form of a dome or cupola. Here are an infinite number of curioſities in agate, cryſtal, jewels, and precious ſtones, medals, coins, and other antiquities, with ſeveral admirable paintings. The gallery, eſteemed the fineſt in Europe, is ſeventy-two yards long and fourteen broad, having ſeventy windows towards the gardens, from whence there is a moſt delightful proſpect: between the windows are pannels of looking-glaſs and marble pilaſters, with a great variety of buſts and ſtatues, ancient and modern; the painted ceiling contains the battles, and other memorable occurrences of the late King's reign.

The fineſt front is next the gardens, on which ſide there is a magnificent portico, ſupported by marble pillars, and floored with marble an hundred yards in length: and the gardens themſelves are not to be parallelled; all the beautiful models that Italy or the world affords, were conſidered in order to render them the moſt perfect of any thing of that kind, the water-works eſpecially are inimitable: here marble and copper ſtatues ſpout up water in different forms, which fall into baſins of excellent workmanſhip; the fountain of the pyramid, the caſcades, the water alley, the water parterre, the triumphal arch, the pavilion fountain, the water bower, the theatre and APOLLO's baſin, require a more artful hand to deſcribe them, and perhaps nothing but an actual view can furniſh us with an adequate idea of their various beauties. The groves, grotto's, labyrinth and orangery alſo are exquiſitely contrived. The great canal is ſixteen hundred yards long and ſixty-four broad, on which there are ſeveral yatchs and galleys, in which the court ſometimes divert themſelves. Towards the middle of the grand canal is another which croſſes it; at one end whereof is the menagery, well ſtocked with all manner of wild beaſts, and other exotick animals; and at the other end is the beautiful little palace of Trianon. The water which ſupplies theſe gardens is brought from the Seine, which is a league and a half diſtant from Verſailles, being carried to an aqueduct of thirty-ſix arches, which ſtands on the top of a hill, by a prodigious machine, which coſts the King five and twenty thouſand pounds ſterling per annum to keep in repair; from this reſervoir the water is conveyed by large iron pipes to the fountains and canals, in the gardens of Verſailles and Marli. The fountains do not play but upon ſome extraordinary occaſions, and when they do, it is no ſmall expence: it is a common obſervation, that if the King had choſen a proper ſituation where there was plenty of water, theſe works would not have coſt him a tenth part of the money they did; but it was to ſhew his grandeur, or rather his vanity, that he made choice of a place which had no water near it, to erect the fineſt water-works in the world, and which nothing but a boundleſs treaſure could have effected.



The Royal Palace of Verſailles fronting the Gardens.

J. Bowles Excudit

The FOUNTAIN of LATONA. It is a large Circular Basin in the middle of wch is Latona & her 2 Children Apollo & Diana: She is represented making complaints to Jupiter of the barbarity of the Peasants of Lycia, who had hinderd her from gathering Refreshments. She is surrounded by those Clowns who for their punishment are Metamorphised into Frogs, they cast forth 74 Spouts of Water, some of wch falls upon Latona. The Figures are the work of Marsi & are of white Marble & the Steps wch support them green Marble over wch the Water flows in Sheets, & 2 Streams of Water at the sides of the Basin rise 30 foot high.

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And thus it was, this Prince by the moſt extravagant expences at home, and unneceſſary wars abroad, propoſed to eternize his memory, and acquire a reputation equal to any of the ancient Greeks or Romans. But poſterity ought to know, that to effect all this, he beggared his ſubjects, and depopulated his country; that he brought his people low by exceſſive taxes, and then enſlaved them; that the nobility and gentry were forced to depend on the court for their bread, and that many of them, becauſe the King's duties exceeded the profits of their lands, choſe to let them lie uncultivated. And this is too frequently the caſe, where a people happen to be governed by heroes, or glorious monarchs, as the world are pleaſed to call the great oppreſſors of mankind.

Trianon.

The palace of Trianon already mentioned, is of an oval figure, the architecture and ornaments not inferior to Verſailles, only the building is much leſs; both the outſide and inſide are adorned with the fineſt porcelane or china, even the floors are laid with it, and the ſides of the rooms lined with china inſtead of wainſcot, but this is rather looked upon as a ſummer-houſe to the gardens of Verſailles, than a diſtinct palace.

Marli.

Marli is another palace built by Lewis XIV. between Verſailles and St. Germains, containing one large pavilion and twelve little ones, ſix on each ſide. The ſituation is lofty and extremely pleaſant, but the buildings are not comparable to thoſe of the palace laſt mentioned. The water-works are very beautiful, being ſupplied from the ſame reſervoir that furniſhes Verſailles, and the grand Caſcade reſembles a river tumbling from a precipice; the baſins below it are adorned with groups of figures, and the gardens afford a vaſt variety of pleaſing objects; inſomuch that the late King and Madam Maintenon choſe to ſpend a great part of their leiſure hours here.

Meudon.

The palace of Meudon was the reſidence of the late Dauphin, and ſtands on an eminence in the middle of a foreſt; there is a noble avenue that leads to it three quarters of a mile in length; on the right of which is a convent belonging to the Capuchins, and on the left the vineyards of Meudon. At the entrance of the court of the palace there is a large pile of building on the right, and another on the left, which open in form of a ſemicircle, but are disjoined from the body of the houſe. In the middle of the front is a lofty advanced building with a portico, entered by three doors; above it runs an order of architecture, conſiſting of arches and pillars finely deſigned, and above them another order accompanied with pilaſters; over all is a frontan containing two ſtatues in a cumbent poſture, admirably well done; the wings are not ſo high as the principal building, and each of them terminated by a ſquare pavilion. The inſide of this palace was adorned with the richeſt furniture, and a fine collection of ſtatues, paintings, medals, and other antiquities, in the life of the late Dauphin, which have been ſince removed. The front towards the garden alſo conſiſts of a lofty advanced building, with wings conſiderably lower, which terminate on the right and left in two pavilions of the ſame height with the body of the building. The gardens of this palace are much admired for their fine walks, parterres, canals and water-works; and adjoining to them is a ſpacious park encompaſſed with a brick wall, and adorned with woods, baſins and reſervoirs of water; the woods being cut thro' and divided by beautiful ridings, among which there is one diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Dauphin, which leads to the gates of Paris. The town of Meudon is not conſiderable for any thing, unleſs it be a pleaſant garden belonging to the Capuchins cloyſter, and ſome excellent ſtone quarries.

St. Cloud.

St. Cloud is a large open town upon the Seine, about two leagues weſt of Paris, as populous as moſt in France, which is occaſioned by the great reſort of the citizens of Paris, who come hither by water on Sundays and Holidays to divert themſelves. This town was erected into a dutchy and peerage, in the year 1674, when Francis de Harley archbiſhop of Paris, and his ſucceſſors were created perpetual Dukes and Peers of France, with the title of St. Cloud. The royal palace here belongs to the Dukes of Orleans, and is ſituated at the ſide of a mountain, at the foot of which the river Seine runs. The avenue to the palace is upon the declivity of the hill, adorned with three fine walks of trees having the town on the right, and the park on the left, and terminates at the baſe court, from whence we proceed to the grand court at one of the angles, on account of the irregularity of the ground. The palace conſiſts of a large advanced building in the middle of the front, and two wings, each of them flanked with a pavilion; nothing can be conceived more rich and beautiful, ſays my French author, than this palace is within: the gallery and the ſalon are eſteemed the beſt pieces of Mignard, the King's chief painter; and the orangery behind the body of the building is an excellent piece: notwithſtanding the gardens are irregular, they are exceeding pleaſant, having terraces one above another with an unbounded proſpect, the caſcade is one of the fineſt in France; and the neighbouring park has every thing that can render it agreeable. The town of St. Cloud is moſt remarkable for the fine earthen ware made there, which the French after their way of magnifying every thing their country produces, are pleaſed to compare to china, of which they ſay it falls ſhort but very little; there is a ſtone bridge over the river Seine here, conſiſting of fourteen arches.

Madrid.

Madrid is another royal palace, ſituate at a little diſtance from Paris, built by Francis I. It has the river Seine on one ſide, and a wood on the other, and conſiſts of one large pile of building of three ſtories beſides the ground-floor, and is flanked by two grand pavillons; but it ſeems to have been neglected, being neither finiſhed or furniſhed; the reſt of the places in the Mantois, do not require a particular deſcription.

The Vexin Francois.

In the Vexin Francois, the principal places are, 1. Pontoiſe. 2. Cheaumont. 3. L'Iſle Adam. 4. Magny. 5. The caſtle of Rocheguyon.

Pontoiſe.

Pontoiſe, *Pons ad Æſiam*, is ſituated on the river Oyſe, ſix leagues to the northward of Paris, upon the deſcent of a hill, which extends to the banks of the river. It has a caſtle which commands the town, in the outer court whereof ſtands a collegiate church; it conſiſts of two pariſhes only, and has a ſtone bridge over the Oyſe of fourteen arches, from whence it takes its name: the principal trade of the place is in corn, which is brought hither from Picardy by the river; the reſt of the towns in the Vexin Francois do not merit a particular deſcription.

The Beauvaiſis.

The county of Beauvais, or the Beauvaiſis, is a little country between the river Oyſe and the province of Normandy, being bounded by Picardy Proper on the north; by the county of Senlis on the eaſt; by the Vexin Francois on the ſouth; and by the Vexin Norman on the weſt: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Beauvais. 2. Clermont. 3. Gerberoy. 4. Bulles. And, 5. Merlou.

Beauvais. Beauvais, *olim Bellovacum* and *Cæſaromagus*, is ſituated on the river Therin, ſixteen leagues north of Paris, almoſt ſurrounded with hills. CÆSAR having beſieged and taken this town, it is ſaid, gave it the name of *Cæſaromagnus*. It is memorable alſo for the Engliſh beſieging it in vain, anno 1443; and its making a brave defence afterwards againſt CHARLES Duke of Burgundy, in 1472, when the women ſignalized their courage under the conduct of that heroine JOAN HATCHET, whoſe picture they preſerve in the town-houſe. And in memory of this action alſo, the women are allowed to march firſt in a proceſſion they obſerve annually on the tenth of July. It is the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan of Rheims, whoſe revenue is computed to be fifty thouſand livres per annum. The cathedral dedicated to St. PETER is a magnificent building; it is a fortified town, but of no great ſtrength, being commanded by the neighbouring mountains. Here is a pretty good manufacture both of linen and woollen; the adjacent country abounds in corn, good paſture and fruits, and affords ſome of the beſt mutton in France.

Clermont. Clermont is ſituated on a hill near the river Brecle, five leagues from Beauvais, and as many from Senlis, and formerly gave the title of Count to the family of Bourbon. The devotion of the neighbouring country for their patron St. GENGON, brings a great concourſe of people hither annually on the eleventh of May.

Gerberoy. Gerberoy is a little town ſtrongly ſituated on a mountain, the foot whereof is waſhed by the river Therin, five leagues north-weſt of Beauvais; it was beſieged by the Engliſh under the command of the Earl of Arundel, who loſt his life before it, and the field where he received the mortal wound, is ſtill called the valley of Arundel; it was taken by the Engliſh in the year 1437, who kept it till 1449, when it was retaken by the French.

Bulles. Bulles is a very pretty town, four leagues to the eaſtward of Beauvais, in the neighbourhood whereof grows excellent flax, of which they make cambricks and the fineſt linens.

Valois dutchy. The dutchy of Valois is ſituated between three great rivers, viz. the Seine, the Marne and the Oyſe, extending fourteen leagues in length and ſeven in breadth; the late King LEWIS XIV. erected it into a dutchy, and peerage, and conferred it on PHILIP Duke of Orleans his brother: the chief places in it are, 1. Creſpy or Crepi. 2. La Ferte Milon. 3. Villers Cotrets. 4. Senlis. 5. Creil. 6. Pont St. Maxence. 7. Compeigne. 8. Bithiſy. 9. Chantilly.

Creſpi. Creſpi, the capital of the dutchy of Valois, is ſituated thirteen leagues north-eaſt of Paris, on a peninſula almoſt ſurrounded by rivulets; it is a pretty good town, and at the end of it ſtands an old caſtle. The ſhrine of St. ALBIN draws a great concourſe of people hither, for they believe the interceſſion of this ſaint goes a great way in preventing or abating the plague, and other contagious diſtempers. The church dedicated to St. ALBIN is collegiate and a royal foundation; and the church of St. DENIS is ſaid to have one of the fineſt choirs in France.

La Ferte Milon. La Ferte Milon is ſituated ſixteen leagues north-eaſt of Paris, on the river Ourques, which divides it into the high and low town; it is a pretty large place, and defended by a caſtle.

Senlis. Senlis is ſituated ten leagues to the northward of Paris, on the ſide of a hill, at the foot whereof runs the little river Nonete. It is of an oval figure, encompaſſed with a wall, a ditch, and other fortifications, the baſtions and half moons ſome of them faced with ſtone. It was anciently called *Sylvanectum*, *Auguſtomagus* and *Silviacum*, and is a biſhop's ſee ſuffragan of Rheims, having in it ſeven parochial and two collegiate churches; and here are the ruins of an old caſtle and ſome other buildings: which they conjecture were the works of the ancient Romans.

Creil. Creil, *Creolium*, is a little walled town ſituate on the Oyſe, two leagues north of Senlis; and has an old caſtle ſaid to be built by CHARLES V.

Pont St. Maxence. Pont Sainte Maxence, *Pons Sanctæ Maxentiæ*, is a little trading town, ſituate alſo on the Oyſe, three leagues north-eaſt of Senlis.

Compeigne. Compeigne ſtands on the river Oyſe, ſeven leagues north-eaſt of Senlis, and ſeventeen north-eaſt of Paris, fortified with a wall, half-moons and baſtions, and defended by a caſtle, which is looked upon to be one of the moſt ancient palaces of the Kings of France. It was repaired and beautified by the late King LEWIS XIV. The abby of St. Bennet here was founded by CHARLES the Bald, but united to the nunnery of Val de Grace in Paris about the year 1656. The Jeſuits alſo have a college in the place. The town does not conſiſt of more than two pariſhes. It was here that the famous JOAN of Arc, or maid of Orleans, was taken priſoner by the Engliſh in the year 1430, in a ſally ſhe made out of the town, and our wiſe anceſtors were pleaſed to burn her for a witch. The neighbouring foreſt, which takes its name from the town, contains near thirty thouſand acres, and affords variety of game.

The Soiſſonois. The Soiſſonois, which receives its name from Soiſſons, the only conſiderable city in it, is bounded on the north by the Laonois, on the eaſt by the Rhemois, on the ſouth by the Brie, and on the weſt by the Valois; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Soiſſons. 2. Brenne. And, 3. Veilly.

Soiſſons. Soiſſons, *Auguſta Sueſſionum*, ſuppoſed to be the *Noviodunum* of CÆSAR, is ſituated in a pleaſant fruitful valley on the river Aiſne, two and twenty leagues north-eaſt of Paris, and was the capital of the kingdom under the firſt race of their Kings. It is a large populous place, encompaſſed with a wall and other fortifications, and has a good trade in corn. The caſtle is an antique building, flank'd with great round towers; the walks by the river extremely pleaſant. It is a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan to Rheims, and famous for ſeveral councils held here; as it will be hereafter probably for the congreſs of ambaſſadors and plenipotentiaries from all the powers of Europe, who attended here to receive their doom from the French. This nation have by their dexterity obtained the umpirage of all their differences, and thereby rendered themſelves much more conſiderable than ever they did by their arms, even in the reign of LEWIS le Grand: and it is well if ſome of theſe wiſe powers don't find themſelves ſhortly in the condition of the aſs that hunted with the lion.

The Laonois. The Laonois is bounded by Picardy on the north, by champagne on the eaſt, and by the Soiſſonois on the ſouth and weſt; the chief places whereof are Laon and Lieſſe.

Laon. Laon, *Laudunum*, is pleaſantly ſituated on the top of a hill, in a healthful air, about twenty miles north-eaſt of Soiſſons. It is ſtrong by its ſituation, but has no modern fortifications. It is well built, the ſtreets ſpacious, and ſupplied with water by wells, which do not lie very deep. They lay up great magazines of corn here, with which they ſupply Picardy and Hainault in ſcarce years. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to Rheims, who is alſo a Duke and Peer of France, and carries the ſacred phial, called the St. Ampoule, at the conſecration of their Kings.

Lieſſe.

Lieſſe is a little town, about four miles to the northward of Laon, conſiſting only of one ſtreet, but conſiderable on account of the perpetual pilgrimages made to the church of Notre Dame, and the image of the bleſſed Virgin there, which, according to tradition, was miraculouſly made and brought hither from the Holy Land. The French King himſelf comes hither in pilgrimage ſoon after his coronation, till when his touch for the evil, it is ſaid, is of no virtue.

The Noyonois.

The Noyonois is bounded by Picardy on the north, and by the Soiſſonois and Beauvaiſis on the ſouth; the chief places whereof are Noyon, Chauny and Premontre.

Noyon.

Noyon, *Noviodunum Belgarum*, ſtands two and twenty leagues north-eaſt of Paris, on the little river Verſe, which a little below falls into the Oyſe. It is an ancient town, tolerably large, and advantageouſly ſituated for trade. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Rheims, who is alſo a Peer of France; but more memorable for the birth of JOHN CALVIN, who was born here the 10th of July 1509, and died at Geneva the 27th of May, 1564; about whoſe character the Papiſts and Preſbyterians will never agree, the one looking upon him as an infamous heretick, and the other adore him as equal, if not ſuperior to any of the Apoſtles.

Chauny.

Chauny is a little town ſituate on the Oyſe, nine or ten miles to the eaſtward of Noyon, where the river begins to be navigable. It has a chatellany belonging to it; but I don't find it conſiderable on any other account.

Premontre

Premontre, *Præmonſtratum*, is only taken notice of for a great abby of canons regular of St. Auſtin's called *Præmonſtratenſes*, three leagues from Soiſſons.

The military government of the Iſle of France.

Theſe are the principal places in the iſle of France, the military government whereof is committed to a governor general, and lieutenant general, and four other lieutenants, who have their reſpective commands; one in the Vexin Francois, the ſecond in the Beauvaiſis, the third in the counties of Senlis, Soiſſons, Noyonois, Laonois, and that part of this government which extends beyond the Marne and the Seine as far as Champagne and Picardy; and the fourth commands in the remainder of the iſle of France, which lies on the left of the Seine; beſides which, every great town has its particular governor. The trade and produce of this government has been already taken notice of in the deſcription of the particular towns and diſtricts.

CHAP. V.

Contains a deſcription of Picardy.

CHAP. V.

The province of Picardy. Situation, extent, &c.

THE province or general government of Picardy, is bounded by Hainault, Artois, and the Streights of Calais, towards the north; by Champagne and the Netherlands, on the eaſt; by the Iſle of France, on the ſouth; and by the Engliſh channel and Normandy, on the weſt; being a long narrow province, uſually reſembled to a bent arm, and in this winding figure may be about an hundred and fifty miles in length, but not more than forty in breadth, and in many places not half ſo broad. It is generally a plain open country, without mountains or woods; neither does the country produce wine, but abounds in corn, paſture, and fruits of all kinds. The wood of Creci, near Amiens, is the largeſt they have in the country; and indeed firing is ſo ſcarce amongſt them, that they generally burn ſtinking turf. They pretend to have ſomething like a coal-mine; but it is inconſiderable, and not comparable to the Newcaſtle coal. The chief rivers are the Oyſe, the Somme, the Canche, and the Authia.

Rivers.

The Oyſe.

The Oyſe, *Oæſia*, *Iſara*, has its ſource in Picardy on the confines of Hainault, and takes its courſe thro' the generalities of Soiſſons and Paris, receiving the Verre, the Delette, the Aiſne, the Terrein, the Aronde, and many other leſſer ſtreams, becoming navigable at La Fere, and falls into the Seine a little below Conſtans Sainte Honorine.

The Somme.

The Somme, *Somona*, or *Samara*, riſes in the Vermandois, two leagues below St. Quintin, and runs to the weſtward by Abbeville, almoſt the whole length of Picardy, till it falls into the Britiſh channel between Valery and Crotoy. It begins to be navigable at Brug, and is very deep, moſt of the merchandize from England and Holland being brought up this river.

The Canche.

The Canche, *Cancius*, or *Quentia*, riſes in Artois, ſix leagues above Heſdin, and runs weſtward to Montrevil, where it becomes navigable, and afterwards falls into the Britiſh channel below Eſtaples.

The Authe.

The Authe, *Authia*, *Ætilia*, has its ſource on the confines of Picardy and Artois, a little above the caſtle of Authie, and running weſtward, falls into the Britiſh channel between the mouths of the Somme and the Canche.

Subdiviſions of Picardy.

Picardy is uſually divided into the Higher, the Middle, and the Lower Picardy. The Higher Picardy includes the Vermandois and the Thierache: the Middle comprehends the county of Amiens, and the country of Santerre: and the Lower conſiſts of the Bolonois, the Reconquered Country, and the county of Ponthieu and Vimen.

The Vermandois.

The Vermandois, *Ager Veromandienſis*, is bounded by the Cambreſis on the north; by the Thierache on the eaſt; by the iſle of France on the ſouth; and Santerre on the weſt; the chief towns whereof are, 1. St. Quintin, 2. Ham. And, 3. Catelet.

St. Quintin.

St. Quintin, *Quintinopolis*, or *Fanum Quintini*, is ſituate on a riſing ground, near the head of the Somme, having the river on one ſide, and a precipice on the other, lying about fifteen miles to the weſtward of Guiſe, and as many to the northward of La Fere. The collegiate church is a handſom pile of buildings; and there are ſeveral other fine churches and monaſteries in the place. They have a prodigious manufacture of fine linen, of which, it is ſaid, they make in the town and neighbourhood no leſs than ſixty thouſand pieces annually.

Ham.

Ham is a little fortified town, ſituate in a plain on the river Somme, four leagues to the weſtward of St. Quintin, defended by a caſtle.

The Thierache.

The Thierache is the moſt eaſtern part of Picardy, lying between Hainault, Champagne, Vermandois and Laonois; the chief towns whereof are, 1. La Fere, 2. La Capelle. 3. Guiſe. 4. Marie. 5. Vervins.

La Fere

La Fere is ſituated on the confines of the Iſle of France, in a moraſs near the river Oyſe, naturally ſtrong, and defended by a caſtle; but moſt of the fortifications have been demoliſhed. In the neighbouring foreſt, to which this town communicates its name, is abundance of glaſs made of all kinds, which occaſions a pretty briſk trade here.

Vervins.

Vervins ſtands upon an eminence near the river Serre, not far from Laon, famous for a treaty of peace concluded there between France and Spain, anno 1598. They have a pretty good trade in corn.

Guiſe.

Guiſe, *Guiſia, Guiſium Caſtrum*, is ſituated on the river Oyſe, fifteen miles north-eaſt of La Fere, a fortified town, defended by a caſtle and other works, and was erected into a dutchy and peerage by FRANCIS I. which title was conferred on CLAUD, the youngeſt ſon of the Duke of Lorrain, whoſe grandſon HENRY, Duke of Guiſe, was head of the catholick league, and fomented a rebellion againſt HENRY III. and HENRY IV. of France for ſeveral years. He was near advancing himſelf to the throne, but was at length reduced by HENRY IV. and peace reſtored to the kingdom.

Middle Picardy. Amiens county. Chief towns.

Middle Picardy comprehends the county of Amiens, and the country of Santerre. The county of Amiens, *Ager Ambionenſis*, is bounded by Artois, on the north; by Santerre, on the eaſt; by Beauvaiſis, on the ſouth; and by the country of Caux, on the weſt; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Amiens. 2. Dourlans. 3. Corbie. 4. Conti. 5. Pecquigny. 6. Poix. And, 7. Ligniers.

Amiens city.

Amiens, *Ambianum*, a large city, the capital of Picardy, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Somme, which here divides itſelf into three channels, and having run through the town, unites its ſtreams again. It ſtands about twenty-eight leagues north of Paris, and as many to the ſouthward of Calais. The houſes are well built, the ſtreets ſpacious, and it is adorned with ſome handſom ſquares. It is a Biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Rheims. The cathedral is eſteemed one of the largeſt and fineſt in France, and boaſts much of its valuable reliques. CÆSAR having taken this town, convened a general aſſembly of the Gauls here. The Emperors Antoninus, Marcus Aurelius, Conſtantin, Conſtans, Julian, and ſeveral others, reſided here a conſiderable time; and here King EDWARD III. did homage to PHILIP de Valois, King of France, for the dutchy of Guienne. It is encompaſſed with a wall and other fortifications, and the ramparts pleaſantly planted with trees. They have lately erected ſocieties of men of wit and learning in this and ſeveral other great towns of France, in imitation of the cities of Italy.

Corbie.

Corbie is a little fortified town on the Somme, ſix miles north-eaſt of Amiens, moſt remarkable for its abbey founded by BETHILDA, Queen of France, anno 662, the abbot whereof is lord of the place and of the adjacent country.

Conti.

Conti is a little town ſituate on the Selle, five leagues ſouth-weſt of Amiens, conſiderable only for giving title to a prince of the houſe of Bourbon.

Santerre diſtrict.

The diſtrict of Santerre is bounded by Vermandois on the eaſt, and the county of Amiens on the weſt; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Montdidier. 2. Roye. 3. Peronne. 4. Ancre. 5. Neſly. 6. Chaunes. 7. Halluin. 8. Morevil 9. Crevecœur.

Montdidier.

Montdidier, *Mons Deſiderii*, a little ſtrong town ſituate on a hill five leagues to the ſouthward of Amiens, containing five pariſhes and ſeveral convents, beſides the priory of Notre Dame.

Peronne.

Peronne is ſituated in a moraſs on the river Somme, twenty-five miles to the eaſtward of Amiens, and eſteemed a very ſtrong town. The country about it is famous for the linen manufacture. The other towns of this part of Picardy do not merit a particular deſcription.

Lower Picardy.

The Lower Picardy, as has been obſerved, comprehends the Boulonois, the Reconquer'd Country, the county of Ponthieu and the Vimen.

Boulonois.

The Boulonois, *Comitatus Bolonienſis*, lies between Artois, the county of Ponthieu, the Reconquered Country and ſtreights of Calais; being about twelve leagues long and eight broad; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Boulogne. 2. Ambleteuſe. 3. Monthulin. 4. Eſtaples.

Boulogne.

Boulogne, ſuppoſed to be the *Iccius Portus* of CÆSAR by ſome, and *Getoraicum* by others, is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt at the mouth of the little river Liane, about fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Calais; it was formerly very conſiderable on account of its trade, but the harbour is ſpoiled, and will not admit of veſſels of burden. It is divided into the upper and lower town, the whole encompaſſed with a wall and other fortifications, and defended by a citadel. It is a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Rheims, and has a cathedral, two parochial churches, an abbey, and ſeveral other monaſteries within its walls. King HENRY VIII. of England took this town, but reſtored it by a treaty afterwards for eight hundred thouſand crowns; the Engliſh miniſtry being of opinion, it ſeems, that it would coſt more keeping than it was worth.

Ambleteuſe.

Ambleteuſe is a little town ſituated on the ſea, about ſeven miles to the northward of Boulogne, where, it is ſaid, a good harbour might be made for receiving men of war of forty guns; but the French, though they begun it in the laſt war, did not proceed in this work, which inclines me to believe that they did not find it feiſible.

Eſtaples.

Eſtaples, *Stapulæ*, is ſituated at the mouth of the river Canche, four leagues to the ſouthward of Boulogne, a little fortified town, but upon the decline at preſent.

Reconquered country. The county of Guines.

The Reconquered Country obtained its name from its being retaken from the Engliſh, and contains the counties of Guines and Oye, lying to the northward of the Boulonois The county of Guines is about four leagues long and as many broad, the chief towns whereof are Guines and Ardres.

Guines town.

Guines is a ſmall town ſituate in a marſh, four miles ſouth of Calais, and about ſix diſtant from the ſea. The Engliſh poſſeſſed themſelves of it, and it was confirmed to them by treaty in the year 1360, and they kept poſſeſſion of it near two hundred years.

Ardres.

Ardres is a little town ſituate alſo in a moraſs, four miles ſouth-eaſt of Guines.

The county of Oye. Calais.

The county of Oye is contiguous to that of Guines, the chief town whereof is Calais, *Caletum*, ſituate in a flat marſhy country upon the ſea-coaſt, about ten miles to the weſtward of Graveling, and twenty-four-ſouth eaſt of Dover. The figure of the place taking in the citadel is an oblong ſquare, of which the two longeſt ſides are about twelve hundred yards, and the ſhorteſt five hundred. It extends itſelf along the ſea-coaſt, on which ſide it is fortified as well as towards the land, and is ſurrounded with a good covered way. The fort Nieulai, which ſtands at one end, is looked upon as an excellent piece of fortification, and the citadel is advantageouſly ſituated, ſo as to command the town, the harbour, and the adjacent country; and there are ſluices by which they

CHAP. V.

can overflow the country on the land-ſide. The harbour is choaked up, and will not admit of veſſels of burthen. There is but one pariſh and four convents in the place, and yet the French compute the inhabitants to be about five thouſand. King **EDWARD** III. of England took this town in the year 1347, after eleven months ſiege, and peopled it with Engliſh, who held it till 1558, being two hundred years and upwards, when it was taken by the Duke of Guiſe, during that weak and unfortunate reign of Queen **MARY** I. There is a noble canal at Calais, by which the town has a communication with St. Omers, Graveling, Dunkirk, Bergues and Ypres.

Ponthieu county.

The county of Ponthieu lies between the rivers Somme and Canche, and takes its name from the great number of bridges laid over the ſeveral rivers and marſhes, with which the country abounds; the chief towns are, 1. Abbeville. 2. Crecy. 3. Montrevil. 4. Pont de Reny. 5. Rue. And, 6. St. Riquier.

Abbeville.

Abbeville, *Abbatis Villa*, the capital of Ponthieu, forty miles ſouth of Boulogne, is ſituated on the river Somme, which divides it into two parts, in a marſhy dirty country, and conſiſts of twelve pariſhes, beſides ſeveral monaſteries of both ſexes. Here is a conſiderable manufacture of coarſe linen, and a pretty good trade, the town being but fourteen or fifteen miles diſtant from the Engliſh channel, with which it has a communication by the river Somme.

Creſſy.

Crecy, or Creſſy, is a little town ſituate on the river Authie, three leagues to the northward of Abbeville, remarkable for the victory which the Engliſh obtained over the French, the 24th of Auguſt, 1346, under the conduct of King **EDWARD** III.

Montrevil.

Montrevil, *Monaſteriolum*, is a fortified town ſituated on a hill, the foot whereof is waſhed by the river Canche, being about three leagues to the eaſtward of the Britiſh channel, from whence boats of good burthen come up to the town; it contains eight pariſhes, beſides ſeveral monaſteries.

The Vemen.

The Vemen is a little diſtrict, ſometimes reckoned part of Ponthieu, the chief towns whereof are St. Valeri, Gamaches, and Crotoy.

St. Valeri.

St. Valeri, *Faunum Sancti Valerici*, is ſituated at the mouth of the river Somme, four leagues below Abbeville, and is a place of ſome trade. Picardy lying upon the ſea, and abounding in navigable rivers and canals, with ſeveral good manufactures both of linen and woollen, is one of the moſt conſiderable provinces for trade in the kingdom.

The military government of Picardy.

The governor of Picardy has under him three lieutenants-general, viz. one for Picardy; a ſecond for Santerre; and a third for Artois, which laſt, notwithſtanding it is one of the provinces of the Low Countries (and was deſcribed amongſt them) yet ſince it has been conquered and yielded to France, is included in the general government of Picardy. The towns within the government of the lieutenant-general of Picardy are, Calais, Ardres, Boulogne, the town of Montreville, St. Valeri on the Somme; Abbeville, of which the mayor and aldermen have the government, only in time of war the King ſends them a commander; Dourlans, the town and citadel of Amiens, St. Quintin, the town and caſtle of Ham, Guiſe, La Fere, Rebemont and Marle. The general lieutenancy of Santerre comprehends Peronne, Roy and Montdidier. And in the general lieutenancy of Artois are the towns of St. Omers, Aire, Fort St. Francis, Heſdin, the town and citadel of Arras, and Bethune, which are all fortified towns, and moſt of them very ſtrong places. It is to be obſerved alſo, that in time of war, the inhabitants of the Boulonois are all obliged to be under arms, and ſignalized themſelves in the late wars; they conſiſt of ten regiments of infantry, of ten companies each, the officers are named by the governor, and have the King's commiſſion as regular troops; the cavalry is compoſed of five regiments, of four troops each, beſides which they have a troop of carabineers, and two troops of dragoons, making in the whole a body of three thouſand men.

CHAP. IV.

Contains the deſcription of Champagne.

CHAP. VI.

Champagne, the ſituation and extent.

CHampagne obtained its name from the face of the country, conſiſting chiefly of wide fields and plains, and is bounded by Picardy and the Low Countries, on the north; by Lorrain, on the eaſt; by Burgundy, on the ſouth; and by the Iſle of France, on the weſt; extending fifty-four leagues in length from north to ſouth, and forty-ſix in breadth from eaſt to weſt: but tho' the middle of the country is plain and open, the extreme parts are covered with woods, mountains and little fruitful hills, producing corn, and excellent wine and fruits. It was the ſeat of the Rhemi, ſo often mentioned by Cæſar, who were divided into the Tricaſſes, Lingones, Catalauni, Meldæ and Senones. The principal rivers are the Maeſe or Meuſe, the Seine, the Marne, the Aube, and the Aiſne, which have already been deſcribed. They have alſo ſome excellent mineral waters, and the air is temperate and healthful, which occaſions the natives, according to my author, to be of a mild ſweet diſpoſition, but ſoft and ſimple even to a proverb.

Rivers.

Subdiviſion of the country.

It is uſually divided into eight almoſt equal parts, viz. 1. Champagne proper. 2. The Remois. 3. The Perthois. 4. The Rhetelois. 5. The Vallage. 6. Boſſigny. 7. The Senonois. And, 8. The Brie Champenoiſe.

Champagne Proper, chief towns.

Champagne Proper, is ſituated about the middle of the country, the chief towns whereof are, 1. Troyes. 2. Chalons. 3. St. Menehoud. 4. Vertus. 5. Eſpernay. 6. Pont ſur Seine. 7. Mery. 8. Rameru, 9. Plaucy. 10. Ai. And, 11. Dormans.

Troyes.

Troyes, *Auguſtomana* and *Civitas Tricaſſium*, is ſuppoſed to have taken its name from three caſtles anciently erected here. It is the capital of the province, and ſituated on the river Seine, about fourſcore miles ſouth-eaſt of Paris, in a fruitful country, being ſurrounded with a wall and other fortifications, and contains two collegiate, ſix parochial churches, and three abbeys, beſides the cathedral, for it is a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Sens. The principal trade is in linen, and it was once computed to contain fifty thouſand ſouls, but ſo much declined, that there are not fifteen thouſand people in it at preſent.

Chalons.

Chalons, *Catalaunum*, is ſituated in a pleaſant fruitful plain on the river Marne, by which it is divided into three parts that have a communication by bridges, being fifty miles to the northward of Troyes, and eighty eaſt of Paris. It is encompaſſed with a wall and other fortifications, and contains twelve pariſhes, three abbeys, and ſeveral other monaſteries; the ſtreets and publick places are neat and ſpacious, and make the better appearance on account of the houſes being built with white ſtone; it is a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Rheims, the cathedral dedicated to St. Stephen is remarkable only for its high tower. This city was anciently governed by Counts, who transferring their right to the biſhop, he was dignified with the title of Count and Peer of France. The plains about this city being exceeding large, the French writers are of opinion, that theſe were the fields where that memorable battle was fought between Merovee, King of the Franks, Theodorick King of the Goths, and Ætius the Roman general, on one ſide; and Attila the Hun, on the other; wherein, according to tradition, the Huns loſt two hundred thouſand men. This town has a pretty good trade in linen and woollen cloth, and corn, which they tranſport to Paris by the Marne. The parliament of Paris was adjourned hither during the rebellion of the Guiſes and the League.

Pons ſur Seine.

Pons ſur Seine, *Pons ad Sequanam*, is a little town ſituate on the Seine, ſeven leagues below Troyes, remarkable for a magnificent caſtle or palace built here, by Monſier Chavigny, ſecretary of ſtate to the French King, and for its beautiful gardens.

The Rhemois.

The Rhemois lies on the north-weſt part of Champagne, on the confines of the Iſle of France; the chief towns whereof are, Rheims, Fimes, and Chateau Portien.

Chief towns

Rheims.

Rheims, *Civitas Rhemorum* and *Durocortorum*, is ſituated in a fine plain on the river Veſle, about ſeventy miles north of Troyes, and as much north-eaſt of Paris, encompaſſed with a wall a league in circumference, being one of the moſt elegant cities in France. The houſes are well-built, the ſtreets and ſquares ſpacious, the churches magnificent and beautiful, eſpecially the cathedral dedicated to the Virgin Mary, built by Clotildis, the wife of Clovis, the firſt chriſtian King of France. It is a vaſt Gothick building, but admirably well deſigned; in the front whereof is abundance of good ſculpture, containing part of the ſacred hiſtory; beſides which, there are four abbeys, ſeveral convents, and a univerſity eſtabliſhed by Charles Cardinal of Lorrain, formerly archbiſhop of this ſee. This city is held to be very ancient, three of the gates ſtill bearing the name of ſo many heathen Gods; as the gate of the Sun, and the gates of Mars and Ceres. In the year 1677, a triumphal arch was dug up, which was formerly the northern gate, ſuppoſed to be erected to the honour of Cæsar, or, according to others, of Julian the apoſtate, when after the conqueſt of the Germans, he paſſed by Rheims in his way to Paris. It is compoſed of three arches of the Corinthian order, that in the middle being thirty-five foot high and twelve broad; the baſs-reliefs whereof repreſent a woman with a Cornucopia, to ſhew the fertility of the country; and that on the right, hath Rhemus and Romulus ſucking a wolf, with the ſhepherd Fauſtulus and Laurentia his wife ſtanding by them. On the third arch, Leda is ſeen in Jupiter's embraces, metamorphos'd into a ſwan, and Cupid holding a lighted torch in his hand. Near this arch are the remains of an ancient Roman caſtle, and about two hundred paces from the town, the ruins of an amphitheatre, and of another triumphal arch. The abbey of St. Remy is a ſpacious building, and in the church belonging to it are the tombs of King Lewis de Outremer, Lothaire and Lewis V. who were of the line of Charlemain. In the treaſury they have abundance of precious reliques, and among the reſt the holy phial, which contains the oil uſed at the conſecration of their Kings, and the paſtoral ſtaff of St. Remi, whoſe tomb is beautifully adorned with ſculptures, pillars and ſtatues, and in the middle of them the buſt of Lewis XIII. in his robes of ſtate. The holy oil, according to tradition, was brought from heaven by a white dove, at the conſecration of Clovis I. The Archbiſhop of this ſee, ever ſince the reign of Lewis VII. has been deemed to have right to conſecrate the Kings of France, being the firſt Duke and eccleſiaſtical Peer of the realm; beſides whom, that Prince appointed eleven more to aſſiſt at this ceremony, viz. The Biſhops of Laon and Langres, who are alſo Dukes and Peers; the Biſhops of Beauvais, Noyon and Chalons, who are Counts and Peers, and ſix of the lay nobility, viz. the Dukes of Burgundy, Guienne, and Normandy, and the counts of Thoulouſe, Champagne, and Flanders; the ceremony being always performed in the metropolitan church of this city, if nothing extraordinary happen to prevent it, as the plague, civil wars, or the like.

The Perthois, chief towns.

The Perthois lies on the frontiers of Lorrain, between the rivers Marne and Ornay, the chief towns whereof are, 1. Vitry le Francois, And, 2. St. Diſier.

Vitry.

Vitry Francois, *Victoriacum Francium*, is a fortified town ſituated in a fine plain on the river Marne, ſeven leagues ſouth-eaſt of Chalons, and received its name from Francis I. The principal trade of the place is in grain.

St. Diſier.

St. Diſier, *Fanum Sanctum Deſiderii*, is ſituated alſo on the Marne, ſeven leagues above Vitry; the forges in the neighbourhood occaſion its having a pretty good trade in iron ware.

The Rhetelois.

The Rhetelois is the moſt northerly part of the province of Champagne, the chief towns whereof are, 1. Rhetel. 2. Meſieres. 3. Charleville. 4. Doncheri. 5. Ronoy. 6. Sedan. 7. Roncourt. And, 8. Monſan.

Rhetel.

Rhetel is ſituated on the Aiſne, about twenty miles north of Rheims, and is the capital of a Dutchy, remarkable for little but a victory obtained near it by the French over the Spaniards, in the year 1650.

Meſieres.

Meſieres, *Maderiacum*, ſituate on the Meuſe, thirty miles north-eaſt of Rheims, ſtrongly fortified and defended by a citadel, being a paſs towards Luxemburg.

Charleville.

Charleville, *Carolopolis*, ſtands alſo on the Meuſe, five miles north-weſt of Meziers, eſteemed one of the prettieſt towns of France; and on the oppoſite ſide of the river lies the fortreſs of Mount Olympius.

Rocroy.

Rocroy, *Rupes Regia*, is a little fortified town advantageouſly ſituated on the Frontiers of Hainault, ſo encompaſſed with woods that it is of very difficult acceſs, remarkable chiefly for a victory obtained by the French, commanded by the Duke of Anguien, afterwards Prince of Conde, over the Spaniards, anno 1643.

Sedan.

Sedan is ſituated on the Meuſe, fifteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Charleville, and twenty-five weſt of Luxemburg, and gives title to a litte principality. It is a ſmall town, but well fortified and defended by a caſtle, where the famous Marſhal Turenne was born, being deſcended from the family of De la Tour, formerly Princes of Sedan.

The Vallage.

Chief towns.

The Vallage is a little country which takes its name from its valleys, and lies between the Perthois and Baſſigny; the chief places whereof are, Joinville, Vaſſi, Eſcaron, Briene, Vignoris, Bar ſur Aube, Clairvaux and Chateau-Villain.

Joinville.

Joinville is ſituated on the Marne, at the foot of a mountain ſix leagues ſouth of St. Diſier. It is a ſmall town, and moſt remarkable for the holy league being formed here an. 1552, which occaſioned ſuch diſtractions in France.

Bar ſur Aube.

Bar ſur Aube, ſituate on the river Aube, twenty-five miles eaſt of Troyes, is remarkable for its excellent wine.

Baſſigny.

Baſſigny is ſituated on the ſouth-eaſt part of Champagne, the chief towns whereof are, Langres, Chaumont, Montigni le Roy, and Bourbonne les Bains.

Langres.

Langres, *Civitas Lingonum*, is a fortified town, ſituate on a hill near the confines of Lorrain and Franche Comte, thirty miles to the ſouthward of Joinville. It is a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Lyons, the biſhop being one of the Dukes and Peers of France, and temporal as well as eccleſiaſtical Lord of this city. The town of Bourbonne, famous for its baths, lies about ſix leagues from hence.

Bourbonne.

Chaumont.

Chaumont is ſituated on the top of a high mountain, at the foot whereof runs the river Marne, thirteen miles north-weſt of Langres.

The Senonois.

The Senonois is the ſouth-weſt part of Champagne, the ancient inhabitants whereof made great conqueſts in Italy. giving their name to the town of Senigallia, *Senonum Gallia*, Sienna, &c. The chief towns are Sens, Pont ſur Yonne, St. Florentin, Tonerre, Brais, Chablais, and Nogent ſur Seine.

Chief towns.

Sens.

Sens, *Civitas Senonum*, is ſituated on the river Yonne, twenty-ſix leagues ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and fifteen to the weſtward of Troyes. It is a large well-built town, and the ſee of an Archbiſhop (who calls himſelf primate of the Gauls and Germans) the cathedral dedicated to St. STEPHEN is a magnificent ſtructure; at the altar whereof is a golden table enriched with precious ſtones, and upon it in baſs-relief the four Evangeliſts, with St. STEPHEN on his knees in the middle of them.

Chably.

Chably, about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Sens on the frontiers of Burgundy, is a good town, and remarkable for its excellent wines growing in the neighbourhood.

The Brie.

The Brie Champagnoiſe lies on the north of the Senonois, between the rivers Seine and Marne, and abounds in paſture, corn and fruits; the chief towns whereof are Meaux, Provins, Chateau-Thierry, Colomiers, Sezanne, and Montereau-faut-Yonne.

Chief towns.

Meaux.

Meaux, *Meldarum Urbs*, is ſituated on the river Marne, ten leagues to the eaſtward of Paris, a well-built flouriſhing populous city, divided into two parts by the river; it is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Paris, the cathedral is dedicated to St. STEPHEN, beſides which there are ſeveral collegiate and parochial churches and monaſteries in the place. Here CALVIN's doctrine was firſt preached in the kingdom, for adhering to which, ſeveral of the inhabitants were executed in the year 1525. The Engliſh took this town in the year 1421, after a three months ſiege. The adjacent country produces corn, wine, and wool; but their wine is not the beſt.

Provins.

Provins is ſituated on the little river Vouſie, about thirty miles to the ſouthward of Meaux, not conſiderable for any thing at preſent, unleſs the Provins roſes, which this town has communicated its name to.

Chateau-Thierry.

Chateau-Thierry is a ſtrong town with a caſtle pleaſantly ſituated on the Marne, about thirty miles to the eaſtward of Meaux, being the capital of a dutchy and peerage; the adjacent country abounds in corn and wine, which they tranſport to Paris.

Montereau.

Montereau is ſituated at the conflux of the Seine and Yonne, twelve leagues ſouth of Meaux, moſt remarkable in hiſtory for the murder of the Duke of Burgundy, an. 1419, in the preſence of the DAUPHIN, afterwards King of France, by the name of CHARLES VII. Whereupon PHILIP, Duke of Burgundy, his ſon, introduced the Engliſh into France, and cauſed the ſpilling of more blood in the kingdom, than in any of their former wars. The reſt of the towns in Champagne do not require a particular deſcription.

The ancient ſtate of Champagne.

CÆSAR found Champagne inhabited by the Rhemi, Tricaſſes, Lingones, Catalauni, Meldæ and Senones, being ſo many petty principalities or ſtates, of whom the Rhemi were the moſt powerful. It afterwards conſtituted part of Celtick and part of Belgick Gaul. In the diviſion, which the ſons of CLOVIS I. and CLOTAIRE I. made of their dominions, Champagne made part of the kingdom of Auſtraſia, of which Mets was the capital. Theſe Princes eſtabliſhed Dukes and Counts in this country, with a limited authority, who at length however aſſumed the abſolute ſovereignty of the province, and became ſo potent, that they maintained wars againſt the Kings of France and Burgundy. The French hiſtorians relate, that ROBERT the Son of HERBERT II. was the firſt hereditary Count, whoſe poſterity took the title of Palatins, about the year 958. This country continued to be governed by Counts upwards of three hundred years, but that they were vaſſals or feudatories of France is evident, ſay the French hiſtorians, becauſe they were Peers of that kingdom, and carried the royal banner at the conſecration of their Kings; and poſſibly they might be as much ſubject to France, as the Kings of Great Britain and Pruſſia are at this day to the Emperor, who have their reſpective offices at the coronation of the Emperor, and the titles of Electors and Princes of the empire. But however that be, the Counts of Champagne had a power of aſſembling their ſtates, by directing their writs of ſummons to the ſeven Counts, who were their ſubjects, and to enact laws without aſking leave of the French King. The laſt Count of Champagne was HENRY I. King of Navarre, who leaving iſſue one only daughter named JANE, that married PHILIP the Fair, King of France, about the year 1285, this province thereby became united to the kingdom of France.

The produce and manufactures of Champagne.

The province of Champagne produces corn, wine, wool, iron, wood, cattle and good paſture; their principal manufactures are thoſe of linen, woollen and iron ware. The wine of Champagne which they export has a mighty reputation, but there is a great deal of wine ſpent in the country that is very indifferent, the beſt goes to market.

The military government of Champagne.

The government of Champagne is one of the moſt conſiderable in the kingdom; beſides the governor-general, and his lieutenant-general, there are four other lieutenant-generals, who have each of them their ſeparate diviſions; one of them commands in the baillage of Rheims; a ſecond the baillages of Vitry and Chamont; a third the baillages of Troyes, Langres and Sens; and a fourth the Brie Champenois. Of all the fortified towns, there were in this province before the late King extended his conqueſts beyond it, there are not more than three of any ſtrength at preſent, viz. Mezieres, Rocroy and Sedan; but ſeveral other towns

Fortified towns.

however ſtill retain their reſpective governors, as Troyes, Chalvas, Menehead, Vitry, Langres, Chaumont, St. Dizier, Eſpernay, Bar ſur Aube, Vaucoleurs, Seſanne, Fimes, Vaſſy, Sens and Meaux. The city of Rheims has no governor, only a captain of the gates.

CHAP. VII.

Contains a deſcription of the Dutchy of Burgundy.

CHAP. VII.

Burgundy Dutchy, the ſituation and extent of it.

THE government of Burgundy comprehends the Dutchy of Burgundy, the Breſſe, Bugey, and the Baillage of Gex; and is bounded by Champagne, on the north; by Franche Comte, or the county of Burgundy, on the eaſt; by Lyonois, on the ſouth; and by the Bourbonois and Nivernois, on the weſt; extending about five and forty leagues in length from north to ſouth, and thirty in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Rivers. The Saone &c.

The rivers which water this province are the Seine, the Saone, the Armaucon, the Dehune, the Brebince, the Ouche, the Tille, and the Aine. The Saone riſes in Lorrain, and runs the whole length of this province from north to ſouth, uniting its ſtreams with the Rhone at Lyons, and is much the moſt conſiderable of the above-mentioned rivers.

Subdiviſion.

The French geographers divide the government of Burgundy into thirteen diſtricts, or ſubdiviſions, viz. 1. The Dijonois. 2. The Autunois. 3. The Chalonois. 4. The Baillage of the Mountains. 5. The county or Baillage of Auxerre. 6. The Auxois. 7. The County of Chalons. 8. The Briennois. 9. The Maſconois. 10. The Breſſe. 11. The Principality of Dombes. 12. The Bugey. And, 13. The country of Gex.

The Dijonois.

The Dijonois lies between Champagne, Franche Comte, the Auxois and the Autunois; the chief towns are Dijon, Nuits, Beaume, St. John de Laune and Auſſonne.

Dijon city

Dijon, *Divio*, capital of the dutchy, is ſituated between two ſmall rivers which ſurround it, namely, the Ouche and the Suzon, about ſixty miles ſouth of Troyes in Champagne, and about an hundred and forty ſouth-eaſt of Paris. It is an hour's walk in circumference, fortified after the antique way, and defended by a caſtle flank'd with great round towers. There are in it ſeven pariſhes, two abbeys, and ſeveral other convents and hoſpitals; the Jeſuits college is one of the fineſt in France, and there is a large ancient palace of the Dukes of Burgundy; but neither this or the town-houſe have any thing very remarkable in them. The reſt of the towns in this diſtrict do not require a particular deſcription.

The Autunois.

The Autunois lies ſouth-weſt of the Dijonois, the chief towns whereof are, 1. Autun. 2. Bourbon Lancy. And, 3. Montcennis.

Autun city

Autun, *Bibracte*, *Auguſtodunum*, is ſituated on the river Aroux, at the foot of three great mountains; one whereof is ſo repleniſhed with ſprings, that it ſupplies every part of the town with water. It is about a quarter of a league in length, and as much in breadth, a biſhop's ſee, contains beſides the cathedral church eight pariſhes, and ſeveral convents and hoſpitals, and is a place of very great antiquity. In the middle of the town is an open ſpace, called the Field of Mars, and there are ſtill the remains of three Pagan temples, one of them dedicated to JANUS, and another to DIANA. Here are alſo the ruins of a theatre, a cirque and a pyramid; which laſt to all appearance hath been a tomb. There are alſo two ancient gates of excellent workmanſhip, which ſome have taken for triumphal arches.

CHAP. VII.

Bourbon Lancy.

Bourbon Lancy, *Borbonium Anſelmum*, is ſituated on the ſide of a mountain, twelve leagues ſouth-weſt of Autun, near the river Loire. It is divided into three parts, and defended by an old caſtle, and other antique fortifications, and contains three pariſhes; but what it has been famous for ever ſince the time of the ancient Romans, is its hot baths and mineral waters, which are in good eſteem at this day.

The Chalonois.

The Chalonois is bounded by the Dijonois, on the north; Franche Comte, on the eaſt; La Breſſe, on the ſouth; and the Charolois, on the weſt; being about fifteen leagues long and ten broad; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Chalon. 2. Verdun. 3. Seurre. And, 4. Lohans.

Chalon.

Chalon, *Cabillonum*, is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Saone, in a large fruitful plain, thirty miles ſouth of Dijon. It is ſurrounded by a wall and other fortifications, and defended by a caſtle, a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Lyons, the cathedral a magnificent ſtructure; beſides which, there are ſeveral convents of both ſexes; it is alſo a place of good trade.

The Baillage of the Mountains

The Baillage of the Mountains is bounded on the north and eaſt, by Champagne; on the ſouth, by the Dijonois; and on the weſt, by another part of Champagne. The chief towns are, 1. Chatillon. 2. Bar ſur Seine. 3. Muſſy-l'Eveque. 4. Aiſey le Duc. And, 5. Val des Choux.

Chatillon.

Chatillon ſur Seine, *Caſtellio ad Sequanam*, is ſituated on the river Seine, partly on a hill, and partly in a bottom, reſembling an amphitheatre. It conſiſts but of one pariſh, beſides which there are ſeveral collegiate and conventual churches, and an hoſpital for the entertainment of poor travellers, with a college for teaching humanity.

The county of Auxerre.

The Country or Baillage of Auxerre, is bounded by Champagne, on the north and eaſt; and by Nivernois, on the ſouth-weſt. The chief towns are, 1. Auxerre. 2. Crevant. And, 3. Coulange.

Auxerre.

Auxerre, *Antiſſidorum*, is ſituated on the river Yonne, eighteen leagues north-weſt of Dijon. It is a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Sens, and contains eight pariſhes, beſides ſeveral convents and a college for Jeſuits.

The Auxois.

The Auxois lies between the Dijonois, the Autunois, and the Auxerrois. The chief towns are, 1. Semur. 2. Flavigny. 3. Montbard. 4. Noyers. 5. Avalon. 6. Arnay le Duc. 7. Saulien. And, 8. Tanlay.

Semur.

Semur is ſituated on the river Armancon, thirty miles north-weſt of Dijon, the greateſt part of it on a ſteep rock, and is about two thouſand four hundred paces in circumference, beſides the ſuburbs, being ſurrounded by a wall and other fortifications, and defended by a caſtle.

The county of Charolois.

The county of Charolois hath the Chalonois on the north, and the Maſconois on the eaſt, being twelve leagues in length and ſeven in breadth. The chief towns are, 1. Charolles. 2. Paray le Monial. And, 3. Toulon.

Charolles.

Charolles is a little town ſituate on the Recouſe, thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Chalons; it is a pleaſant place, but not remarkable for any thing but the remains of an ancient caſtle which belonged to the Counts of Charolois.

The Briennois.

The Briennois is a little baillage, not above four leagues over, on the ſouth-weſt confines of Burgundy, and hath in it only one little town called Semur, ſituate about half a league from the river Loyre.

Semur. The Maſconois.

The Maſconois is divided from Breſſe by the river Saone, and contains the towns of, 1. Maſcon. 2. Tournus. 3. Clugny. 4. St. Geugoux. And, 5. Mercigny.

Maſcon.

Maſcon is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the river Saone, which ſeparates it from La Breſſe, but has a communication with it by a fine ſtone bridge; the town extends it ſelf in form of a creſcent, and is about three thouſand paces in circumference, containing about ſix thouſand people, but the ſtreets are narrow and ill paved, and there are ſcarce any ſquares or open places; it is a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Lyons, the cathedral a dark old building, beſides which there are ſeveral convents of both ſexes, and hoſpitals.

Clugny.

Clugny is ſituated in a valley between two hills upon the little river Groſne, about three leagues ſouth weſt of Maſcon, and is of a larger extent, but not ſo populous, famous chiefly for its fine abby, which depends immediately on the Pope. The church whereof is one of the largeſt in the kingdom, and great numbers of illuſtrious perſons have been interred there, particularly Cardinal BOUILLON, who erected a moſt magnificent mauſoleum here for himſelf and his family. This abbey was poſſeſſed anciently of a prodigious treaſure, which the Catholicks complain they were plundered of by the Calviniſts in the civil wars, as they were of their library, which contained abundance of valuable manuſcripts.

La Breſſe.

La Breſſe is ſituated to the eaſtward of the Maſconois and the river Saone, being about ſixteen leagues in length from north to ſouth, and nine in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The chief towns are, 1. Bourg. 2. Pont de Vaux. 3. Pont de Veſle. 4. Montluel. 5. Chaſtillon. And, 6. Beauge.

Bourg.

Bourg, the capital of La Breſſe, is ſituated in a flat country on the river Reſouſſe, twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Maſcon, and is about two thouſand ſix hundred paces in circumference, being divided into ſeven quarters or wards. The church of Notre Dame is both collegiate and parochial; beſides which there are convents of Cordeliers, Jacobites, Capuchins, Jeſuits, and ſeveral nunneries, which have their reſpective churches or chapels. All the trade of the place conſiſts in horſes, black cattle and ſkins; their horſes are in great eſteem. The Dukes of Savoy were heretofore poſſeſſed of this town and country; and in the beautiful church of St. Brou, which ſtands about a mile to the eaſtward of the town, are ſtill ſeveral noble monuments of that family, particularly the tomb of PHILIBERT II. Duke of Savoy, and of MARGARET of Auſtria his widow which ſtand in the choir, and are eſteemed admirable pieces of workmanſhip.

The principality of Dombes.

The principality of Dombes, formerly a part of Breſſe, is bounded by the Maſconois on the north, by La Breſſe on the north-eaſt, and by Lyonois and Dauphine on the ſouth and weſt, being about nine leagues in length, and as many in breadth, a pleaſant fruitful country, and divided into twelve chatellanies. The chief towns are, 1. Trevoux. 2. Thoiſſei. And, 3. Montmerle.

Trevoux.

Trevoux, *Trivotium*, is ſituated on an eminence near the river Saone, twenty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Bourg, and is ſaid to have taken its name from its ſituation on one of the highways which AGRIPPA made into Gaul, and here divides into three branches. It is the capital of the principality of Dombes, which belongs to the Dukes of Maine, who have built a handſom palace for the parliament and courts of juſtice held here, a palace for the governor, a mint, a printing-houſe, and other publick edifices; beſides which, there are ſeveral convents, and an hoſpital founded by ANNE-MARY-LOUISE of Orleans, late ſovereign of Dombes.

The diſtrict of Bugey.

The diſtrict of Bugey is bounded by Franche Comte, or the county of Burgundy and Gex on the north; by Savoy, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhone, on the eaſt; by Dauphiné, from which it is alſo ſeparated by the Rhone on the ſouth, and by La Breſſe on the weſt, being ſixteen leagues in length and ten in breadth; the Savoyards were anciently lords of this country alſo, which they yielded to the French in 1601. The chief towns are, 1. Belley. 2. Nautua. 3. Seiſſel. And, 4. St. Rambert.

Belley.

Belley, *Bellica*, is ſituated at the ſouth-eaſt part of the country, not far from the Rhone, about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Trevoux, being two thouſand paces in circumference. It is a biſhop's ſee, who is both ſpiritual and temporal Lord of the place, and while it belonged to the empire claimed a ſeat in the diet. The cathedral is dedicated to St. JOHN BAPTIST; beſides which, there is but one pariſh church and ſome convents of both ſexes.

Seiſſel.

Seiſſel is a large town ſituate on the river Rhone, by which it is divided in two parts that have a communication by a bridge, being about twenty miles to the northward of Belley, and fifteen to the weſtward of Annecy in Savoy. Here the Rhone firſt begins to be navigable, and here they unload all the ſalt that is carried into Savoy and Switzerland. The church of Notre Dame is the only parochial church; beſides which there are ſeveral convents in the place.

The country of Gex.

The town of Gex.

The country of Gex is bounded by the country of Vaux in Switzerland towards the north; by the lake and town of Geneva on the eaſt; by the Rhone and the Genevois, a county of Savoy, on the ſouth, and by the mountains of St. Claude a Jura, and the Franche Comte toward the weſt, being about ſeven leagues in length and three in breadth. This country, as well as La Breſſe, was yielded to France by the Duke of Savoy, in the year 1601. The only conſiderable town whereof is Gex, ſituate at the foot of mount St. Claud, which divides it from Franche Comte, being twelve miles north-weſt of Geneva. The church of St. Peter and St. Paul is the only pariſh church in the place; beſides which, there are three convents of friars, and one of nuns; which laſt gives entertainment chiefly to ſuch as are new converts to the catholick faith, of whom they pretend to have a great many from the neighbouring country of Switzerland and Geneva.

The ancient ſtate of Burgundy.

The Burgundians, according to the beſt hiſtorians, were comprehended under the general name of Vandals, in the reigns of AUGUSTUS and TIBERIUS, who after having remained ſome time in that part of Poland called the Arch-biſhoprick of Gneſna, advanced into Germany and poſſeſſed the Palatinate; from whence they proceeded along the banks of the Rhine, in the time of VALENTINIAN, and entered Gaul about the year 408, ſettling themſelves in Switzerland and part of Franche Comte, from whence they extended themſelves inſenſibly to the Rhone and Saone, and at length eſtabliſhed their firſt kingdom, which laſted an hundred and twenty years under ſix kings, who reigned here ſucceſſively. This kingdom was united to the monarchy of France by CLOTHAIRE I.

and poſſeſſed by his deſcendants under the title of the kingdom of Burgundy. It was afterwards divided into Burgundy Trans-Jurana, and Burgundy Cis-Jurana, on account of mount Jura, at preſent mount Claud, which ſeparated the one from the other. The Lower Burgundy called the Dutchy, which we have now deſcribed, was given by CHARLEMAIN to HUGH his natural ſon, ſurnamed the Great, and CHARLES the Bald confirmed that grant to ROBERT, who married the only daughter of the ſaid HUGH. This dutchy continued to be poſſeſſed by the Dukes of Burgundy of the line of France, till the year 1361, when Duke PHILIP dying at fifteen years of age without iſſue, it was united to the crown of France. King JOHN granted it afterwards to PHILIP the Hardy his fourth ſon, on condition to revert to the crown on default of heirs males, which happened not long after, on the death of CHARLES IV. Duke of Burgundy, whoſe only daughter married the Arch-duke MAXIMILIAN I. afterwards Emperor; but the Emperor however kept poſſeſſion of the county of Burgundy.

The dutchy of Burgundy is the firſt Peerage of the kingdom, and the ducal coronet was enriched with the like ornaments as the royal crown, on account of their being the ſucceſſors of the ancient Kings of Burgundy. And by a decree of the council of Conſtance 26 May 1433, the Dukes of Burgundy were ordered to ſit next the King in all chriſtian aſſemblies. It is now the title of the Dauphin's eldeſt ſon.

Produce of the country.

This province does not only abound in grain, good paſture, fruits, cattle and game, but produces the moſt excellent wine in France, which from the place of its growth has obtained the name of Burgundy; the places moſt celebrated for it are Nuis, Chambertin, Beze, Coulange, Chaſſagne, Beaune and Volenai.

The military government and fortified towns.

As to the military government of this province, it has a governor general, who is uſually a perſon of the firſt rank; the Dukes of Bourbon, of the branch of Bourbon-Conde, have of late been governors of it, under whom is a lieutenant general, beſides ſix lieutenants general who have their particular commands; the firſt commands the Baillages of Dijon, of the mountains, and that of Bar ſur Sein; the ſecond, the Autunois, the Auxerrois, and the Auxois; the third commands in the Chalonois; the fourth, the Maſconois; the fifth, the Charolois; and the ſixth takes in the Breſſe, Bugey, the valley of Romey, and the country of Gex; beſides which, moſt of the towns have their reſpective governors. They don't reckon there are above five places well fortified in the dutchy of Burgundy, and thoſe are, 1. Dijon. 2. Auxonne. 5. Chalon upon the Saone. 4. Bourg in Breſſe. And, 5. Pierre Chattel.

CHAP. VIII.

Contains a deſcription of Franche Comte, or the county of Burgundy.

CHAP. VIII.

Franche Comte, the ſituation and extent. Face of the country.

FRanche Comte is bounded by Lorrain on the north; by Switzerland on the eaſt; by La Breſſe on the ſouth; and by the dutchy of Burgundy and Champagne on the weſt.

It was a woody country till the laſt century, when it came into the hands of France; ſince when, great part of the woods have been deſtroyed to ſupply their iron-works. It is very mountainous, eſpecially on the ſides of Switzerland and Lorrain, mount Jura runs along all the eaſtern boundaries and ſeparates it from Switzerland. The chief rivers of this country are, 1. The Saone. 2. The Lougnon. 3. The Dou. 4. The Louve. And, 5. The Dain.

Rivers.

Subdiviſion.

It is uſually divided into four baillages, viz. 1. Beſançon. 2. Amont. 3. Dole. And, 4. That of Aval.

Beſançon, baillage and city.

The Baillage of Beſançon was conſtituted by LEWIS XIV. a little after the conqueſt of this country, an. 1674. the capital whereof and of the whole province is the city of Beſançon or *Viſantium*, called by ſome hiſtorians Chryſopolis: it is an ancient town, and according to the tradition of the natives founded ſome hundred of years before Rome; it is ſituated in 47 deg. 10 min. north lat. about 150 miles ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and 70 north of Geneva, on the river Dou or Doux, which divides it into two parts, of which one is called the high and the other the lower town. It is ſurrounded by a wall and other fortifications, and defended by a citadel which ſtands on a ſteep rock, and is an oblong ſquare flanked with four irregular baſtions, the ground here and about the town being too uneven to admit of regular works. It is a biſhop's ſee, and the cathedral dedicated to St. JOHN, ſtands at the foot of mount St. Stephen, anciently called mount Cælius. There are in the town alſo ſeven pariſh churches, two chapters, two abbeys of men and two of nuns, a ſeminary, a college of Jeſuits, ſeven convents of friars and five of nuns, an hoſpital for the education of poor children, an hoſpital for foundling or expos'd children, and another general hoſpital; and the town is ſuppoſed to contain eleven thouſand inhabitants and upwards. The town-houſe, the governor's palace, and that of Granville are the moſt remarkable buildings in the place; the laſt of which is furniſhed with a great variety of excellent ſtatues and pictures, and a library containing abundance of valuable books and manuſcripts. There are alſo five noble fountains in the town embelliſhed with ſtatues and other ornaments. Beſançon was a free imperial city till the peace of Munſter, when the Emperor exchanged it with the King of Spain for Frankendal (which his Catholick Majeſty was then poſſeſſed of) but it continued however to be governed as a Republick by its own magiſtrates, till the French King poſſeſſing himſelf of it in the year 1674, altered the form of government and conſtituted a Baillage, of which this was made the capital, as hath been intimated already. In the neighbourhood of Beſançon there are ſeveral places, the names of which ſhew that the ancient Romans were poſſeſſed of this town, as mount Jovot, *Mons Jovis*; Mercuro, *Mons Mercurii*; mont Delie, *Mons Delii*; Cham Vacho, *Campus Bacchi*; Chamuſe, *Campus Muſarum*. There are ſtill to be ſeen alſo the ruins of an amphitheatre, an hundred and twenty feet in diameter, and of ſome Pagan temples, and a triumphal arch dedicated to the Emperor AURELIAN, in whoſe time this town is ſuppoſed chiefly to have flouriſh'd, it being then the capital of the Sequani. But I muſt not forget the holy handkerchief, a precious relique, which draws multitudes of devout people hither annually at Eaſter. They don't pretend however to have more than a piece of it here, tho' at Turin, and I think at Rome, they aſſure us they have the whole; for which I refer to the deſcription of thoſe cities. The reſt of the towns of this baillage, tho' very numerous, their writers have not thought fit to give us a particular deſcription of.

Amont Baillage.

The Baillage of Amont or Gray lies north-weſt of that of Beſançon; the chief towns whereof are Gray, Veſoul, Marnay, Beaume, Jonvell, Dampierre, Amance, Belvoir, Bouilans, Faucogne, Lure, Montbelliard and Peſme.

Gray town.

Gray is a pretty trading town, ſituate on the Saone, about ten miles north-weſt of Beſançon, and was well fortified till taken by Lewis XIV, who demoliſhed the works. Here they embark great quantities of corn, iron, and other merchandizes, which they tranſport to Lyons. The place conſiſts but of one pariſh, five convents, a collegiate church, and a college of Jeſuits. The inhabitants are computed to amount to about four thouſand.

The Baillage of Dole.

The Baillage of Dole lies ſouth-weſt of Beſançon, and is much leſs than either of the former, the chief towns whereof are Dole, Quingey and Ornans.

Dole city.

Dole, *Dola Sequanorum*, is ſituated on the river Doux, about fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Beſançon, in a pleaſant fruitful country, and was anciently the capital of Franche Comte, and the reſidence of the ſovereign. The French King demoliſhed the fortifications when he took it in 1674, but it is ſtill a pretty town, the ſtreets ſpacious, and the houſes tolerably well built. The publick edifices beſt worth the viewing, are the church of our Lady, the Jeſuits college, and the palace where their parliament was held. There is alſo a univerſity in the place, founded by Philip the Good, and eleven convents of both ſexes. The inhabitants are computed to amount to between four or five thouſand. Here are ſtill the ruins of ſeveral Roman antiquities, particularly of two aqueducts. Their great highway alſo from Lyons to the Rhine lies thro's this town. The French were confirmed in the poſſeſſion of this place and the reſt of Franche Comte by the treaty of Ryſwick.

Sampans.

The village of Sampans, two miles from Dole, is remarkable for its fine quarries of jaſper and other marble.

The Baillage of Aval.

The Baillage of Aval is the moſt ſouthern part of Franche Comte: the chief towns are, 1. Salins. 2. Arbois. 3. St. Claude. And, 4. Poligny.

Salins.

Salines Villa, and *Puteus Salinarum*, ſo called from an excellent ſalt-ſpring, which yields the crown a great revenue, is pleaſantly ſituated on a rivulet between two mountains, twenty miles ſouth of Beſançon. It is a long town, conſiſting chiefly of one ſtreet, in which are four pariſhes, and nine or ten convents. The churches have nothing extraordinary in their fabrick; but the hall in which they have their magazine of ſalt, and where their courts of juſtice are held, is a magnificent building. It is defended by a wall, and ſome forts, and was formerly reckoned a very ſtrong place. It contains at preſent between five and ſix thouſand inhabitants.

The ancient ſtate of Franche Comte.

Franche Comte, or the country of Burgundy, was inhabited by the Sequani, who were more anciently comprehended under the name of Helvetians. They implored Cæsar's protection againſt Ariovistus, a German monarch who invaded them: Cæsar having driven him beyond the Rhine, put his army into winter quarters in this province, which afterwards continued faithful to the Romans. The Burgundians made themſelves maſters of it in the time of the Emperor Honorius, and united it to their kingdom of Burgundy. Clovis having conquered that kingdom this part of it remained under the power of Thierry King of Auſtraſia, who had married the daughter of Sigismond, King of Burgundy; and Theobald the ſon of Thierry dying without iſſue, Clothaire reunited it to the crown. A conſiderable time afterwards, Lewis the Debonaire granted it to Lothaire his eldeſt ſon, to whom ſucceeded Charles the Bald. But not to tire the reader with a long dry pedigree of the Princes of this houſe, I ſhall paſs them over till we come to the Arch-duke Maximilian of Auſtria, afterwards Emperor, who having married Mary the only daughter of Charles Duke of Burgundy, became poſſeſſed of this province by virtue of that marriage, (tho' the French King ſeiz'd the dutchy of Burgundy, as reverted to him.) His grandſon Charles the Fifth uniting it with the Netherlands, conſtituted the tenth circle of the empire, under the title of the circle of Burgundy; and the Kings of Spain of the houſe of Auſtria enjoyed it till the year 1668, when Lewis XIV. made himſelf maſter of it under pretence that it was devolv'd on his Queen, but was forced to reſtore it by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle. He made a ſecond conqueſt of it in the year 1674, and it was confirmed to him by the peace of Ryſwick, anno 1697, being ſince new modelled, and reduced into the form of a French province.

Produce of the country.

This country abounds in corn, wine and cattle, and the mountainous part of it, it is ſaid, produces better paſture than the valleys. Their wine will keep five or ſix years, and about that age it is admirably good: thoſe of them who can afford to keep ſtocks by them, uſually get eſtates by it.

There are ſeveral iron-mines and works in this country, that have conſumed abundance of the wood with which this province was repleniſhed when the French conquered it. There are no leſs than thirty forges or furnaces along the banks of the rivers Doux, Saone and Lougnon, where they make bombs, grenades, and bullets for the artillery. There are alſo abundance of good armourers, cutlers, and artificers in hard-ware at Beſançon, eſpecially gun-ſmiths; the French being about to eſtabliſh a magazine of arms at Beſançon, which lies conveniently for ſupplying the gariſons on the frontiers of Germany and Italy with arms. They cut alſo maſts for ſhipping on the mountains of this country, and breed a prodigious number of oxen and cows, with which, and the cheeſe and butter they produce, they drive a great trade. Their breed of horſes alſo brings a great deal of money into this country, for they ſell one year with another five thouſand colts, beſides full-grown horſes, of which ſome ſerve for draught, and others to remount the cavalry and dragoons. In the campaign of 1696, it is ſaid, there were not leſs than four thouſand horſes bought up here for the King's ſervice. The inhabitants of the mountains have alſo a conſiderable trade in hogs; but the country is not proper for ſheep, and the wooll of thoſe they have is not good, which is the reaſon they have no woollen manufactures in the country. Their quarries of alabaſter are exceeding white and clear, and there are others of jaſper about Salins, of which the blocks are ſo large that they will make pillars of twelve or fifteen foot in length; and in ſome pits they find a black marble. But ſcarce any thing brings ſo conſiderable a revenue to the crown as the ſalt-works in Franche Comte, and particularly thoſe of Salins. They make alſo, as 'tis ſaid, annually, twelve hundred thouſand weight of ſaltpetre.

The military government and fortifications.

As to the military government of this province, it hath a governor general, who is alſo governor of Beſançon, and hath under him one lieutenant general,

neral, and as many particular governors as there are fortified places; viz. the governor of the citadel of Beſançon, the governor of fort Griffon, of Salins, of fort St. Andrew, of the fort de Blin, of the caſtle of Joux, and the caſtle of Blamont.

CHAP. IX.

Contains a deſcription of Dauphiné.

CHAP. IX

Dauphiné, its ſituation and extent.

Face of the country.

Rivers.

DAUPHINE' is almoſt of a triangular figure, each ſide of the triangle near an hundred Engliſh miles in length, being bounded by La Breſſe and part of Savoy on the north, by another part of Savoy and Piedmont on the eaſt, by Provence on the ſouth, and by the river Rhone, which ſeparates it from Languedoc, on the weſt. It is a very mountainous country, eſpecially towards the eaſt, being ſeparated from Piedmont by the Alps. The chief rivers are the Rhone, the Durance, the Iſere and the Drome.

The Rhone, which has been already deſcribed, waſhes the weſt ſide of the triangle.

The Iſere has its ſource in mount Iſeran in Savoy, from whence it runs ſouth-weſt to Grenoble, and ſo on till it falls into the Rhone about a league and half from Valeure, receiving in its paſſage the rivers Aire, Drap, Vence and Gie, and begins firſt to be navigable for ſmall boats at Montmelian, and for larger at Grenoble.

The Drome riſes in the valley of Drome, near the village of Baſtie, and running firſt north-weſt and afterwards weſt, falls into the Rhone four or five leagues below the Iſere.

Diviſion.

Subdiviſion.

This province is uſually divided into high and low Dauphiné; the higher and more barren lies to the eaſtward, and the lower and fruitful part of the country to the weſtward, near the banks of the Rhone. The higher is again ſubdivided into ſix diſtricts, viz. 1. The Graſivaudan. 2. The Briançonois. 3. The Ambrunois. 4. The Gapençois. 5. The Royanez. And, 6. The Baronies. The lower comprehends, 1. The Viennois. 2. The Valentinois. 3. The Diois. 4. The Tricaſtra. And, 5. The Principality of Orange.

The Graſivaudan.

The Graſivaudan, *Gratianopolitanus Ager*, lies between the rivers Iſere and Drap, on the confines of Savoy, the capital whereof is Grenoble. The other places of any note are the great Chartreuſe, Les Eſchelles, and fort Barraux.

Grenoble.

Grenoble, *Cularo*, *Gratianopolis*, is pleaſantly ſituated at the foot of a mountain on the river Iſere, which divides it in two unequal parts, of which the largeſt is much the fineſt. The ſtreets are wide and well paved, and it contains ſeveral handſom publick buildings; as the cathedral dedicated to our Lady, the collegiate church of St. Andrew, the hoſpital general, the palace where the parliament meets, the hotel de Leſdeguieres, the arſenal, and the governor's houſe. It conſiſts of two pariſhes only, and nine or ten monaſteries, and is about a mile in length. The Biſhop is ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Vienne.

Fort Barraux.

Fort Barraux is ſituated at the entrance of the valley of Graſivaudan, two leagues from Montmelian, and is eſteemed the ſtrongeſt fortreſs on the confines of Savoy.

Chartreuſe.

The grand Chartreuſe, which is the mother of all the convents of the ſame denomination, is ſituated ſeven miles north-eaſt of Grenoble, upon a high rock, to which we aſcend by a very ſtrait paſſage for above a league, and it is ſurrounded by an almoſt impenetrable foreſt of fir-trees. It is a magnificent building, and endowed with large revenues. The general meeting of the order by deputies from all other countries aſſemble in this convent, there being about two hundred monaſteries under its direction; and travellers who come to view the place are entertained with abundance of humanity. The monks are not allowed to ſpeak to ſtrangers, or to one another, but at certain hours, and in certain places. In the way to this convent, the monks have a houſe where they follow all manner of mechanick arts. They ſpin the wool of which their gowns are made; they do joiners work, cutlers work, &c. and their ſtorehouſes and cellars are well worth the viewing. On Sundays and holidays they are allowed to walk out for their diverſion, and as ſoon as they have paſſed the courts of the convent, are permitted to open their mouths, and pay their compliments to each other; which is certainly no ſmall refreſhment to a Frenchman, who has had the mortification to have ſilence impoſed upon him for ſeveral days before.

Briançonois.

The Briançonois is bounded by the Graſivaudan on the north-weſt, and Piedmont on the ſouth-eaſt; a very mountainous country, about eighteen leagues long and ſixteen broad, and was anciently the ſeat of the Brigantes; in which a way being cut through the rocks to facilitate the paſſage from Italy to Gaul, ſome ſuppoſe this to be the work of HANNIBAL, others of CÆSAR, and ſome aſcribe it to COTTIUS, a Prince of the Gauls, whoſe dominions lay in this part of the country; and tho' they were but ſmall, their ſituation enabled him to defend himſelf ſo well againſt the Romans, that they thought it more expedient to receive him into their alliance than to attempt the conqueſt of it. From this Prince it is ſuppos'd that theſe mountains obtained the name of Alps Cottiani. The chief places are, 1. Briançon. 2. Exilles. 3. Feneſtrelles. 4. Oux. And, 5. Queyras.

Chief towns.

Briançon.

Briançon, *Virgantia Brigantum*, is ſituated on the ſide of a ſteep rock, on the top whereof ſtands a caſtle; this is ſuppoſed to be the higheſt part of the Alps, and conſequently the higheſt ground in Europe, being about ſeven leagues to the weſtward of Suza in Piedmont, and as much north-eaſt of Ambrun in Dauphiné. Two ſmall rivers, the Dura and the Ancre, unite their ſtreams a little below this town, and form the river Durance. It is a town naturally very ſtrong, and the fortifications no doubt improved, ſince France has been obliged to yield the forts of Exilles and Feneſtrelles, on the frontiers of Piedmont, to the King of Sardinia. Upon one of the old gates is this inſcription, *D. Cæſari Auguſto Dedicata, Salutate eam*, over which 'tis ſuppos'd the ſtatue of CÆSAR was placed.

Exilles.

Exilles, *olim Ocellum*, is ſituated on the river Doire, five leagues north-eaſt of Briançon, and two to the weſtward of Suza, defended by a ſtrong caſtle which ſtands upon a paſs between France and Piedmont; it was taken from the French by the Duke of Savoy, in the year 1708, and confirmed to him by the peace of Utrecht.

Feneſtrelles.

Feneſtrelles is a ſtrong fort on the confines of Dauphiné and Piedmont, which was taken by the Duke of Savoy in the year 1708, and confirmed to him by the peace of Utrecht; Pignerol being alſo then ſurrendered to him, he has thereby obtained a pretty good barrier againſt France.

Oux.

Oulx or Oux, formerly Admartis, from a temple here dedicated to MARS, is ſituated on the river Doire, about three leagues to the weſtward of Suza.

The Ambrunois. Chief towns.

The Ambrunois is bounded by the Brianҫonois on the north; by Piedmont on the eaſt; by Provence on the ſouth; and by Gapenҫois on the weſt. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Ambrun. 2. Gilleſtre. 3. St. Creſpin. 4. Mont Dauphin. 5. Chorges. And, 6. Savius.

Ambrun.

Ambrun, *Embrun*, *Ebrodunum*, which in the Celtick language ſignified a fruitful mountain, is an ancient town ſituated on a ſteep rock, at the foot whereof runs the river Durance, and is about twenty miles ſouth of Brianҫon. It is a ſtrong place both by art and nature, an Archbiſhop's ſee, who is metropolitan of the Maritime Alps, and ſtiled Prince of Ambrun; beſides the cathedral, it contains five pariſh-churches and ſeveral monaſteries; the archiepiſcopal palace is a magnificent ſtructure, ſtanding in the higheſt part of the town.

The Gapençois.

Chief towns.

The Gapençois, a mountainous country, lies to the weſtward of the Ambrunois, being about eighteen leagues long and fourteen broad. The chief towns are, 1. Gap. 2. Tallard. 3. Veines. 4. Leſdeguieres. And, 5. Aſpres.

Gap.

Gap, *Civitas Vappincenſium*, is ſituated at the foot of a mountain about fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Ambrun; it is a biſhop's ſee, but neither the cathedral nor the other buildings deſerve a particular deſcription, nor are the fortifications conſiderable: about a league from hence is a church and image of the Virgin, called Notre Dame du Lait, which occaſions a great concourſe of the country people from all parts, who come hither in pilgrimage; the church is a handſom edifice built with a kind of marble.

Tallard.

Tallard is a little town two leagues to the ſouthward of Gap; moſt remarkable for giving a title to Marſhal Tallard General of the French, who was taken priſoner at the battle of Hochſtet, anno 1704, and remained priſoner in England till the peace of Utrecht.

The Royanez.

The Royanez is a little country about ſix leagues in length and four in breadth (which received its name from a town called Pont de Royance) formerly a principality, but at preſent a marquiſate.

The Baronies.

The Baronies are the moſt ſouthern part of Dauphiné, and lie on the confines of Provence, being about ſixteen leagues in length and ſeven in breadth, being ſo called from the ſeveral Baronies into which it is divided. It is a country that produces good wine, olives, oranges, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits. The chief towns are Buis and Nions.

Buis.

Buis is a little town on the river Oreze near the borders of Provence, of which the French geographers have not thought fit to give a further deſcription.

Nions.

Nions is a little town ſituate in a valley on the river Aigues, the bridge whereof according to tradition was the work of the Romans: near this town is a mountain from whence iſſues a cold wind that refreſhes the country, which would otherwiſe be exceſſive hot.

Lower Dauphiné

The Lower Dauphiné conſiſts of the weſtern part of the country next the Rhone, and comprehends, 1. The Viennois, the moſt north-weſt part of Dauphiné, being almoſt ſurrounded by the Rhone and the Iſere, about twenty four leagues in length and eighteen in breadth, and was anciently part of the country of the Allobroges. The chief towns are, 1. Vienne. 2. St. Saphoria. 3. Pont de Beauvoiſin. 4. St. Rambert. 5. St. Vallier. 6. Tain. 7. Romaus. 8. St. Anthony. And, 9. La Tour du Pin.

Vienne.

Vienne, *Vienna Allobrogum*, is ſituated at the foot of a mountain on the river Rhone, about forty miles north-weſt of Grenoble, and ſixteen ſouth of Lyons; it was the capital of the Allobroges, afterwards a Roman colony, the metropolis of *Gallia Narbonenſis ſecunda*, and the firſt of their conqueſts on this ſide the Alps. JULIUS CÆSAR reſided a conſiderable time here, and here are ſtill the remains of an amphitheatre and other Roman buildings. The Burgundians took it from the Romans and made it the capital of their kingdom; it is much leſs than it was anciently, being now but one league and a half in circumference. The Archbiſhop of this ſee, it is ſaid, diſputes the primacy of France with the Archbiſhop of Lyons, the cathedral is a magnificent Gothick ſtructure and ſtands on an eminence, to which we aſcend by twenty ſteps and upwards; there are beſides in Vienne ſeveral beautiful collegiate churches, abbeys and convents, and a college of Jeſuits. The fifteenth general council was held here in the year 1311. The ſituation of the town is not pleaſant, being almoſt covered with the mountain, the ſtreets narrow, uneven and ill paved. On the other hand the neighbouring fields on the ſides of Avignon, and the banks of the Rhone, are exceeding beautiful: the moſt conſiderable manufactures here are ſword-blades, and other iron and ſteel wares, and paper.

The church of St. Severus, according to tradition, is built in the place where formerly grew a tree, under which the Pagans ſacrificed to an hundred Gods, which St. Severus ordering to be pulled up, to remove the ſuperſtition the people had for it, found under the root a man's ſkull filled with gold and ſilver enough to erect this church, and a pillar with the following inſcription, viz. *Arborem Deos Severus evertit Centum Deorum.* The chapel of St. Maria de la Vie was the Roman *Prætorium*, over the door of which is a ſtone ball with this inſcription, *Hoc eſt Pomum Sceptri Pilati*; and they pretend to ſhew the houſe where PONTIUS PILATE lived during his baniſhment, the tower where he was impriſoned, and the lake where he drowned himſelf, to which they have given his name.

St. Saphoria.

St. Saphoria lies two leagues to the northward of Vienne in the road to Lyons; but I don't find it remarkable for any thing but the poſt-aſſes which go from hence to Lyons, and perform their ſtage as well as horſes, but are not to be driven beyond it by any means whatever.

Pont Beauvoiſin.

Pont Beauvoiſin is ſituated on the river Gier near the frontiers of Savoy, about thirty miles to the eaſtward of Vienne, and is one of the moſt conſiderable paſſes between France and Savoy.

Taine.

Taine or Theine is a little town ſituated near the Rhone, about twenty-five miles to the ſouthward of Vienne, remarkable chiefly for that excellent wine called hermitage wine.

Romans.

Romaus is ſituated on the river Iſere, over which it has a bridge, thirty miles to the ſouthward of Vienne; the ſituation of this town is ſaid to reſemble that of Jeruſalem, having a hill in it with buildings not unlike thoſe on mount Calvary, by which name the convent is called that is built upon it.

The Valentinois.

Chief towns.

The Valentinois lies to the ſouthward of the Viennois, from which it is divided by the river Iſere. It was anciently a county, and has been three times erected into a dutchy. The chief towns are, 1. Valence. 2. Montelimart. 3. Livron. 4. Pierre Late. And, 5. St. Marcellin.

Valence.

Valence, *Valentia*, *Civitas Valentinarum*, is ſituated on the Rhone, a little below its confluence with

with the Iſere, thirty-five miles to the ſouthward of Vienne. It was once a Roman colony. and is ſtill a pretty large well-built town, and the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan to Vienne; the cathedral is a noble ſtructure, beſides which there is a collegiate church, the fine abbey of St. Roff, with ſeveral other convents, and it has an univerſity in which the civil and canon laws are chiefly ſtudied, founded by LEWIS XI. anno 1452. In the church of the Jacobins they ſhew the bones of a gaint of a prodigious ſize; for according to the dimenſions of thoſe we ſaw, ſays my author, the whole body muſt have been ſixteen foot long. The neighbourhood of this place is extremely pleaſant, the hills lying about it in form of a creſcent on the one ſide, and the Rhone with its beautiful meadows open to it on the other.

Montelimart.

Montelimart is ſituated on the river Robion, about a league from the Rhone in a fruitful plain about thirty miles to the ſouthward of Valence. It is a little populous place, remarkable for ſeveral councils held here againſt the Albigenſes in the 13th century; and it was, ſays my French author, one of the firſt towns that followed the errors of CALVIN; but ſince the revocation of the edict of Nants, they have been very faithful to God and their King: that is, the government has put it out of their power to diſpute its commands. It ſuffered very much on occaſion of its adhering to the Hugonots in the civil wars. The learned CHAUCIER, ſo celebrated among the French Proteſtants, was miniſter of this place,

The Diois

Chief towns.

The Diois lies to the eaſtward of the Valentinois, being eighteen leagues in length and ſixteen in breadth, and is the moſt mountainous part of the Lower Dauphiné. The chief places are, 1. Die. 2. Creſt. 3. Bourdeaux. 4. Chaſtillon. 5. Valdrone. 6. Saillans. 7. Luc.

Die.

Die, *Dea Vacontiorum*, and *Dea Auguſta*, is ſituated at the foot of the mountains on the river Drone, thirty miles to the ſouthward of Grenoble. It is the ſee of a Biſhop, who has alſo the title of Count of the place. The Proteſtants had a univerſity here before the revocation of the edict of Nants, and were very numerous in this city; but it ſuffered very much in the civil wars, the caſtle and ſeveral of its churches being demoliſhed.

The Tricaſtin.

The Tricaſtin is bounded by the Valentinois on the north, and the Venaiſſin on the ſouth, a diſtrict of a ſmall extent; the only conſiderable town whereof is,

St. Paul 3 Chateaux.

St. Paul trois Chateaux, known anciently by the name of *Auguſta Tricaſtinorum*, ſituated on a riſing ground about a league to the weſtward of the Rhone, and four to the ſouthward of Montelimart. It is the ſee of a Biſhop ſuffragan of Arles, who is alſo ſtiled Count.

The principality of Orange.

The principality of Orange was always eſteemed a part of Provence till the year 1714, when an edict paſſed for annexing it to the government of Dauphiné; it is bounded by the county of Venaiſſin or Avignon on the north, eaſt and ſouth; and by the river Rhone, which divides it from Languedoc, on the weſt. It was governed by a Prince of its own for many years, the laſt of whom was WILLIAM III. of England; for the King of Pruſſia, who pretends to be heir to that Prince, exchanged it with the laſt French King LEWIS XIV. at the treaty of Utrecht for part of Guelderland, which the French King had poſſeſſed himſelf of during the war; his Pruſſian Majeſty ſtill retaining the title of Prince of Orange. It is a very ſmall diſtrict, being no more than four leagues in length and three in breadth, and the Prince's revenue amounted to about five thouſand pounds per annum. The chief towns are, 1. Orange. 2. Courtezon. 3. Jonquieres. And, 4. Gigondos.

Orange city.

Orange, *Auraſio*, is ſituated in a fine large plain watered with abundance of little rivulets, about three miles to the weſtward of the Rhone, and eighteen north of Avignon. It has been of much larger extent than it is at preſent, and was a town that made a conſiderable figure in the time of the Romans, as appears by the remains of part of a cirque, an ampitheatre and a triumphal arch almoſt entire. MAURICE of Naſſau, its ſovereign, alſo built a regular fortreſs, conſiſting of eleven baſtions, on a neighbouring eminence, in the year 1622, which LEWIS le Grand demoliſhed in the year 1660, with all the other fortifications about it. It is ſtill a univerſity and a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Arles; and there have been three councils held in this city.

The ancient ſtate of Dauphiné.

Dauphins of Vienne.

Dauphiné transferred to the houſe of Valois.

The province of Dauphiné was part of the country of the Allobroges, who joining with HANNIBAL, were ſubdued by the Romans about an hundred years before the birth of our Saviour. Upon the declenſion of the Roman Empire, they fell under the dominion of the Goths and other barbarous nations that ravaged Italy and Gaul; after which Dauphiné became part of the kingdom of the Burgundians. The Counts of Albon made themſelves maſters of the country, (in the reign of RODOLPH the ſlothful) whoſe ſucceſſors reigned here under the title of Dauphins of Vienne. The name of Dauphin was the chriſtian name of GUY, the eighth Count of Albon, who governed this province in the year 1130; his ſucceſſors made it a name of dignity, and annexed it to the province. Dauphiné has twice fallen to the females for want of male iſſue: the firſt time in the year 1184, by the death of GUIGUES IX, who leaving only one daughter named BEATRIX, ſhe married to HUGH III, Duke of Burgundy, who was the founder of the ſecond race of the Dauphins of Vienne. The ſecond was after the death of GUY X, who leaving iſſue an only daughter named ANNE, ſhe was married in the year 1282 to HUMBERT, Lord Tour Dupin. This Prince begun the third race of Dauphins, which ended with HUMBERT the Second, a weak Prince, who becoming inconſoleable for the loſs of his only ſon, whom he let fall into the river Iſere as he was playing with him at a window in his palace at Grenoble, he transferred his dominions to CHARLES Duke of Normandy, the grandſon of PHILIP de Valois, King of France, upon condition that the eldeſt ſon of France ſhould always bear the name of Dauphin, and his arms be quartered with thoſe of France. And the King on his part promiſed the Dauphin an hundred and twenty thouſand gold florins; which treaty was executed the ſixteenth of July, 1349. HUMBERT the next day ſhut himſelf up in a cloyſter, and Dauphiné has ever ſince been annexed to the crown of France.

The ſoil and produce.

The ſoil of this country in ſome parts is tolerably fruitful, producing corn, wine, olive, ſalt, ſilk and hemp, beſides which they have ſome mines of copper, iron and lead; but two thirds of the province is ſo barren, occaſioned by the high mountains which encumber it, that the natives are many of them obliged to remove their habitation one part of the year, to get a livelihood elſewhere, and to enable them to pay their taxes. Their mountains however produce a great variety of beautiful flowers, ſimples, timber, precious ſtones and minerals.

Curioſities

nerals. There are alſo upon them abundance of deer, game, wild goats called Chamois, bears, and wolves. Their goats, particularly on the mountains of Diois, are red in ſummer and grey in winter. There are alſo on the Alps in this province great numbers of white hares, and partridges, eagles, goſs-hawks, pheaſants, &c. And in the dutchy of Tallard are ſeveral ſalt-ſprings. Two leagues from Die is a hill called the inacceſſible mountain, being in form of a pyramid reverſed; but ſome people have however found means to aſcend it, and report that there is a plain on the top of it a quarter of a league in length, on which they found herds of the wild goats call'd Chamois, tho' it is not to be conceived how they climbed up thither. They tell us alſo of a kind of manna which is found in the diſtrict of Briançon, upon the leaves of a tree called Meleze, reſembling a pine, which falls as ſoon as the ſun comes upon it, and is never ſo plentiful as in exceſſive hot weather. There are reported to be abundance of other merveilles, or ſtrange productions in Dauphiné, as a burning fountain, an unfathomable gulph, &c. which I find their beſt writers do not give much credit to.

Military government.

It was one of the privileges of Dauphiné anciently to have their governor and lieutenant general natives; but this is now frequently broke through. Beſides the governor and lieutenant general, the King has four other lieutenants general of particular diſtricts, and governors of the fortified towns.

Strong towns.

The fortified places are Grenoble, Valence, Die, Montelimart, Gap, Ambrun, Mont Dauphin, Guilleſtre, Chateau de Queyras, Briançon, Exilles, Barrault and L'Ecluſe.

CHAP. X.

Contains a deſcription of Provence.

CHAP. X.

Provence, the name.

Situation and extent.

AFter the Romans had made themſelves maſters of the country of the Salii, Cavari, Deſuviati, &c. they gave it the name of Provincia, the province, being the firſt they conquered on this ſide the Alps, and it retains the ſame name to this day, having only changed the letter i for an e, and inſtead of Province is call'd Provence. It is bounded by Dauphiné on the north, by the river Var and the Alps, which ſeparate it from Piedmont and the county of Nice, on the eaſt; by the Mediterranean on the ſouth, and by the Rhone, which divides it from Languedoc, on the weſt; being about forty leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and thirty in breadth from north to ſouth.

The air.

The air is temperate in the mountainous part of this province, but in the valleys exceſſive hot, unleſs on the ſea-coaſt, where they have uſually refreſhing breezes, which blow from nine or ten in the morning until the evening; and whenever the wind ſits north-eaſt, it brings cool weather along with it.

Rivers.

The chief rivers are the Rhone, the Var, the Durance, the Verdon, the Argens, the Sorgue and the Larc.

The Rhone.

The Var.

The Durance.

Verdon.

Argens.

The Rhone has been already deſcribed, which waſhes the weſtern boundaries of this province. The Var hath its ſource on the mountains, on the north-eaſt part of Provence, and running to the ſouthward, falls into the Mediterranean between Nice and Antibes, dividing Italy from France. The Durance riſes in the eaſtern part of Dauphiné, and running above an hundred miles to the ſouth-weſt, joins its ſtreams with the river Verdon; after which it takes its courſe to the weſtward, till it falls into the Rhone near Avignon. The river Argens, ſo called from the pureneſs of its waters, riſes in the ſouth-weſt part of the country, and taking its courſe almoſt directly eaſt, falls into the Mediterranean near Frejus.

The Sorgue.

The Sorgue has its whole courſe thro' the county of Venaiſſin, where it riſes, and running ſouth-weſt, falls into the Rhone two leagues above Avignon. The ſprings where it riſes throw out the water ſo plentifully, that it bears the name of a river from its very ſource, and immediately carries ſmall boats.

The Larc.

The Larc is a little river, or rather a dangerous torrent, which riſing in the ſouth part of this province, takes its courſe to the weſtward of Aix, from whence it runs on ſouth-weſt till it falls into a bay of the Mediterranean ſea near Berre.

There are alſo mineral-waters and ſalt-ſprings in ſeveral parts of the country.

Ports.

The moſt conſiderable roads and harbours on the coaſt of Provence are thoſe of Marſeilles, Toulon, Hieres, Grimant and Lerins, which will be deſcribed hereafter in treating of thoſe places.

Mountains and woods.

The country is very mountainous towards the north and eaſt, being taken up by the Alps, which divide it from the Duke of Savoy's dominions in Italy. The reſt of the province next the ſea and the river Rhone, is for the moſt part plain and even. Neither the one nor the other abounds in wood, tho' few countries are better ſtocked with fruits, as will appear when I come to treat of the ſoil and produce of the country.

The diviſion of Provence.

The French geographers divide Provence into 15 parts or dioceſes, beſides the iſlands, which make a ſixteenth: 1. The dioceſe of Aix. 2. The dioceſe of Riez. 3. That of Senez. 4. The dioceſe of Digne. 5. The Archbiſhoprick of Arles. 6. The dioceſe of Marſeilles. 7. The dioceſe of Toulon. 8. The dioceſe of Frejus. 9. The dioceſe of Graſſe. 10. The dioceſe of Vence. 11. The dioceſe of Glandeſves. 12. The dioceſe of Siſteron. 13. The dioceſe of Apt. 14. The county of Venaiſſin, or Avignon, 15. The valley of Barcelonette. And, 16. The iſlands.

The dioceſe of Aix.

The dioceſe of Aix extends itſelf along the banks of the river Durance; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Aix. 2. St. Maximin. 3. Brignole. And, 4. Lambeſc.

Aix city.

Aix, *Aquæ Sextiæ*, called *Aquæ* on account of its baths, and *Sextiæ* as it was enlarged and beautified by SEXTIUS CALVINUS, a Roman conſul. It is ſituated in a plain, at the foot of the hill St. Eutropius, and about a muſket-ſhot from the little river Arc, in the latitude of 43 degrees 30 minutes, twenty miles to the northward of Marſeilles, and thirty-five ſouth-eaſt of Avignon. It is a large well-built city, and, according to my French author, reſembles Paris the moſt of any town in the kingdom, in the magnificence of its buildings, the politeneſs of its inhabitants, its ſpacious ſquares and beautiful fountains. The Courſe conſiſting of three fine walks of trees of a great length, with elegant uniform buildings on each ſide of it, and embelliſhed with fountains, is very much admired by travellers, as are the baths and mineral waters. The principal publick buildings are the palace where the parliament and courts of juſtice are held, the town-houſe, the cathedral, the church of the fathers of the oratory, and the Jeſuits church. Aix is an Archbiſhop's ſee, and a univerſity founded by Pope ALEXANDER V, anno

1409, where the ſtudents enjoy equal privileges with thoſe of the univerſity of Paris.

St. Maximin.

St. Maximin is ſituated to the eaſtward of Aix, and conſiſts of one pariſh only; but is famous for a convent of Dominicans, where, according to the tradition of the place, they have preſerv'd the head of MARY MAGDALEN, and a phial containing the drops of blood which ſhe collected at the foot of our Saviour's croſs; with many other reliques of that ſaint, which draws a great concourſe of ſuperſtitious people thither.

Riez dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Riez lies on the river Verdon, north-eaſt of that of Aix; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Riez. 2. Monſtiers. And, 3. Valuſole.

Riez city.

Riez, called by the Latins *Alabece Reiorum Apollinarium*, becauſe the inhabitants had a particular devotion for APOLLO, is ſituated about forty miles north-eaſt of Air, being a handſom little town, and a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Aix. The county about it yields the beſt wine in Provence.

Senez dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Senez lies along the river Verdon, to the north-eaſt of Riez. The chief towns are, 1. Senez. 2. Caſtellane. And, 3. Colmars.

Senez city

Senez, *Sanitium*, or *Sanecium*, ſituated about twenty miles north-eaſt of Riez, is now reduced to a very ſmall city, or rather a village, but remains however a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan to Ambrun.

Caſtellane.

Caſtellane is a handſom town, ſituate at the foot of a mountain on the river Verdon, where the Biſhop of Senez uſually reſides.

Digne dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Digne lies to the northward of Senez; the only town of any note is,

Digne city.

Digne, *Dinia*, ſituated at the foot of the mountains; five or ſix leagues north of Senez, is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Ambrun, formerly the capital of the Senii, but of no great conſequence at preſent.

Arles dioceſe.

The dioceſe, or Archbiſhoprick of Arles, lies in the ſouth-weſt part of Provence, having the Mediterranean on the ſouth, and the river Rhone on the weſt, and is about eighteen leagues in length, and fourteen in breadth. The chief towns are, 1. Arles. 2. Salon. 3. Berre. 4. Les Beaux. And, 5. Troies Maries.

Arles city.

Arles, *Arelatum*, by PLINY called *Arelate Sextanorum*, becauſe the Romans ſent a colony of the ſixth legion hither, is ſituated on the eaſt bank of the Rhone, upon very uneven ground, and almoſt ſurrounded by a moraſs, which renders the air thick and unhealthful. They have a bridge of boats over the Rhone, that preſerves their communication with Languedoc, on which ſide CONSTANTINE the great built great part of the town, but there is ſcarce any thing remaining of it at preſent. This Prince it ſeems was mightily taken with the ſituation of the place, and made it the ſeat of the Roman Empire in Gaul, giving it the name of *Conſtantium*. Among the antiquities that remain here is an obeliſk of granite marble, all one entire ſtone, fifty two foot high, and ſeven feet in diameter at the baſe, like thoſe of Rome, ſays my French author, only there are no hieroglyphicks upon it; but 'tis perfectly plain, and thus happily reſerv'd, as he obſerves, to record the actions of LEWIS le Grand, who cauſed it to be dug out of the ruins and ſet upon a pedeſtal in the year 1676. The town conſecrated this monument to the glory of his Majeſty, placing an azure globe on the top of it, ſtrewed with golden flowers de lys, and a ſun, which was this Prince's device. The four angles of the pedeſtal were adorn'd with four lions in marble, and the ſeveral faces contained inſcriptions pointing out the moſt remarkable events of his reign.

There are alſo the ruins of an amphitheatre, which the French writers are confident was built by JULIUS CÆSAR. It is of an oval form, and an hundred and ninety four fathoms in circumference; the longeſt diameter of the area ſeventy one fathoms, and the ſhorteſt fifty two. The portico's are three ſtories high, built with free ſtone of a prodigions ſize; every ſtory contains ſixty arches, which ſtill remain. The walls are of a ſurprizing thickneſs, but very much battered and defaced.

The more modern publick buildings are the cathedral, a vaſt Gothick ſtructure, the front whereof is charged with an infinite number of figures. The high altar is adorned with a fine tabernacle of ſilver, repreſenting the martyrdom of St. STEPHEN, to whom the church is dedicated, which is an admirable piece.

The town-houſe is an elegant regular building, and finely ſituated. It is of a ſquare figure, built with white ſtone, and adorned with three orders of architecture one above another. The portico is magnificent, and embelliſhed with the buſts of the Counts of Provence, and the roof ſuſtained by twenty double pillars.

There is a territory of thirty miles extent depending on this city, which contains the iſlands made by the three branches of the Rhone, called Camargne and the Cran, the *Campi Lapidei* of STRABO and PLINY, which is a large country covered with ſtones, extending to the ſea of Martigne from the banks of the Rhone; which notwithſtanding the flinty ſurface, according to the French writers, makes excellent paſture for ſheep, who turning up the ſtones, find an herb underneath that fats them.

Berre.

Berre is ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, moſt conſiderable for the great quantities of ſalt that are made here. But good Catholicks, I find, have a mighty veneration for the place, on account of the preſent reliques that are preſerved here, as the hair and milk of the bleſſed Virgin, ſome of her clothes, the bones of St. LAURENCE, and the finger of St. GERMAIN. It ſtands in a very unhealthful air.

Marſeilles dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Marſeilles lies along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, to the eaſtward of the dioceſe of Arles. The chief towns are, 1. Marſeilles. 2. Roquevaire. 3. Ambaigne. 4. Avriol. 5. La Ciotat. 6. La Sainte Beaume. And, 7. Gemenos.

Marſeilles city.

Marſeilles, *Maſſilia*, is ſituated on the Mediterranean, twenty miles ſouth of Aix, and thirty north-weſt of Toulon, being divided into the old and new town. The old ſtands on an eminence above the fort, the ſtreets whereof are narrow and dirty, and the houſes very indifferent. On the other hand, the new town is perfectly well built, particularly the ſtreet called the Courſe, which is one of the fineſt in Europe, the houſes on each ſide being uniform and magnificent, and a noble walk of trees between them. The cathedral is ſaid to have been the temple of DIANA, and the ancienteſt in France. On the land-ſide there is one of the moſt beautiful plains in the world, in which there are no leſs than eight hundred country-ſeats of the citizens. with their gardens and vineyards, whither they retire from the noiſe of the town; for, ſays my author, the multitude of ſlaves in the ſtreets, with their rattling chains, would make one think he was in the confines of hell: ſome of them ſerve as porters; and others have little ſhops and huts, where they are allowed to work at their trades.

The abbey of St. Victor is a beautiful edifice; the Hotel de Ville, or town-houſe, has a noble front; the hoſpital and the arſenal are well worth the viewing, and there are abundance of fine convents in the place. The town is fortified and defended by a caſtle and two citadels; the harbour one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious in Europe, where the French King lays up his galleys, but it will not admit of ſhips of above five or ſix hundred tuns. It is a populous city, the natives being computed at an hundred thouſand ſouls and upwards before the laſt plague, which happened anno 1720, and ſwept away great numbers of the inhabitants. It has as briſk a trade as moſt towns in the Mediterranean, and ſeveral beneficial manufactures, particularly their ſilk-manufacture is in good eſteem, and thoſe which relate to their ſhipping; their magazines of arms and warlike ſtores are ſaid to be equal to any in Europe. This city is held to be of great antiquity, generally ſaid to be founded by the Phocians, a people of Ionia in the Leſſer Aſia. It was celebrated for a fine academy anciently, whither the Romans, Greeks, and Gauls reſorted for education; inſomuch, that it obtained the title of the learned city. They were alſo conſiderable on account of the brave defence they made againſt the Roman power, who thereupon entered into an alliance with them, but afterwards deprived them of their privileges, and uſed them as a conquered people.

St. Beaume St. Beaume is ſituated on a rocky mountain, almoſt inacceſſible, between Aix, Marſeilles and Toulon; where, according to tradition, MARY MAGDALEN did penance thirty years. The grott, where this Saint is ſuppoſed to have reſided, is encloſed with an iron grate, having abundance of flambeaux burning day and night before it. On the ſide of it is a fountain which cures many diſeaſes, and runs on every ſide of the rock except the place where the Saint repoſed herſelf, where there never was ſeen a ſingle drop. Near this grott they have built a pretty little church and a convent of Jacobins; from hence devout people aſcend to the holy pillar, whither, according to the ſame tradition, the Saint was lifted up ſeven times a day by Angels.

Toulon dioceſe. The dioceſe of Toulon lies ſouth-eaſt of that of Marſeilles; the chief towns are, 1. Toulon. 2. Hieres. 3. Sixfours. 4. Olioules. And, 5. Cuers.

Toulon city. Toulon, *Tolonium*, is ſituated in a bottom, almoſt encompaſſed with hills on the land-ſide, and on a bay of the Mediterranean ſea, which forms a ſecure and commodious harbour, in the latitude of 43 degrees 8 min. ſix degrees to the eaſtward of London, four hundred miles almoſt ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and fourſcore ſouth-weſt of Nice. The town is not large or beautiful, tho' there are ſome fine buildings in it, eſpecially the magazines and offices, which the late King erected for the uſe of the navy: for here the French lay up their largeſt men of war, and have the fineſt docks and yards in the kingdom for fitting out a royal fleet; ſuch as, in the ſtrain of the French writers, are not to be parallelled in the world: but thoſe that have ſeen Portſmouth and Chatham, or the Dutch magazines and yards in Holland, poſſibly may be of another opinion. I ſhall however give a ſhort abſtract of what the French ſay of their naval magazine and works at Toulon. They tell us, that there is a covered rope-yard of a ſurprizing length, that a man cannot ſee from one end to the other; and over it is an infinite number of workmen employed in ſorting of hemp and ſpinning, &c. That they have ſchools for the marine guards, where they are taught navigation, and their exerciſes. That the hall of arms is a noble fabrick, where they make muſkets, piſtols, halberts, &c. That in another magazine, they have all manner of utenſils for cannoneers and bombardeers; that the offices where the ſmiths, carpenters and coopers work are of a vaſt extent; that the park where the cannon, bombs, and bullets are piled up in a regular manner, and the vaſt number of anchors, aſtoniſhes a man; that the ſtore-houſe, where the ſails and rigging for the men of war are laid up, is of a prodigious length; that the foundery, where all manner of cannon and mortars are caſt, requires our attention; and the royal bake-houſe, with its numerous ovens, is admirably contrived; that the machine for putting maſts into ſhips at the old dock is the admiration of all that ſee it; and laſtly, that there have been found in Toulon at one time near ſix hundred braſs cannon, upwards of three thouſand iron guns, ſixteen firſt rates, eight ſecond rates, twenty-four third rates, and ſix fourth rates, beſides frigats, bomb-veſſels, fire-ſhips, &c. There were not leſs in the place, they aſſure us, when the allies came before it in the year 1707, the miſcarriage of which attempt was partly occaſioned by the perverſeneſs of ſome of the confederates, and partly by ſome unavoidable accidents: for though the town be as well fortified as the nature of the ground will admit, yet there being two hills which command it, the place could not have held out long againſt ſuch a force as was at firſt deſigned for this expedition. The firſt falſe ſtep that was made therefore in this great attempt, was the detaching fifteen thouſand men from that army to Naples, which would have fallen into our hands of it ſelf, if we had been once maſters of Toulon, and as it was, coſt but very little blood-ſhed; but the confederate army was ſo much weakened by making this detachment, that when they came before Toulon, they found the enemy almoſt as numerous as themſelves, and poſſeſſed of all the heights about it; for on two ſides of the city, as has been obſerved, lie ſteep, and almoſt inacceſſible hills, viz. that of St. Anne, on the north-eaſt, and mount St. Catharine, on the ſouth-eaſt; and as the hill of St. Anne perfectly commands the town, ſo the poſſeſſion of it ſecures it againſt any attack; therefore the French general, Marſhal Theſſe, having made a very expeditious march, and entrenched himſelf on this hill before the confederates arrived, did thereby in a good meaſure fruſtrate their deſign. The hill of St. Catharine, which the allies poſſeſſed, is more to the eaſtward, and on the ſouth-eaſt is the hill of Malgne, between which and the town there is a moraſs. Over the mouth of the harbour lay a boom, between which and a little neck of land there was a deep paſſage defended by a great tower, on which were thirty guns mounted. This was the tower the confederate fleet attacked, and was in a fair way of taking it, if an unlucky ſhot had not blown up the magazine of gunpowder in Fort St. Laurence, which they had taken before, and thereby deprived them of the ſhelter they had gained from the ſhot of the great tower, &c. after which they found it impracticable to carry on their attacks againſt it. The army at land alſo not being able to diſlodge the enemy from St. Anne's hill, and intelligence being brought of the French troops marching towards them from all parts, which would have been ſuperior to the allies in a very ſhort time, it was thought adviſeable to draw off their forces, and return to Italy the ſame way they came, as they did without any diſturbance from the French, having deſtroyed ſeveral men of war in the harbour, and ſet fire to part of the town with their bombs. Had this deſign ſucceeded, the French would have ſuffered a prodigious loſs in their ſhipping and naval ſtores; ſuch a one as they could not have recovered in an age, tho' the confederates had been obliged to quit the town again. But as the allies were maſters at ſea, and could have poured in freſh ſupplies from time to time, it might have been difficult for the French to have retaken it; tho' I muſt confeſs I never deſire to ſee England carry on a war at ſuch a diſtance, where every man and horſe muſt ſtand us in ſeven times the expence it does the enemy, as it actually did in many inſtances during the laſt war.

The firſt account we have of Toulon is, that it was a caſtle built by the Marſilians, to defend the coaſt againſt pyrates; and that TELO MARTIUS the tribune ſettled a colony here, calling it by his own name. Upon the decline of the Roman Empire, it underwent the ſame revolutions as the reſt of Gaul, and was afterwards governed by Sovereigns of its own, till the heireſs of this diſtrict transferred it to the Counts of Provence, ſince which it has had the ſame Princes. The Kings of France finding it a commodious harbour, enlarged and fortified it, and made it the ſtation of the royal navy; but none of them improved it ſo much as the late King LEWIS XIV. to whom it owes all thoſe fine docks, yards, founderies, &c. abovementioned; and indeed before his reign the French had ſcarce any royal navy. It was he that laid the foundation of their greatneſs at ſea, and built more men of war than any Prince or State in Europe was maſter of; tho' it is true, he could never half man them with ſailors, for want of a proportionable foreign trade.

Hieres.

Hieres is a pretty little town ſituate near the ſea, about three leagues to the eaſtward of Toulon, which gives its name to the iſlands that lie oppoſite to it in the Mediterranean. This was alſo a colony of the Marſilians, and here pilgrims anciently uſed to embark for the Holy Land. It is conſiderable at preſent on account of the excellent ſalt which is made here, both from the ſea-water and ſalt-pools. Here alſo are ſome of the fineſt gardens in France, which are no leſs profitable to the natives than pleaſant; ſome one of them having yielded more than ten thouſand livres a year to the proprietor, before the hard winter in 1709, which deſtroyed moſt of their fruits and plants. This misfortune probably they have pretty well recovered by this time; but with all their advantages, it ſeems, they are ſituated in a very unhealthful air.

Sixfours.

Sixfours is a borough ſituate on a mountain to the weſtward of Toulon, whoſe founder the natives pretend was SEXTUS FORIUS, upon account of ſome inſcriptions found there. Its inhabitants are ſaid to be of a larger ſize, and conſiderably taller than their neighbours; on which account anciently they had a law amongſt them which prohibited their marrying with any but their own people, that they might not leſſen the breed.

Frejus dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Frejus lies on the ſea-coaſt, north-eaſt of that of Toulon. The chief towns are, 1. Frejus. 2. Barjols. 3. Draguignan. 4. Bargemon. 5. Favos. 6. Pignans. And, 7. St. Tropez.

Frejus city.

Frejus, *Forum Julium*, *Colonia Octavanorum*, is a fortified town ſituate forty miles north-eaſt of Toulon, on the river Argens, about half a league from the ſea. It was the naval arſenal of AUGUSTUS, where he laid up his fleet; and here, it is ſaid, the celebrated AGRICOLA was born. There ſtill remain ſeveral monuments of its antiquity; though the French writers do not think fit to enter into a particular deſcription of them. It is at preſent a biſhop's ſee, who is temporal as well as ſpiritual Lord of the place, and ſuffragan of Aix.

Graſs dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Graſs or Grace, lies on the coaſt of the Mediterranean north-eaſt of Frejus, being bounded towards the eaſt by the river Var, which ſeparates it from the King of Sardinia's territories. The chief towns are, 1. Graſs. 2. Antibes.

Graſs city.

Graſs or Grace, is ſituated on a hill two leagues from the ſea, about twenty miles north-eaſt of Frejus, and fifteen ſouth-weſt of Nice. The cathedral and pariſh church are the ſame; beſides which there are a great number of convents, and the town is ſaid to be rich and populous, but not very large. There is a fine proſpect from it over one of the pleaſanteſt parts of Provence; the epiſcopal ſeat was removed from Antibes thither, on account of the unhealthfulneſs of Antibes, and the frequent viſits of the corſairs of Barbary, and other pirates.

Antibes.

Antibes, *Antipolis*, is one of the ancienteſt towns in Provence, ſituate on the ſea-coaſt, about three leagues ſouth-weſt of Nice, conſiderable on account of its port and the antiquities that are found here; it has alſo a pretty ſtrong citadel for its defence.

Vence dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Vence lies north of Graſs, being bounded by the King of Sardinia's territories towards the eaſt. The chief towns are, 1. Vence. And, 2. St. Paul.

Vence.

Vence, *Civitas Vincienſium*, is ſituated on the Maritime Alps, about five miles to the weſtward of the river Var, and twelve north-eaſt of Graſs; the city is not large, tho' it was anciently a Roman colony, and celebrated for a temple dedicated to MARS. It is at preſent a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan of Ambrun.

Glandeves dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Glandeſvez, or Glandeves, extends along the banks of the river Var to the northward of that of Vence. The chief towns are, 1. Glandeves. 2. Guilleaume. And, 3. Entrevaux.

Glandeves

Glandeves, *Glanateva*, ſtood near the banks of the Var, but being deſtroyed by the inundations of that river ſeveral hundred years ago, the inhabitants removed to Entrevaux, a little town on the confines of Savoy and Nice, where the biſhop now reſides; and there remains nothing of Glandeves at preſent, but a little fortreſs erected on an eminence.

Entrevaux

Guilleaume.

Guilleaume, which lies about four or five leagues to the northward of Glandeves, is a good town, the moſt conſiderable in this dioceſe.

Siſteron dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Siſteron lies in the north part of Provence to the weſtward of Digne. The chief towns are, 1. Siſteron. 2. Forcalquier. And, 3. Monoſque.

Siſteron city.

Siſteron, *Seguſterorum Urbs*, is ſtrongly ſituated on the river Durance, at the foot of a rock, and defended by a caſtle, being about fifty miles to the northward of Aix, and twelve north-weſt of Digne, the biſhop whereof is ſuffragan of Ambrun.

Apt dioceſe. Apt.

The dioceſe of Apt is ſituated to the weſtward of the Venaiſſin; the chief town whereof is of the ſame name.

Apt, *Civitas Apteuſium*, is ſituated near the mountains on the river Caleron, about twenty-four miles to the northward of Aix, and as many to the eaſtward of Avignon: this was one of the moſt conſiderable cities of the Celtæ, and the capital of the Vulgentes in the time of the Romans; the Biſhop is firſt ſuffragan of Aix, and ſtiled Prince of Apt. There ſtill remain ſeveral monuments of its antiquity, and good catholicks eſteem the place for the precious reliques found in the cathedral and monaſteries here, among the reſt the reliques of St. ANNE, the mother of the Bleſſed Virgin.

Venaiſſin county.

The county of Venaiſſin is bounded on the north by Dauphiné; on the eaſt, by the dioceſe of Apt; on the ſouth, by the river Durance, which ſeparates it from Arles; and on the weſt, by the river Rhone, which divides it from Languedoc. It does not derive its name from Venatione, a country fit for hunting, as ſome have ſuggeſted, but from Venaſque, heretofore an imperial city, and the chief of the country. It is not at preſent under the dominion of France, but of the Pope; for RAYMOND VI. Count de Thouloufe, who was ſovereign of it, taking part with the Vaudois and Albigenſes, the French King and the Pope, about the year 1210, invaded his territories, and divided them between them. The King ſeized all thoſe on the weſt-ſide the Rhone, and the Pope held thoſe on the eaſt-ſide of the river, which conſiſted of the country of Venaiſſin. RAIMOND VII. however was re-eſtabliſhed in his father's dominions; but he marrying JANE, the daughter of ALPHONSUS, Count of Poitiers, and leaving no iſſue, Pope GREGORY X. after ſome ſtruggles got poſſeſſion of the Venaiſſin again, which the holy ſee have held ever ſince. The city of Avignon indeed was not formerly deemed part of the county, but was ſold to Pope CLEMENT V. by JANE Queen of Naples and Counteſs of Provence, about the year 1348, for eighty thouſand gold florins.

Chief towns.

Notwithſtanding this little ſtate is under the dominion of the Pope, yet the natives are not deemed aliens in France, but are allowed the privileges of natives of the kingdom, by the edicts of ſeveral of their Kings; and the univerſity of Avignon enjoys the ſame privileges as other French univerſities. The chief towns are, 1. Avignon. 2. Taraſcon. 3. St. Remy. 4. Cavaillon. 5. Carpentras. 6. Vaiſſon. 7. Venaſque. 8. Pont de Sorgue. 9. Liſle. And, 10. Perues.

Avignon.

Avignon, *Avenio*, is ſituated on the river Rhone, about twenty miles north of Arles, and near as many ſouth of Orange. It is ſurrounded with a ſtone-wall, rather beautiful than ſtrong, and contains ſome magnificent churches and palaces, particularly the cathedral dedicated to the VIRGIN MARY; in which are the tombs of Pope BENNET XII. and JOHN XXII. beſides thoſe of ſeveral archbiſhops and biſhops. The high altar is exceeding fine, and the treaſury of the ſacriſty rich. The Hugonots, who make it another Babylon, on account of the Pope's reſiding here, obſerve, that it has ſeven pariſhes, ſeven monaſteries, ſeven colleges, ſeven markets, and ſeven gates. The palace of the vice-legate was the reſidence of the Pope when the ſee was at Avignon; that of the archbiſhop's is a handſom ſtructure, from whence there is an admirable proſpect over the neighbouring country; there was a ſtone-bridge over the river, but being decayed, it is rebuilt with wood. This city was erected into an Archbiſhoprick, in the year 1475, by Pope SIXTUS V. and the univerſity was founded in the year 1303, by CHARLES II. King of Jeruſalem and Sicily, and Count of Provence. There is alſo a court of inquiſition here; the civil government is adminiſtred by the vice-legate, the viguer, or the rota. The viguer, who is an officer that reſembles the provoſt of the merchants in other cities of France, or an Engliſh mayor, decides all cauſes finally, where the matter in conteſt is not of the value of four gold ducats. The police is under the direction of the conſuls of the merchants and their aſſeſſors. From theſe courts there lies an appeal to the vice-legate, who refers them to the rota, being his council, and compoſed of five auditors; and from this tribunal the parties may appeal to Rome. Among the many fine churches at Avignon, that of the Celeſtins ſeems to have the preference, in the middle of the choir whereof is the tomb of Pope CLEMENT VII. Seven Popes ſucceſſively reſided in this city ſeventy years, viz. from 1307, to 1377.

Barcelonette valley.

The valley of Barcelonette is a little principality in the Maritime Alps, having the Ambunois, and part of Dauphiné, on the north; the county of Nice, on the eaſt; and Provence, on the ſouth and weſt; the only town of any conſequence being ſo named.

Barcelonette.

Barcelonette ſituate on the river Hubaye, twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Ambrun, built about the year 1230, by RAIMOND BERENGER, Count of Provence, who gave it that name in memory of his anceſtors, who came from Barcelona in Catalonia. This principality was anciently a part of Provence, but the natives in the year 1388, revolted from the French, and recognized AMADEUS VII, Duke of Savoy, for their Sovereign. By the treaty of Utrecht, an. 1713, it was yielded to France; and by an arret of the council of ſtate the following year, it was united again to Provence.

The iſlands of Provence.

The iſlands of Provence are, 1. Thoſe of St. Margaret and Honorat. 2. The Hieres. And, 3. Thoſe of Marſeilles. The iſles of St. Margaret and Horet lie a little to the ſouthward of Antibes; which, with Cape Garoupe, form a noble road, called the Gourjean, where there is excellent anchorage.

St. Margaret.

The iſle of St. Margaret lies three leagues ſouth-eaſt of Cannes, being a mile in length, and a quarter of one broad, defended by three forts, and was known to the ancients by the name of Lerus.

The iſland of St. Honorat, *olim* Lerina, is a little iſland ſeparated from St. Margaret's by a channel a quarter of a league over, and is defended by a great tower.

The Hieres.

The iſlands of Hieres lie ſouth-eaſt of Toulon, and with the oppoſite ſhore form one of the fineſt roads in the Mediterranean, being about ten leagues long, and ſix broad, and is uſually the place of rendezvous of the royal navy; theſe iſlands are three in number, viz. the Iſland of Porquerolle, the Iſland of Portecroz, and the Iſland of Levant. That of Porquerolle was called by the ancients Proten, and is about four miles in length, and one in breadth. The iſland of Portecroz, known to the ancients by the names of Pomponiana and Meſen, lies ſix miles to the eaſtward of Porquerolle, and has a caſtle of the ſame name ſituated on a rock.

The iſland of the Levant, *olim* Hypæa, lies the moſt eaſterly of any of them, being four miles in length, and one in breadth.

The iſlands of Marſeilles.

The iſlands of Marſeilles lie a little to the ſouthward of that city, and are three in number, viz. If, Ratoneau, and Pomegues. CÆSAR called them the Maſſilian iſlands. The Iſle of If took its name from the yew-trees which grew there, If being French for a yew-tree: it has a caſtle in the middle of it well furniſhed with artillery. The iſle of Ratoneau is a dry barren rock, about a mile and a half in length, and half a one in breadth, having a fort on the top of it. The iſle of Pomegues is almoſt as large as Ratoneau, and defended by a large tower.

The ancient ſtate of Provence.

Provence, like the reſt of France, before the Romans ſubdued it, was divided into ſeveral little principalities and ſtates; of which the Cavares and Salii were moſt powerful. In the diviſion of Gaul by AUGUSTUS, this was ſtiled *Gallia Narbonenſis Secunda*. On the decline of the Roman Empire, about the year 416, the Goths poſſeſſed themſelves of it; then it became part of the kingdom of Arles, or Burgundy; afterwards it was governed by its own Counts for above four hundred years; and about the year 1481, CHARLES the laſt Earl of Provence, left it by will to LEWIS XI. King of France, to which kingdom it has been ever ſince united.

Trade of Provence.

The trade of this province, according to the French writers, is exceeding great; and indeed in this, and in every other inſtance, where theſe people ſpeak of themſelves, ſome allowances muſt be made for their partiality. Nor is this ſpecies of folly confined to the French alone; every ſon of ADAM is apt to enlarge and magnify things beyond their due proportion, when they have any relation to himſelf. When a man treats of the power, wealth, or trade of the country where he was born or educated, he always makes the moſt of them; imagining, I preſume, that it may reflect ſome honour upon himſelf, who is a ſubject or member of it. But notwithſtanding allowances muſt be made for the partiality of the natives, certainly they are beſt qualified to give us a ſtate of theſe things, and therefore we are obliged to have a regard to their eſtimates.

To Italy.

The French relate, that they export annually from the port of Marſeilles to Italy, the value of three millions fifty thouſand livres of the product and Manufactures of Languedoc, Dauphiné, and Provence, viz. ſix thouſand bales of cloth, ſerges, and other woollen manufactures, being of the value of two millions of livres, (I preſume they mean when they come to market, and not prime coſt.) Of almonds, the value of two hundred thouſand livres. Two hundred barrels of honey, amounting to fifty thouſand livres; and as much in prunes and figs. The value of fourſcore thouſand livres in ſalted eels, olives, and anchovies. The value of twenty thouſand livres in oil, grain and flour. Six thouſand bales of cotton-linen made at Marſeilles, of the value of three hundred and fifty thouſand livres. Strong waters, the value of an hundred thouſand livres. Cotton waiſtcoats and ſtockings, and thread and worſted ſtockings, the value of two hundred thouſand livres. All which amounts to 3,050,000 livres, being about three hundred thouſand pounds Engliſh money.

On the contrary, they import annually from Italy to Marſeilles, ſix thouſand quintals of the hemp of Piedmont, at ſix livres the quintal or hundred weight. As many quintals of rice from the ſame country, by way of Nice and Onelia, at ſeven livres the quintal. Two thouſand quintals of rice from Lombardy, by the way of Genoa and that coaſt, at the ſame price with that of Piedmont. Fifteen thouſand charges of bread-corn from Venice and Ancona, at fourteen livres a charge, which I take to be about a quarter, or eight buſhels Engliſh. A thouſand charges or quarters from Sardinia and Sicily; and as much from Civita Vecchia, at the ſame price. Fifteen hundred quintals of ſulphur or brimſtone from Civita Vecchia and Ancona, at four livres ten ſols the quintal. Two hundred quintals of anniſeeds from the Pope's territories, at eighteen livres the quintal. Seven hundred and fifty cheſts of manna, which they gather in Sicily, the Pope's territories, and about mount St. Angelo in Calabria, (of which the laſt is the beſt) amounting to three hundred thouſand livres. Two thouſand ſix hundred bales of fine ſilk, of the growth of Savoy, Piedmont, the Milanois, Lombardy, Bolonia, Ferrara, and Sicily, conſiſting of two quintals the bale, at nine hundred livres the quintal, which is brought into France by the way of Pont Beauvoiſin. A thouſand bales of fine ſilk of two quintals each, imported into Marſeilles by ſea. All which merchandizes, and ſome other ſmall articles, amount to 3,335,350 livres.

To Spain.

The trade from Marſeilles to Spain is much more conſiderable than that to Italy. They ſend to Spain annually the value of above twelve hundred thouſand livres in linen of all ſorts, ſtuffs of Tours, brocades, taffeta's, and other wrought ſilks. The value of thirty thouſand livres in galoons and gold and ſilver lace; in counterfeit galoons, lace and pins. The value of ten thouſand livres in box-combs and others, made at Marſeilles and in the neighbourhood. But all this is nothing in compariſon of the trade of gold and ſilver ſtuffs from Lyons, brocades, wrought ſilks, ribbands, Chaumont laces, Avignon taffeta's, hard ware, Puy laces, linen of Britany, Rouen, &c. the camlets of Liſle in Flanders, the ſerges and coarſe woollen cloths of Niſmes and Auvergne, with their fuſtians and dimities, which amount in the whole to the value of ſix millions two hundred and fourſcore thouſand livres. Other merchandize of Marſeilles, conſiſting of hats, galls, paper, tobacco, prunes and thread, amounting to an hundred and fourſcore thouſand livres. Cotton-thread of Jeruſalem, gum-arabick, galls of Aleppo, drugs of all kinds, ſaffron, &c. amounting to fifteen hundred thouſand livres. The total of all which ſums, is nine millions an hundred and ſeventy thouſand livres.

On the contrary, they annually import from Spain the value of eight millions an hundred and fourſcore thouſand livres in cochineal, quinquina, indigo, Campechy-wood, wool of Segovia and other places, ſarſaparilla, ſugar, vermilion, ſilk, liquorice, pieces of eight, oil, dried raiſins, &c.

To Turky or the Levant.

As to their Turky or Levant trade, they ſend annually to Conſtantinople twelve or fifteen ſail, of which there are four or five ſhips, and the reſt ſmall barks. The merchandize they carry thither of their own growth or manufactures, or woollen cloths or ſerges, caps, paper, hard ware, clocks and watches. The goods they carry, which are the produce of other countries, are ſpice, cochineal, powdered ſugars, indigo, ſarſaparilla, quickſilver, arſenick, Braſil and Campechy-wood, white lead, tin-plates, wire, and other ſmall articles.

CHAP. X.

The goods imported from Conſtantinople to Marſeilles, are ſheeps wool, goats hair and goats wool, buffaloes hides, and other ſkins, yellow wax, allum, maſtick, chagrin-ſkins, box-wood, cotton, and other ſmall articles. The cuſtoms at the port of Conſtantinople do not amount to more than three per cent. on merchandizes inwards or outwards.

To the port of Smyrna, the French ſend annually ſeven or eight ſhips, and about as many ſmall barks. The merchandizes exported thither, are much the ſame as thoſe ſent to Conſtantinople; only the French find a greater vent for their caps, which the Arminians and Greeks take off their hands.

The returns from Smyrna to Marſeilles are made in cotton, cotton-linens, hempen yarn, ſponges, goats, wool, camlets, Turky carpets, goats hair, yarn, galls, drugs, maſtick, and Scio-turpentine, which is eſteemed the beſt in the Levant.

To Salonica, or Theſſalonica, they export from Marſeilles Engliſh cloth, or ſuch as they make in imitation of it, paper, cochineal, ſpices, tin, wire, tin-plates. And they import from thence hides, wool, wax, ſilk, cotton-thread, allum, ſponges, and tobacco.

The number of ſhips which go to Canea in the iſle of Candia, are very uncertain, it depends upon the crop of corn and oil. Some years an hundred barks ſail thither, carrying Engliſh-cloth, French-cloths, ſerges, caps, ſpices, and about an hundred thouſand livres in ſilver; making their returns from thence in oil for the making of ſoap, wax, bread-corn, and ſome cheeſe.

They have ſome pedling trade alſo with the iſlands of the Archipelago; and there is a particular company of merchants at Marſeilles, who trade to Satalia, a ſea-port of Pamphylia in the Leſſer Aſia, who carry only ſilver thither, and bring back wool, goats hair, wax, cotton-thread, gum-dragant, opium, and corinths or currants.

They do not ſend above two or three ſhips in a year to Scanderoon, the port-town to Aleppo, which carry and bring back the ſame goods as thoſe which trade to the other ports of Turky above-mentioned. The trade thither was heretofore more conſiderable, but the exceſſive duties which the Baſſa's lay on the caravans from Perſia and India, occaſions their travelling on to Smyrna, where the neighbourhood of the port prevents thoſe extortions.

The trade to Tripoli and Sidon, in Syria, is inconſiderable, as is that to Cyprus.

To Alexandria, the port town to Grand Cairo in Egypt, they uſually ſend from Marſeilles ten or twelve ſhips, and four or five barks with merchandize and treaſure. The goods are caps, paper, ſpices, drugs for painting, coral, wire, and other hard ware: for which they bring back in return, hides, flax, wool, cotton-thread, ſaffron, wax, dates, aloes, incenſe, coffee, myrrh, white plumes, herons feathers, elephants teeth, and gum lacque. The cuſtoms here alſo are three per cent. upon all merchandizes; but nothing is demanded for treaſure.

The military government of Provence, and fortified towns.

As to the military government of Provence, they have a governor-general and a lieutenant-general, beſides four other lieutenant-generals, who command in their reſpective diſtricts; the firſt in Aix and its dependance; the ſecond in Arles; the third at Marſeilles; and the fourth at Graſſe. The fortified towns in this province are very numerous, and are, Siſteron, Seyne, the caſtle of St. Vincent, Guilleaume, Colmars, Entrevaux, Antibes, the iſlands of Lerius, which comprehend thoſe of St. Margarets and St. Honorats, Graſs, St. Tropez, Hieres, Toulon and its forts, Marſeilles and its citadel, the iſlands of Chateau d'If, Pomegue and Rattonneau, Notredame de la Garde, Aix, Pertuis, Arles, Taraſcon, Forcalquier, Apt, Brignoles, St. Maximin and Barjols.

CHAP. XI.

Contains a deſcription of the province of Languedoc, olim *Occivania,* ſeu *Volcarum Regio.*

CHAP. XI.

Languedoc, the name.

Languedoc is ſuppoſed to have taken its name from the language of the country, where the people ſay *oc* inſtead of *oui*, yes; and that which renders this opinion the more probable is, that in ſome of their ancient records it is called Linguadoc.

Situation and extent.

This is the moſt ſoutherly part of France, and is of a very irregular figure, large at both ends, and ſlender in the middle, like a wallet, being bounded by Lyonois and Guienne on the north; by the river Rhone, which divides it from Dauphiné and Provence on the eaſt; by the gulph of Lyons and the Pyrenees, which ſeparates it from Spain, on the ſouth; and by Gaſcony, on the weſt; extending in length from eaſt to weſt above ſeventy leagues, but is ſo indented about the middle by the province of Rovergne on the one hand, and the gulph of Lyons on the other, that it is not above ten or twelve leagues broad in that part, tho' it be thirty-two leagues broad towards the eaſt, and almoſt as many on the weſt.

Face of the country. The air.

The north-eaſt part of this country is very mountainous, being taken up by the Cevennes; but the weſtern generally plain and low till we come towards Rouſſillon and the Pyrenees. The air is for the moſt part extremely pleaſant and healthful, inſomuch, that the air about Montpelier is reckoned an infallible cure for a conſumption, where the patient is not too far gone; and they are ſaid to abound in medicinal herbs more than any country in Europe.

Rivers.

The principal rivers are the Rhone, the Garonne and the Loire, which have been already deſcribed. Here are alſo the Tarn, the Agout, the Allier, the Aude, and ſeveral other rivers.

The Tarn riſing in the Gevaudan, takes its courſe weſtward, and paſſing by Alby, unites its ſtreams with the Agout, and afterwards with the Aveſon, and a little below falls into the Garonne. The Allier alſo riſing in the Gevaudan, runs northward thro' the Lyonois till it diſcharges itſelf into the Loire. The Aude riſes in the Pyrenees, and taking its courſe firſt northward, then turns about to the eaſtward, and falls into the gulph of Lyons to the eaſtward of Narbonne. The Agout riſes in Rovergne, and running weſtward, unites its waters with the Tarn and ſome other ſtreams, and afterwards falls into the Garonne.

But what is moſt admired in this country is the canal royal, upwards of an hundred miles in length, by means of which there is a communication between the Ocean and the Mediterranean. It is related by ſome of their hiſtorians, that the Romans had a deſign to have effected this, and after them CHARLEMAIN and FRANCIS I; but in the reign of HENRY IV, anno 1598, it was actually examined into and adjudged to be feazible. The Conſtable MONTMORENCI ordered a view to be taken of the grounds thro' which the canal was to be conducted. Cardinal Richlieu alſo had determined to put this project in execution, but was prevented by other affairs. And according to the French writers, this glorious undertaking was happily reſerved for Lewis le Grand, whoſe conduct they can never ſufficiently admire. He appointed commiſſioners to examine into it in the year 1664, and by the advice and direction of that celebrated engineer Monſieur Riquet and his ſons, it was begun in 1666 and finiſhed in the year 1680, when the old engineer died before he had made any experiment of the ſucceſs of his labours, his ſons making the firſt eſſay the following year 1681. They found great difficulties in effecting this work: the unevenneſs of the ground, the mountains, rivers and torrents they met with in their way, ſeemed to render the execution of it impoſſible. but where the ground ſunk, they raiſed the water by ſluices, of which there are fifteen towards the Ocean, and forty-five on the ſide of the Mediterranean, reckoning from the higheſt ground where they began to work. When they met with any mountains, they either levelled them or pierced them through. The moſt conſiderable overture is that of Malpas, which they dug thro' two hundred and forty yards, to make a paſſage for the canal, though it was almoſt all rock. The canal here is eight yards broad, beſides the banks on the ſide for horſes to draw the boats. When they found rivers or torrents in their way, they laid bridges and aqueducts over them, and the rivers frequently run underneath the canal, and ſometimes they diverted the current another way. There are abundance of large baſins and reſervoirs to ſupply the canal with water when there is occaſion; the moſt conſiderable of which is at St. Ferreol, that being about two thouſand fathoms in circumference, and near ninety foot deep, which receives the waters from the black mountains, that are kept up by a cauſey and three ſtrong walls. This reſervoir lies upon the higheſt ground which the canal goes over, ſo that the water can be let out either towards the Ocean or the Mediterranean. The voyage between the one ſea and the other by the way of the rivers Garonne, Lers, and this canal, may be performed in about fifteen days. But what renders it leſs advantageous than it would otherwiſe be, is the dangerous coaſt of Languedoc, there not being one port on that ſide where ſhipping can ride with any tolerable ſafety. There is not a more turbulent ſtormy ſea in the Mediterranean than the gulph of Lyons, nor a worſe ſhore for ſhips to come upon which require any depth of water, and this no doubt makes the merchants avoid it as much as they can; accordingly we find moſt of the produce and manufactures of Languedoc ſhipped at Marſeilles in Provence.

There is no part of France which afford ſo many ſprings of mineral waters as Languedoc; but of theſe hereafter.

Diviſion.

This province is uſually divided into the higher and lower Languedoc; the higher Languedoc is again ſubdivided into, 1. Part of the dioceſe of Montauban. 2. The dioceſe of Alby. 3. Caſtres. 4. Lavaur. 5. Thoulouſe. 6. Rieux. 7. St. Papoul. 8. Mirepoix. And, 9. Part of Cominges.

Subdiviſion.

The lower Languedoc comprehends, 1. The dioceſe of Alet. 2. Carcaſſone. 3. Narbonne. 4. St. Pons. 5. Beziers. 6. Ladeve. 7. Agde. 8. Montpellier. 9. Niſmes. 10. Uſez. 11. Viviers. 12. Alais. 13. Meude. And, 14. Pui.

Upper Languedoc.

There are not more than forty pariſhes of the dioceſe of Montauban in the province or government of Languedoc; of which the chief are, 1. Caſtle-Saraſin. 2. Montech. And, 3. Villemur.

Caſtle-Saraſin.

Caſtle-Saraſin, *Caſtrum Saracenum*, is a little town ſituated at the confluence of the rivers Aſin and the Garonne, four leagues from Montauban, conſiderable for little but the ruins of an ancient caſtle.

The dioceſe of Alby.

The dioceſe of Alby, *Albigenſis Tractus*, is bounded by Rovergne on the north and eaſt, and by the dioceſe of Thoulouſe on the ſouth-weſt. The natives of this country, the Albigenſes, ſeem to have made the earlieſt and the moſt vigorous oppoſition to the errors and ſuperſtitions of the church of Rome, particularly their doctrine of Tranſubſtantiation, of any people in Chriſtendom; and were frequently encouraged and ſupported by their own and other Princes. For inſtance, the Count of Thoulouſe, the King of Arragon, the Counts of Foix, Cominges, Bearn, &c. who were alſo ſovereign Princes, which occaſioned the Pope's arming a Croiſado againſt them, about the beginning of the thirteenth century, and transferring their dominions to thoſe that could conquer them. This gave the French King a handle to fall upon the Count of Thoulouſe, and deprive him of his territories, which he united to the crown of France, aſſigning only the county of Venaiſſin to the Pope for his ſhare of the plunder, as has been obſerved already in treating of the Venaiſſin. The chief towns in the dioceſe of Alby are, 1. Alby. 2. Gaillac. 3. Rabeſteins. 4. Cardelins. And, 5. Realmont.

Alby city.

Alby, *Albiga*, is ſituated on an eminence near the river Tarn, which encompaſſes the better half of it, about three hundred miles to the ſouthward of Paris, and forty north-eaſt of Thoulouſe, admired for the fine proſpect it affords of the neighbouring country, eſpecially from a noble terrace beautifully planted with trees, upon which the citizens walk out in the evening. It has been an Archbiſhop's ſee ever ſince the year 1676, who is temporal as well as ſpiritual Lord of the place. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Cecilia, the choir whereof is one of the fineſt in the kingdom.

Gaillac.

Gaillac is ſituated on the river Tarn three leagues below Alby, remarkable for an abby of Benedictines, and for producing ſome of the beſt white wine in France. At this place the river Tarn begins to be navigable.

Rabeſteins

Rabeſteins is ſituated alſo on the ſame river to the weſtward of Gaillac, and remarkable for its excellent wine.

Realmont.

Realmont is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Aſſou, two leagues to the ſouthward of Alby; it was one of the firſt towns that embraced the reformation, and became a place of arms for the Proteſtants during the civil wars of France.

The dioceſe and city of Caſtres.

The dioceſe of Caſtres lies to the ſouthward of that of Alby, the chief town whereof is Caſtres, *Caſtrum Albigenſium*, ſituated twenty miles ſouth of Alby: It is a fair city; divided in two parts by the river Agout; a biſhop's ſee, who is ſuffragan of Alby, and capital of a country, govern'd by its own Lords till the year 1518, when it was united to the crown of France.

The dioceſe and city of Lavaur.

The dioceſe of Lavaur lies between that of Alby and Thoulouſe. The chief towns are, 1. Lavaur. 2. St. Paul. 3. Revel. 4. Sorreze.

Lavaur is ſituated on the river Agout, fifteen miles to the eaſtward of Thoulouſe; it was one of the principal cities of the Albigenſes, which occaſioned the Catholicks to call it, *Sedes Satanæ, atque erroris hæretici primatia.* Pope John XXII.

eſtabliſhed the epiſcopal ſee about the year 1318.

The dioceſe of Thou-louſe.

The dioceſe or archbiſhoprick of Thoulouſe extends itſelf along the banks of the river Garonne, being bounded by the dioceſe of Alby on the north-eaſt, the county of Foix on the ſouth, and Languedoc on the weſt. The chief towns are, 1. Thouloufe. 2. Verfeuil. 3. Ville-franche. 4. Hauterive. 5. Monteſquiou. And, 6. Mongiſcar.

Thoulouſe city.

Thoulouſe, *Toloſa Colonia, Civitas Toloſatium, Tectoſagum*, the capital of Languedoc, is ſituated in a large plain on the river Garonne, in the latitude of 43 degrees 40 minutes near the confines of Gaſcony, about an hundred miles to the weſtward of the Mediterranean, and ſixty north of the Pyrenees: it is one of the largeſt cities in the kingdom, and has a fine ſtone bridge over the Garonne; the houſes are built of brick and make but a mean appearance generally, tho' there are ſome magnificent edifices. It is ſaid to be extremely well ſituated for trade, lying almoſt in the midway between the Ocean and the Mediterranean, and near the weſt end of the royal canal, by which thoſe ſeas have a communication; and yet the place is neither rich nor populous, there being not more than eighteen or nineteen thouſand families in it. And indeed after all the boaſts of this mighty canal, it ſeems there are ſo many ſluices upon it, that the trouble and charge of the navigation make it very little uſed. The merchants chuſe to ſend their goods by long ſea, round about Spain in time of peace, rather than by the way of this canal; though it muſt be confeſſed that in time of war it is of uſe to the country, as they can tranſport their goods from one part of the country to the other, without hazarding their being taken at ſea. The publick buildings moſt taken notice of are, the cathedral dedicated to St. STEPHEN, the choir whereof is very fine, lofty and well enlightned, but the Nef or Nave is not anſwerable to it. The church of St. Sirnim or Saturnim, firſt Biſhop of Thoulouſe, is a large magnificent edifice, but very dark; much valued however by good Catholicks for its vaſt treaſury of reliques, as the church of the Jacobins is for the ſhrine of THOMAS AQUINAS. The Dorade, the church of the Carmelites, that of the Dominicans, and the Dalbade are eſteemed noble ſtructures; beſides which there are a great number of handſom colleges, but the univerſity is in a manner abandoned. The college of the Jeſuits is a large and beautiful edifice; but this does not belong to the univerſity. The Chartreuſe alſo is well worth the viewing, as are the Archbiſhop's palace and the town-houſe. Along the Garonne there is a handſom quay or key, with a Courſe, conſiſting of a fine walk of trees, as they have in moſt of the great cities in France.

This town is of great antiquity, ancient hiſtories ſpeak of it as one of the moſt flouriſhing cities of the Gauls, and the capital of the Tectoſages, who inhabited this province, and conquer'd ſeveral countries in Greece and the leſſer Aſia, and planted colonies there. It was afterwards the capital of a Roman colony, of the kingdom of the Viſigoths and of Aquitain; and laſtly, it was the ſeat of the Earls of Thoulouſe, who were ſovereigns of this country for ſeveral hundred years, till the French King and the Pope divided their territories between them, as has been mentioned already. Here are ſtill the ruins of ſome Roman buildings, as of an amphitheatre, capitol, &c. And we muſt not forget the relation they give us of Q. SERVILIUS CEPIO's covetouſneſs, who being conſul in the 658th year of Rome, plundered their temples of a great quantity of gold, and ſent it to Marſeilles, ordering the convoy to be cut in pieces, that he might engroſs all the treaſure to himſelf, and not be accountable to the ſenate for it; which being diſcovered by the Romans, they confiſcated his eſtate and applied it to publick uſes, and the conſul died in exile; whence came the proverb, *Aurum Toloſanum*, to ſignify an ill-gotten eſtate.

The dioceſe and city of Riez.

The dioceſe of Riez lies to the ſouthward of that of Thouloufe, on the confines of Gaſcony, the only conſiderable town whereof is Riez, ſituate on the river Garonne, about five and twenty miles to the ſouthward of Thoulouſe: the cathedral has nothing remarkable, but the epiſcopal palace is a handſom ſtructure; which is all the deſcription the French writers give us of this city.

The dioceſe and city of St. Papoul.

The dioceſe of St. Papoul lies to the ſouthward of that of Alby; the chief towns whereof are St. Papoul, *Fanum Papuli*, ſituate at the foot of mount Moire, about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Thoulouſe, conſiderable on account of its being a biſhop's ſee. And,

Caſtelmandary.

Caſtelmandary, *Caſtellum Arinorum*, ſituate on a hill about a league to the weſtward of St. Papoul; the royal canal paſſes thro' this town, and on account of the ſteepneſs of the hill here, which would occaſion too precipitate a flood of waters, they have erected five locks upon it with great ſluices one above another, and large baſins between each, whereby the water is retained, and the navigation continued.

The dioceſe and city of Mirepoix.

The dioceſe of Mirepoix lies to the ſouthward of that of St. Papoul. The chief towns are Mirepoix, Carlat, La Roque, and Fangeaux.

Mirepoix, *Mirapicium, Mirapicis Caſtrum*, is ſituated on the river Lers, about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of St. Papoul.

Carlat, where Mr. Bayle was born.

Carlat lies about four leagues from Mirepoix, and is only remarkable for being the place of Monſieur BAYLE's nativity, who wrote that excellent critical dictionary which goes by his name, and many other valuable tracts. He was born in the year 1648, and died at Rotterdam the 28th of December 1706.

Part of the dioceſe of Cominges

The dioceſe of Cominges is part of the province of Guienne, only eleven pariſhes of it belong to Languedoc, and are called Little Cominges; the chief pariſhes whereof are Valentine and St. Beat. But I ſhall give an account of this dioceſe in the deſcription of Guienne.

Lower Languedoc. The dioceſe and city of Alet.

In the Lower Languedoc lies, firſt, the dioceſe of Alet, ſouth-eaſt of that of Mirepoix; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Alet. 2. Limoux. 3. Quilla. 4. St. Paul. And. 5. Caudies.

Alet, *Electa*, is ſituated at the foot of the Pyrenees, upon the river Aude, twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Mirepoix.

The dioceſe and city of Carcaſſonne.

The dioceſe of Carcaſſonne lies to the northward of Alet. The chief towns are, 1. Carcaſſonne. 2. Arebes. And, 3. Grace.

Carcaſſonne, *Carcaſo*, is ſituated on the river Aude, twenty miles to the northward of Alet, and thirty weſt of Narbonne. It is divided into the high and low town by the river. The lower town is well built, and the ſtreets ſpacious. It has a briſk trade, very populous, and eſteemed one of the fineſt towns in Languedoc. The churches, convents and publick buildings all make a good appearance; and there are very beautiful walks of trees about it. The manufacture of cloth here is conſiderable. The caſtle is ſtrongly ſituated, and commands the town.

The dio-ceſe of Narbonne

The dioceſe of Narbonne lies upon the gulph of Lyons, to the eaſtward of Carcaſſonne. The chief towns are, 1. Narbonne. 2. Capeſtan. 3. Biſan. 4. Caunes. 5. Peyriac. 6. Sigean. 7. Burban. And, 8. Tuchan.

Narbonne city.

Narbonne, *Narbo-Martius*, *Decumanorum Colonia*, is ſituated in a bottom, almoſt ſurrounded by mountains, on a canal which affords it a communication with the canal royal and the river Aude on the one ſide, and with the Mediterranean on the other; from which laſt it is about two leagues diſtant, and ſixty from Montpelier to the weſt. It is a large town, and was ſtrongly fortified, but their late Kings demoliſhed the fortifications on account of their adhering to the Calviniſts, leaving nothing ſtanding but the ramparts. The cathedral is an old Gothick ſtructure, which has very little in it to be admired, except the picture of the reſurrection, and the raiſing LAZARUS from the dead. There are beſides five pariſh-churches in the place, and ſeveral monaſteries. They ſuffer great inconveniences when any heavy rains happen to fall, by the floods, which run down in torrents from the mountains; and the dampneſs of the country makes it very unhealthful, tho' anciently, when it was well drained, they had a very good air. The Romans eſteemed it ſo much, that they made it the capital of their firſt colony in Gaul, and beautified it with a capitol and amphitheatre of marble, aqueducts, and other uſeful and magnificent edifices, the ruins whereof are ſtill viſible. It is at preſent the ſee of an Archbiſhop, who by virtue of his office is preſident of the States of Languedoc. The Archbiſhop's palace is a kind of fortreſs, encompaſs'd with large ſquare towers. The other publick buildings have little remarkable in them.

The dio-ceſe of St. Pons.

The dioceſe of St. Pons is ſituated to the northward of that of Narbonne, in a barren mountainous country, where the produce of the ſoil will ſcarce pay their taxes, but they have excellent marble in their quarries. The chief towns are St. Pons, Orlaques, Ceſſenon, and Olouſan.

St. Pons city.

The little city of St. Pons ſtands among the mountains, about thirty miles to the northward of Narbonne, and was made a biſhop's ſee in the year 1318; but I don't find it conſiderable on any other account.

The dio-ceſe of Beziers.

The dioceſe of Beziers lies between that of Narbonne and the province of Rovergne, and is one of the moſt fruitful parts of Languedoc, producing corn, wine and oil in abundance. The chief towns are, 1. Beziers. 2. Celles. 3. Bec de Roux. 4. Colombiers. 5. Marviel. And, 6. Vendres.

Beziers city.

Beziers, *Biteria*, is ſituated fifteen miles north-eaſt of Narbonne and two miles north of the Mediterranean. It ſtands on a hill, at the foot whereof runs the river Orbe: the royal canal alſo paſſes by it. The proſpect from the terrace or belvidere before the cathedral church, ſays my French author, is altogether enchanting, extending over the valley thro' which the river Orbe paſſes, and the hills beyond it riſing inſenſibly, form a kind of amphitheatre covered with olives and vineyards. The town is large, but not proportionably populous. The cathedral has nothing remarkable in it. The Jeſuits college is a very elegant building. The Romans made it a colony in the time of JULIUS CÆSAR, ſending the young ſoldiers of the ſeventh legion thither, which occaſioned it to be called *Colonia Septimanorum Juniorum*; and here were two temples erected in honour of JULIUS and AUGUSTUS. It was governed by its particular Counts before it was united to the crown, which happened about the year 1247. The famous engineer PAUL RIQUET, who made the royal canal, was a native of this city.

The dio-ceſe of Lodeva.

The dioceſe of Lodeva is a dry barren country, bordering on the province of Rovergne and the Cevennes, which does not produce corn enough for the ſubſiſtence of the natives; but their trade in cattle, which they feed upon their mountains, and their manufactures of cloth and hats, brings a great deal of money into the country, and renders it one of the richeſt parts of the province. The chief towns are, 1. Lodeva. 2. Clermont. And, 3. Canet.

Lodeva city.

Lodeva, *Luteva*, *Forum Neronis*, is ſituated at the foot of the mountains of the Cevennes, thirty miles to the northward of Beziers and the Mediterranean, more remarkable for its antiquity than its preſent grandeur. The Biſhop is temporal as well as ſpiritual Lord of the place, and aſſumes the title of Count of Montbrun, an adjacent caſtle.

Clermont.

Clermont is a little town ſituated on an eminence, at the foot whereof runs the river Lergue, near which is a royal manufactory, where they make moſt part of the cloth which is carried to the Levant.

Agde dio-ceſe.

The dioceſe of Agde lies upon the Mediterranean, and the royal canal, to the eaſtward of Beziers, and ſouth of Lodeva. It is one of the richeſt countries in the kingdom, having a great trade in corn, wine, oil, ſilk and wool. The chief towns are, 1. Agde. 2. Pezenas. 3. St. Tiberi. 4. Breſcon. 5. Sette. And, 6. Meze.

Agde city.

Agde, *Agatha*, is ſituated on the river Eraut, about half a league from the place where it falls into the Mediterranean, and ſtands fifteen miles to the eaſtward of Beziers. It is a little populous town, extending along the river Eraut, which forms a port for ſmall barks, and is for the moſt part built of a black ſtone. There is a little fort at the mouth of the river for its defence. Moſt of the inhabitants are merchants or ſeamen. There is a chapel near this place dedicated to the bleſſed Virgin, which brings a great concourſe of people hither, particularly ſeafaring men, who make their vows before her image for the ſucceſs of their voyages, and reſort hither with their offerings when they have had any remarkable eſcape.

Cette.

Cette is a port-town, ſituate on the bay of Magnelone, to the eaſtward of Agde, which the late King fortified for the protection of the trade of this coaſt.

Pezenas.

Pezenas, *Piſcenæ*, ſtands on an eminence near the river Peyne, three leagues north of Agde, eſteemed one of the fineſt ſituations in Languedoc. There is in it a collegiate church, a college of the prieſts of the oratory, ſeveral convents and other handſom buildings.

The dio-ceſe of Montpe-lier.

The dioceſe of Montpelier is a mighty agreeable country, being covered with olives and vines, and the air preferable to any in Europe. Tho' their lands are not the richeſt, they are ſo well cultivated that they yield all kinds of grain. It lies upon a bay of the Mediterranean ſea called Magnelonne. The chief towns are, 1. Montpelier. 2. Gange. 3. Lunel. 4. Frontignan. 5. Agnana. 6. Montferrand. And, 7. Barave.

Montpe-lier city.

Montpelier, *Mons Peſſulanus*, *Mons Puellarum*, is pleaſantly ſituated on a hill, at the foot whereof runs the river Lez, two miles to the northward of the bay of Magnelonne, and ſixty to the eaſtward of Narbonne. To the northward there is a proſpect of a fine country, and to the ſouthward they have a near view of the Mediterranean. Nor does the agreeable ſituation more recommend it than the healthfulneſs of the air, which occaſions foreigners of conſumptive or weakly conſtitutions to reſort hither from all parts. The city is not large, or generally well built, though there are ſome good houſes in it. The inhabitants are computed to amount to between two and three thouſand. There is a citadel which commands the place, erected to bridle the Proteſtants, who were maſters of it in the civil wars, till LEWIS XIII. took it from them anno 1623. The principal buildings are the palace of juſtice, where their courts are held, the royal college, inſtituted for human learning, and the churches of St. Peter and St. Mary. But what this city is moſt conſiderable for, is its univerſity, chiefly frequented by ſtudents in phyſick, who could not, ſays my author, have choſen a more agreeable or commodious ſituation in France, for the climate is extremely ſerene and temperate, and the country ſo abounds with vegetables, that it is but one large phyſick-garden. The number of apothecaries in this ſmall city is incredible, ſome ſay near two hundred, who all live very well however on the many compoſitions they make, which from hence are diſtributed to all parts of Europe, as confection of alkermes, Hungary-water, oil of ſpike, capillary-ſyrup, eſſences, perfumes, treacle equal to that of Venice, &c. The King's phyſick-garden without the town is well ſtored with medicinal herbs, digeſted into ſeveral partitions, each having an inſcription over the door, ſhewing what kinds it contains. The inhabitants are polite and ſociable; their women the handſomeſt in France, and extremely free in converſation, inſomuch that there is a French proverb that ſays, the women of Montpelier are ſo wiſe, that they have nothing to learn on their wedding-day. This town was called *Mons Puellarum* from a hermitage which ſtood here before the city was built, inhabited by two young women, of whoſe ſanctity the people had a very great opinion.

An Engliſh phyſician who travelled to Montpelier, ſays he found ſeveral conſumptive people there, who came from all parts of Europe, but eſpecially from England, to breathe this air; and he obſerved the good effects of it upon bodies of a moiſt and phlegmatick temperament; but in dry and cholerick conſtitutions the remedy rather exaſperates it, and the patient ſoon breathes his laſt. One of the gates of this town is built after the model of a triumphal arch, on which there are ſeveral baſs-reliefs and inſcriptions expreſſing the glorious actions of LEWIS XIV. for this being a place to which foreigners reſort from all parts of Europe, he could not gratify his vanity better than by erecting ſuch a monument of it here. On one ſide we ſee religion trampling upon hereſy with this inſcription, *Extincta Hæreſi.* On another part are repreſented the two ſeas joined by the royal canal, the inſcription, *Junctis Oceano & Mediterraneo Mari.* The other ſide is adorned with trophies, towns and provinces conquered by France, with this inſcription, *Sub Oculis Hoſtium, Belgii Arcibus Expugnatis,* and others of the like nature. The walks about the town are extremely pleaſant, where the company who reſort to this city divert themſelves in the evening: and though the houſes don't make a very grand appearance without, as has been obſerved already, yet they are moſt of them built with free ſtone, and very commodious. The principal manufactures beſides thoſe mentioned above, are thoſe of ſilk and wax; the laſt of which they employ a great many hands in refining and whitening, as they do others in making verdegreaſe, *Viride Æris*; of which I ſhall give a further account hereafter.

Frontignan.

Frontignan is ſituated on the bay of Magnelone, 4 leagues ſouth-weſt of Montpelier, famous for the muſcadine-wine which grows in a valley, and on the ſides of the hills which ſurround it, and for the delicious raiſins which are made of theſe grapes.

The dioceſe of Niſmes.

The dioceſe of Niſmes has the mountains of the Cevennes on the north; Provence, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhone, on the eaſt; the Mediterranean on the ſouth, and the dioceſe of Montpelier on the weſt. It is generally a plain level country, abounding in corn, wine and oil, beſides abundance of ſilk, which the natives work and improve to great advantage. The chief towns are, 1. Niſmes. 2. Sommieres. 3. Aymargues. And, 4. Beaucaire.

Niſme. city.

Niſmes, *Nemauſis Metropolis, Civitas Nemauſenſis,* is ſituated in a fine plain, eight leagues to the eaſtward of Montpelier, and five leagues north-weſt of Arles, and is ſuppoſed to have taken its name from the woods which anciently ſurrounded it. It is a large town, containing about twelve thouſand families, the ſtreets are ſpacious, the houſes well built, and travellers commend the gardens and fine walks about it. The cathedral and other publick buildings don't ſeem to have any thing remarkable in them. What Niſmes is moſt famous for, is the antiquities that are found here, particularly an amphitheatre, the moſt entire of any in Europe. It is of an oval figure, having two rows of arches which form two open galleries one over the other, conſiſting of ſixty arches each, being an hundred and fourſcore and fifteen fathoms in circumference. The entrance is by four doors, placed eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth. The building conſiſts of vaſt large ſtones, as durable as marble. The arena in the middle of the theatre, where their combats and ſhews were exhibited, is an hundred feet in diameter, filled up at preſent with little houſes. On ſeveral of the ſtones are baſs-reliefs, with the figures of ROMULUS and REMUS ſuckled by a wolf, combats of gladiators, bulls, &c. The ſeats of the ſpectators are demoliſhed, and the dens of the wild beaſts filled up, but the outſide ſtill makes a tolerable appearance. Here are alſo the ruins of a temple dedicated to DIANA, and another oblong ſquare building, ſuppoſed to be a Roman temple, with antique ſtatues, pillars, and the figures of Roman eagles finely wrought, which ſufficiently ſhew its antiquity, as well as the numerous braſs medals and inſcriptions dug up here. From the medals our antiquaries conjecture that AUGUSTUS fixed a Roman colony here immediately after the battle of Actium.

Pont du Guard.

The Pont du Guard is three leagues north of this city; it lies over the river Gardon, and is an amazing ſtructure. It is indeed three bridges one upon another, and joins two mountains together: the uppermoſt ſerves to ſupport an aqueduct which brought water to the city, and ſerved to fill the arena of the theatre above mentioned when they had ſea-fights repreſented upon it. This aqueduct taking in all its windings, is not leſs than nine leagues in length. The loweſt bridge which lies over the river Gardon has ſix arches, each of them fifty eight foot wide, and is fourſcore and three feet in height. The ſecond bridge is ſupported by eleven arches, and is ſixty ſeven foot in height. The third, which ſtands upon thirty five arches, and ſupports the aqueduct, is five hundred and fourſcore feet and an half in length: and the whole height of the three bridges, an hundred fourſcore and two feet. The water of the river Gardon was brought into the city by another aqueduct, of which there are ſtill ſome remains. The aqueduct which was ſupported by the Pont du Guard, when it came near the city was divided into three branches, one of which brought the water to the theatre, as has been already obſerved; the ſecond ſupplied a great fountain at Niſmes, and the third ſerved ſeveral private houſes.

Beaucaire. Beaucaire is ſituated on the weſt bank of the Rhone, over-againſt Taraſcon, four leagues to the eaſtward of Niſmes, in which is a collegiate church. But this place is chiefly conſiderable for the fair of St. Magdalen which is held here, to which merchants reſort from all parts.

The dioceſe of Uſez. The dioceſe of Uſez is one of the largeſt in Languedoc, extending from the mountains of the Cevennes to the Rhone. It produces corn, wine, oil and ſilk, and feeds great numbers of ſheep. The chief towns are, 1. Uſez. 2. Vens. 3. St. Ambroſe. 4. Pont St. Eſprit. 5. Bagnols. And, 6. Roquemaure.

Uſez city. Uſez is ſituated among the mountains, upon the little river Eyſeut, about twelve miles to the northward of Niſmes. It is but a ſmall town, containing ſeven or eight hundred families. The catheral is dedicated to St. THIERRY: the terrace on the ſide of it affords an admirable proſpect of the neighbouring country. It is the capital of a Dutchy as well as a Biſhoprick, and here is the fountain d'Aure, which furniſhes the water of the aqueduct of Pont du Guard. All over the town we ſee great numbers of ſtone arches, which, according to the natives, were erected to defend them from the heats of the ſun in ſummer.

Pont Eſprit. Pont Eſprit is a little town ſituated about twenty miles to the northward of Uſez, famous for a noble ſtone bridge over the Rhone, which here runs with incredible rapidity, and was a very dangerous paſſage while it continued a ferry. This bridge is eight hundred and forty yards long, and five yards ſixteen inches wide, ſuſtained by twenty-ſix arches. It was begun in the year 1265, and finiſhed about the year 1309, being built with the offerings made by devout people at a church or chapel dedicated to the Holy Ghoſt, and famous for many pretended miracles wrought there. Pope NICHOLAS V, in one of his bulls, which grants indulgencies to thoſe who ſhould viſit the ſaid chapel and hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt, ſays, that God being touched with the miſfortunes of his faithful ſervants who viſited the church and hoſpital of the Holy Spirit, who were frequently ſhipwrecked at this paſſage of the Rhone, had ſent his angel under the form of a ſhepherd, who had marked out the place where they ſhould build a bridge; and the church, the hoſpital and bridge, have ſtill a very good revenue for their ſupport, ariſing from the charities of devout pilgrims, which the King has augmented by a duty laid on all ſalt that paſſes the bridge, amounting to eight or nine thouſand livres per annum. There is a ſtrong citadel alſo at the foot of it for its defence, it being a very important paſs.

Bagnols. Bagnols, or Baignols, *Balneolum*, is ſituated on the ſide of a hill near the river Ceſe, two leagues to the ſouthward of St. Eſprit. It is a little town, conſiſting of about nine hundred houſes, incloſed with a wall, and fortified againſt the Camiſars in the late civil wars. The great ſquare in the middle of the town is one of the fineſt in Languedoc, having a piazza on all ſides under the houſes which ſurround it. The river Ceſe, which paſſes by it, carries a gold ſand.

The dioceſe of Viviers. The dioceſe of Viviers comprehends the lower Vivarez and part of the higher, the reſidue whereof belongs to the Archbiſhoprick of Vienne. This country lies along the weſt bank of the Rhone, to the northward of the dioceſe of Uſez, and conſtitutes part of the Cevennes. In the Higher Vivarez the chief towns are Annonay Tournon, Cruſol or Curſol. In the Lower Vivarez are Monlaut, Boulogne, Etrange, Privas, Pouſſin, Viviers, Andiol, Villeneuve and Berg.

Annonay. Annonay is a ſmall town, ſituated two miles to the weſtward of the Rhone, upon the confines of the Lionois, the capital of a Marquiſate belonging to the family of Ventadour, but not conſiderable on any other account.

Tournon. Tournon, *Taurodunum*, *Turnonium*, is ſituated on the ſide of a mountain, the foot whereof is waſhed by the river Rhone, having a caſtle above it. It ſtands four leagues ſouth of Annonay. The Jeſuits have one of the fineſt colleges in the kingdom here, and there is a handſome convent; beſides which, there are ſeveral other monaſteries in the place. But the French writers do not give us any farther deſcription of it.

Viviers. Viviers, *Vivarium*, *Abba Helviorum*, the capital of the Vivarez, and the See of a Biſhop who ſtiles himſelf Count of Viviers, is ſituated among the rocks, a little diſtance from the Rhone, fifteen miles north of Pont Eſprit, and ſeventy ſouth of Lyons. It is a little ill-built town: the cathedral is a large edifice, and ſtands above it, but is not admired for its beauty.

The dioceſe of Mende. The dioceſe of Mende comprehends the country of Gevaudan, and lies to the weſtward of the Vivarez; the ancient inhabitants were called Cavali, Gabales and Gabali, and is divided into the higher and lower. The higher is almoſt entirely incloſed by the mountains of Margarette and Aubrac; the lower makes part of the Cevennes, a barren mountainous country. The chief towns are Mende, Javoux and Marvejols.

Mende city. Mende, *Mimatum Gabalorum*, or *Mimata*, is a ſmall city of a triangular figure, ſtanding in a valley ſurrounded with mountains, near the head of the river Lot, ſeventy miles north of Montpelier, and fifty to the weſtward of the Rhone. It is an ill-built dirty town, but well peopled, and admired for its excellent fountains. It is the See of a Biſhop, who ſtiles himſelf Count, and is joint Lord of the place with the King. Travellers mention no other publick buildings but the cathedral church and ſome few convents, which have nothing extraordinary in them. Near this place is an hermitage and chapel cut out of a rock, much frequented by the devout people of the country, who have a tradition that St. PRIVAT ſuffered martyrdom there.

Marvege. Marvege is ſituated in a fine valley, watered by the river Colange, about twenty miles north-weſt of Mende. It is generally a regular well-built town, conſidering the country it ſtands in. It has four gates, at every one of which there is a church and a fountain. The principal ſquare is large, adorned with a fountain and two baſins. There are in the town about a thouſand families, and they have a good trade, eſpecially at their ſix annual fairs.

The dioceſe of Alais. The dioceſe of Alais has that of Mende on the north-weſt, and Uſez on the ſouth-eaſt. The chief towns are Alais, Aguemortes and Anduze.

Alais city.

Alais is ſituated on the river Gardon, about thirty miles to the northward of Montpelier. It is a large populous trading town, with ſeven gates. The cathedral is the only publick building mentioned by the French writers, and this has nothing extraordinary in its ſtructure. It is commanded by a fort, which was built here in the year 1689, to keep the people of the Cevennes within the bounds of their duty. A little below the fort is a noble terrace, which affords a fine proſpect of the adjacent country.

Aguemortes.

Aguemortes, *Aqua Mariana*, ſtands about five miles to the ſouthward of Niſmes, and one to the northward of the Mediterranean; though in the time of St. Lewis it was a port and ſtood cloſe to the ſea-ſhore, where he built a pharos or light-houſe for the direction of mariners; and here it was he embarked in his expeditions to Africa.

Anduze.

Anduze is ſituated on the river Gardon, ſouth-weſt of Alais, and is a conſiderable place on account of its trade.

The dioceſe of Puy

The dioceſe of Puy comprehends the country of Velais, the moſt northerly part of Languedoc, and conſiſts altogether of mountains and rocks perpetually covered with ſnow. The chief towns are Puy, Montfalcon, St. Diſier, St. Paulian, Solignac and Alegre.

Puy city.

Puy is ſituated on the mountain Anis, near the banks of the Loire, about forty miles to the northward of Mende. It is a large city, and has abundance of monaſteries in it, but is moſt remarkable for the cathedral dedicated to the bleſſed Virgin, in which they pretend to have a great many precious reliques, that draw multitudes of devout people hither, ſome of which a writer would be cautious of naming, leſt it ſhould render the Chriſtian religion ridiculous. And indeed the Roman catholicks are infinitely to blame, in giving occaſion to men of looſe principles to ſcoff at every thing that's ſacred, by making ſuch fooleries the ſubject of ignorant people's devotions.

The ancient ſtate of Languedoc

Languedoc was anciently poſſeſſed by the Volcæ and the Tectoſages; the firſt inhabited the higher Languedoc, and the other the lower. The Romans made a conqueſt of it under the conſulate of Quintus Fabius Maximus, ſix hundred and thirty-ſix years after the foundation of Rome; after which it obtained the name of *Gallia Narbonenſis*. It remained under their dominion till the reign of the Emperor Honorius, who finding the Vandals poſſeſſed of Spain, and making frequent excurſions into Gaul, which was too far removed from the ſeat of the Empire, transferred both Gaul and Spain to the Goths, according to the French hiſtorians, under the following conditions: 1. That the ancient laws and privileges of the country ſhould be preſerved. And, 2. That the Emperor Honorius and his ſucceſſors, notwithſtanding a preſcription of thirty years, ſhould be at liberty to reſume this grant, upon aſſigning other lands to the Goths. And it was by virtue of this grant that the Goths took poſſeſſion of *Gallia Narbonenſis* under the reign of Adolphus. This Prince took up his reſidence at the mouth of the Rhone, at a place anciently called the palace of the Goths, and Pons St. Giles's. The ſucceſſors of Adolphus enjoyed *Gallia Narbonenſis* near three hundred years, under the reigns of thirty of their Kings; the laſt of whom was killed in battle by the Saracens when they invaded Spain, about the year 714. The Saracens took the advantage of their victory and advanced into Languedoc, extending their conqueſts as far as Lyons; but marching on to Tours, they were encounter'd by Charles Martel, and entirely defeated, loſing upwards of three hundred and ſixty thouſand of their men, if we might credit the hiſtorians of thoſe times: however, certain it is, they were totally routed and driven out of France by Charles Martel and his ſon King Pepin. Charlemain, upon the birth of his ſon Lewis the Debonaire, erected the kingdom of Aquitain, to which he united Thoulouſe and great part of the higher Languedoc. During his ſon's minority he appointed Dukes, Counts and Marquiſſes in the principal towns and diſtricts, who were confirmed in their governments by Lewis the Debonaire. And tho' they had thoſe commands at firſt only during pleaſure, their poſterity who ſucceeded them look'd on the territories they governed as their reſpective inheritances, and claimed the dominion of them: though the French hiſtorians alledge, that they always remained vaſſals to their Kings, and receiv'd the inveſtiture of their territories from them. Corson or Torson being appointed Count of Thoulouſe by Charlemain, was the head of that family, who by their alliances and intermarriages with other petty ſovereigns of this province, became in time poſſeſſed of the greateſt part of it, and ſo continued till the thirteenth century, when the Albigenſes who oppos'd the errors of the church of Rome choſe Raimond VII, Count of Thoulouſe, for their general, which occaſioned the Pope to publiſh a croiſade againſt him; and after a tedious ſtruggle of many years, the territories of the Counts of Thoulouſe were divided between the Pope and the French King, as has been taken notice of already; but Languedoc was not expreſsly reunited to the crown of France till the year 1361. And the author of the new deſcription of France ſays, their Kings now poſſeſs it by right of conqueſt, and wonders upon what foundation Moreri went, when he ſays that Provence was united to the crown of France upon three conditions: 1. That the governor of it ſhould always be a Prince of the blood. 2. That the King ſhould impoſe no taxes but by the conſent of the States. And, 3. That this province ſhould be governed by written laws, and not by will and pleaſure.

The trade and produce of Languedoc.

The trade and produce of Languedoc is very conſiderable. The product of the ſoil and the merchandizes they export are, their wines, which they vend in Italy; oils, which they ſend to Germany and Switzerland; corn, which they ſend to Spain, when they happen to have plentiful crops: cheſnuts and raiſins, which they export to Tunis and Algier; woollen cloth, which they ſend to Germany, Switzerland and the Levant, and with which they clothe the King's troops: their ſilk-trade is alſo very great, tho' it has not been introduced into this province much above fourſcore years. After this general account of the trade, my author proceeds to ſhew what is the proper product of every dioceſe and great town as follows:

Trade of Thoulouſe

The principal trade in the dioceſe of Thoulouſe, conſiſts in corn and woad uſed for dying, of which they have vended formerly more than the value of a million of livres annually; but ſince the uſe of indigo has been introduced, the cultivation of woad has been neglected, tho' it dyes a much finer blue. The trade of the city of Thoulouſe is inconſiderable in proportion to the extent of the town; it conſiſts in Spaniſh wool, coarſe hangings, and ſtuffs made of ſilk and wool, of ſmall value. They ſearch alſo the ſands of the rivers Garonne and Ariege for gold duſt, but it is ſcarce worth their trouble.

That

Of Montauban.

That part of the dioceſe of Montauban which is in Languedoc produces plenty of corn and wine, but they convert moſt of the latter into brandy. They have alſo a great deal of woad, and breed abundance of horſes.

Of Alet.

In the dioceſe of Alet, the diſtrict of Limoux produces excellent white wine, but it will not bear tranſporting. They have alſo a woollen manufacture, and a ſtaple of iron here.

Mirepoix.

The dioceſe of Mirepoix produces all kinds of proviſion and cattle, but they ſend ſcarce any goods abroad, except box-combs that are vended in Spain and Italy.

Caſtle Manduary.

The plains about Caſtle Manduary abound in corn.

Caſtres.

The trade of the dioceſe of Caſtres conſiſts in cattle and woollen ſtuffs, ſuch as ſerges, bays, &c.

Alby.

The dioceſe of Alby has plenty of corn, wine, ſaffron, cattle, prunes, woad and wool. They export great quantities of dried prunes, crapes, ſerges, bays, and their Gaillac-wines, which are the only wine of the province that will bear the ſea; they carry them to Bourdeaux, where the Engliſh buy them up. They pretend alſo to ſome coal-pits, but theſe are not, I have reaſon to believe, ſo conſiderable as they make them.

St. Pons.

The trade of the dioceſe of St. Pons is inconſiderable; what they have conſiſts in corn and cattle, and ſome woollen manufactures, with the fine marble which their mountains produce.

Narbonne.

The dioceſe of Narbonne produces plenty of corn, eſteemed the beſt in the Kingdom, on which account there are conſiderable merchants at Narbonne that deal in nothing elſe. They have alſo a great deal of oil, but little wine. The ſalt-works of Periac furniſh upper Languedoc with ſalt.

Carcaſſone

The dioceſe of Carcaſſone is ſo barren a country, that it does not produce ſufficient food for the inhabitants; but they are abundantly ſupplied by the induſtry of the natives. The city of Carcaſſone, ſays my author, is but one great woollen manufactury, as well as the country about it. What wine they have is good, and they have ſome excellent quarries of marble of various colours: one is reſerved ſolely for the King's uſe, which is a white marble with a vein of carnation.

Beziers.

The dioceſe of Beziers is the richeſt of the province, producing great plenty of corn, wine and oil. They have alſo quarries of marble and coal-pits. They make ſome fine druggets, which are exported to Germany; but the natives in general have not a genius for trade.

Lodeve.

The dioceſe of Lodeve is a dry barren country, and yet one of the richeſt on account of their woollen manufactures, and that of hats.

Agde.

The dioceſe of Agde is of a ſmall extent, but one of the richeſt in the kingdom. Their wool is fine, and their country produces plenty of corn, wine, oil, ſilk and ſalt.

Trade and produce of Montpelier.

The ſoil in the dioceſe of Montpelier is not extremely rich, but is cover'd nevertheleſs with vines and olives. Moſt part of the trade of this diſtrict is carried on at the city of Montpelier, where they have ſome ſpecies of manufactures almoſt peculiar to themſelves, as particularly that of Verd-de-gris, or Verdegreaſe, *Viride Æris*, uſed in painting and ſurgery, which is made with copper-plates, and chiefly the buſineſs of the women. The copper-plates are about the ſize of a playing card, but ſomething thicker. They firſt put two pints of wine at the bottom of an earthen pot, and over the wine lay little ſticks acroſs, on which they lay a layer of dried grapes, and upon them a layer of copper-plates, and then grapes again, and ſo alternately plates and grapes till the pot is filled; and having covered it with a ſtraw-cover, and left a paſſage for the vapour of the wine to aſcend, they let it ſtand ten or twelve days. The ſtrength of the wine at the bottom having occaſioned a certain green matter to ariſe on the copper-plates, they take them out of the pots, and lay them in the air to dry, after which the women ſcrape off the green matter, and this is what we call verdegreaſe. The ſame plates are put to the ſame uſe again for two or three years, till they are ſcraped ſo thin that they are forced to take others. The wine has the beſt effect on the copper in ſummer, when every pot will produce about a pound of verdegreaſe. They make at Montpelier annually about two thouſand quintals or hundred weight, and the ordinary price is twenty pence a pound. It is vended chiefly in Holland, Germany, England, and Italy.

The wool-trade is the moſt conſiderable which is carried on at Montpelier, they import their wool from Smyrna, Conſtantinople, Sally, Tunis and Spain, and either manufacture it themſelves, or vend it unwrought in the neighbouring provinces. They alſo whiten great quantities of wax, which they bring from the Levant, amounting annually to an hundred thouſand livres and upwards, which is in much greater eſteem than that made in Holland.

The tanners of Montpelier and Ganges have a good trade in ſkins, amounting to the value of two hundred thouſand livres and upwards. And their ſtrong waters, brandy, cinnamon-waters, Hungary water and other diſtill'd liquors, are computed to bring them in five hundred thouſand livres in time of peace. Salted pilchards is another article, which they vend in Rouſſillon, Lionois and Dauphiné. Their vermilion and confection of alkermes alſo bring them in a great deal of money, the laſt of which they vend chiefly in Germany.

They do not make leſs than four thouſand pieces of fuſtian annually here, at ſeventeen livres the piece, importing the cotton of which it is made from the Levant, which manufacture is exported chiefly to Spain.

Of Niſmes

The dioceſe of Niſmes is generally a level country, and one of the richeſt in France, producing corn, wine, ſilk, and all manner of proviſions in abundance. There are alſo a great variety of manufactures at the city of Niſmes, the merchants whereof have engroſs'd moſt of the ſilk and woollen trade of the province.

Uſez.

The dioceſe of Uſez, the largeſt in Languedoc, produces corn, wine, oil, ſilk and wool, beſides abundance of cattle.

Vivarez.

In the Vivarez, the mountains called Boutieres are barren, producing little but cheſnuts and hemp, and affording paſture for ſheep. The mountains near Velay are well cultivated, and yield all manner of proviſions but wine; and the country between thoſe mountains and the Rhone is as fruitful as any in Languedoc.

Gevaudan

The Gevaudan is a mountainous country, one part of it perfectly barren, and the other produces little but rye and cheſnuts. The people are generally mechanicks, and have a good manufacture of ſerges and other woollen ſtuffs, which they export to Germany, Switzerland and the Levant, to the value of two millions of livres.

Alais

The dioceſe of Alais is part of the Cevennes, the principal riches whereof conſiſt in woollen manufactures, ſuch as druggets, ſerges, &c. which are reckon'd ſtronger and better than thoſe of Gevaudan.

The Velay is a little country in the mountains, covered with ſnow for half the year, and exceeding cold; notwithſtanding which, they have more than corn ſufficient for the inhabitants, and the cattle they feed brings a great deal of money into the country, as does their lace, which they vend in Spain, Germany, and other places.

The commerce of this province is chiefly tranſacted at fairs in the great towns, of which the moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Pecenas, Montagnac and Beaucaire; at the laſt of which places there has been the value of ſix millions of livres returned, if I may credit my French author.

The chief ſprings of mineral waters in this province at Valhs in the Vivarez, five leagues weſt of the Rhone.

At Youſet and Peyret, in the dioceſe of Uſez, the laſt of which is not a quarter of a league from the city of Uſez.

Near Peroul, about a league from Montpelier, is a fountain where the water bubbles up as if it boiled; and if you dig a hole near it, and put water in it, it will bubble like the ſpring.

At Gabian, a day's journey from Montpelier, in the way to Beziers, is a ſpring of Petroleum, black, burning like oil, and of a ſtrong pungent ſcent, iſſuing from the rocks all the year long, but chiefly in ſummer. They gather it with ladles, and putting it into a barrel, ſeparate the water from the oil by letting out the firſt at a tap towards the bottom of the veſſel.

The baths of Balleruch near Frontignan, about a quarter of a league from the road leading from Thoulouſe to Montpelier, are in good eſteem.

The military government of Languedoc.

The Cevennes.

As to the military government of this province, it is ſubject to a governor-general, who has under him three lieutenant-generals that have their reſpective diviſions aſſigned them: 1. The lieutenancy of the Higher Languedoc, which comprehends the dioceſes of Montauban, Alby, Caſtres, Lavaur, Carcaſſone, St. Papoul, Mirepoix, Rieux and Thoulouſe. 2. That of Lower Languedoc takes in the dioceſes of Alet, Limoux, Narbonne, St. Pons, Beziers, Agde, Montpelier and Lodeve. And, 3. The general lieutenancy of the Cevennes, which extends over the dioceſes of Niſmes, Alais, Mende, Puy, Viviers and Uſez. Beſides which, the King has nine lieutenants of particular places in Languedoc.

CHAP. XII.

Treats of the province or general government of Foix.

CHAP. XII.

Province of Foix. Situation and extent.

THE government of Foix is one of the leaſt in the kingdom. It conſiſts only of the county of Foix, and the county of Douneſan and Andorre, and is bounded by the Thoulouſan and Lauragais, on the north; by Narbonne, on the eaſt; by the pyrenees and Rouſſillon, on the ſouth; and by Gaſcony, towards the weſt; the two chief rivers whereof are the Ariege and the Rize. It is generally a mountainous barren country.

Chief towns.

The chief towns are Pamiers, Foix, Mazeres, Taraſcon, Saverdun, Ax, La Baſtide de Feron, Varilles, Le Maz, D'Azil, Dounezan, Le Carlat, St. Ibars, Lezat and Montault.

Pamiers.

Pamiers, *Pamia* and *Apamia*, the capital of this province, is ſituated on the Ariege, about five and twenty miles ſouth of Thoulouſe. The town is moderately large, and a biſhop's ſee. The only conſiderable buildings taken notice of however by the French writers, are, the caſtle, the cathedral, the biſhop's palace, and the Jeſuits college, which make a good appearance. It is computed there are between four and five thouſand inhabitants in the place.

Foix.

Foix, which gives name to this province, is alſo ſituated on the Ariege, ſeven or eight miles to the ſouthward of Pamiers. It is defended by a caſtle ſituate on a rock, and has a handſom ſtone bridge over the river. It contains about three thouſand inhabitants.

The ancient ſtate of Foix.

The county of Foix was governed by Counts of its own till 1062, when GASTON, Count of Foix, obtained the kingdom of Navarre, by his marriage with ELEANOR, the only daughter of JOHN King of Navarre; and their deſcendants poſſeſſed it till the reign of HENRY IV. who was King both of France and Navarre; whereby it became united to the crown of France.

Trade.

The trade of the country conſiſts in cattle, which are fed upon their mountains, in roſin, turpentine, pitch, marble and iron; but chiefly in iron, which they carry down the Ariege and the Garonne, and vend in Guienne and Languedoc.

Military government.

This province is commanded by a governor and lieutenant-general, beſides which there is a diſtinct governor of the town and caſtle of Foix, and one of the King's lieutenants commands in the caſtle of Arſin.

CHAP. XIII.

Treats of the province or general government of Rouſſillon.

CHAP. XIII.

Rouſſillon, Situation, &c.

Rivers.

ROuſſillon, in which I comprehend Conſleut and the French Cerdagne, is bounded by Languedoc, on the north; by the Mediterranean, on the eaſt; by Catalonia, on the ſouth, from which it is divided by the Pyrenean mountains; and by another part of Spain, on the weſt; extending about eighteen leagues from eaſt to weſt, and twelve from north to ſouth, and conſiſts of a plain, ſurrounded with mountains on all ſides, except towards the ſea, which makes it exceſſive hot in ſummer. The natives have generally ſwarthy complexions and meagre viſages. There is ſcarce any wood in the country, and no navigable rivers: the chief of them are the Tet, the Tec, and the Agly; which riſing in the mountains, and falling ſuddenly into the Mediterranean, may be deemed rather torrents than rivers. The ſea-coaſt hath no good road or harbour, and very indifferent anchorage. There are ſome hot baths in the country, particularly at the village which goes by the name of Bains, from the hot ſprings in the neighbourhood, and at Vernet.

Chief towns.

The chief towns are, 1. Perpignan. 2. Elne. 3. Arles. 4. Ville-Franche. 5. Mont Lewis.

Perpignan

Perpignan, *Perpiniacum*, the capital of Rouſſillon, is ſituated on the river Tet, thirty-five miles to the ſouthward of Narbonne, and about three to the weſtward of the ſea. It ſtands partly on a hill, and partly in a bottom, is ſtrongly fortified, and defended by a citadel, being a frontier againſt Spain. It is a biſhop's ſee, the cathedral dedicated to St. JOHN, a fine large old edifice, the choir whereof is incloſed with white marble. There are alſo ſeveral other churches, convents, and hoſpitals, two colleges of Jeſuits, and a ſeminary in the place. The inhabitants are a mixture of French and Spaniards, and both languages ſpoken indifferently: for this was formerly a Spaniſh town, and not confirmed to the French till the

Pyrenean treaty, anno 1659. There is a great ſcarcity of good water in this town.,

Elne.

Elne, *St. Helena*, is a little town, ſituate on a hill near the river Tec, about fifteen miles to the ſouthward of Perpignan, ſaid to have taken its name from the Empreſs **Helena**; formerly a town of ſome conſequence, but makes no great figure at preſent.

Ville Franche.

Ville Franche, the capital of the diſtrict of Confleut, is ſituated among the mountains, twenty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Perpignan, ſtrongly fortified, and defended by a caſtle, being another frontier gariſon againſt Spain.

Mont Lewis.

Mont Lewis, *Mons Ludovici*, the capital of the French Cerdagne, ſtands on the Pyrenean mountains, about thirty miles to the weſtward of Perpignan. It is a pretty little town, built and fortified by **Lewis** XIV, in the year 1681, to which he added a fine citadel, and made it one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes on the ſide of Spain.

The ancient ſtate of Rouſſillon.

This province was alſo governed anciently by its proper Counts, till the death of **Guinard** the laſt Count, who dying without children, about the year 1178, gave it to **Alphonsus**, King of Arragon, whoſe ſucceſſors continued Sovereigns of it, with ſome interruptions from the French, till the reign of **Lewis** XIII, who made an abſolute conqueſt of it; and it was confirmed to France by the Pyrenean treaty anno 1659, ever ſince which it has been united to that crown.

Military government.

This province has a governor or captain-general, like the reſt, with his lieutenant-general and King's lieutenant; beſides which, there are diſtinct governors in ſeveral of the fortified towns.

Trade and produce.

The plains of Rouſſillon are very fruitful, producing plenty of corn and wine, and ſome excellent paſture; but they have however very little trade. Olives are the greateſt riches of the country; and oranges are as plentiful as apples and pears in England. They have little or no wood, except what is brought them over the mountains upon the backs of mules. They feed pretty large flocks of ſheep, and have excellent mutton. On the other hand, black cattle and horſes are very ſcarce. Mules are generally uſed for riding and carrying burthens, being much ſurer-footed and fitter for the mountainous country, which ſurrounds them. I don't find they have any manner of trade by ſea; which is aſcribed partly to the dangerous coaſt and want of harbours, and partly to the lazineſs of the inhabitants, who ſeem to have no genius or inclination for manufactures or commerce.

CHAP. XIV.

Treats of the province or general government of Navarre and Bearne.

CHAP. XIV.

The Lower Navarre Situation, &c.

THE Lower Navarre, which belongs to France, is but one of the ſix baillages of which the kingdom of Navarre was anciently compoſed, and is bounded by Lapourd, or Labourd, on the north; by the Pyrenees, which ſeparate it from the Higher Navarre, on the ſouth; and by Bearne, on the eaſt; and is not more than eight leagues in length, and five in breadth. The other five baillages, which compoſe the Higher Navarre, belong to Spain.

The Lower Navarre is a barren mountainous country, which produces ſcarce any thing without a great deal of labour; but the little fruit they have is excellent. Their principal rivers are the Nive and the Bidouſe; the firſt riſes in the mountains of Spain, and paſſing by St. John Pied de Port, enters the country of Labourd, and falls into the Adour at Bayonne. The Bidouſe has its ſource in the mountains of the Lower Navarre, and paſſing by St. Palais and Bidache, diſcharges it ſelf into the Adour below Giche.

Chief towns.

The chief towns are, 1. S. John Pied de Port. 2. St. Palais. And, 3. The Baſtide of Clarence.

St. John Pied de Port.

St. John Pied de Port, *Fanum S. Joannis Pede Portuenſis*, is ſituated on a hill near the river Nive, about twenty miles to the ſouthward of Bayonne, and is a ſtrong place both by art and nature. The citadel, which ſtands on an eminence, commands the paſſes from Spain.

Bearne.

Bearne lies to the eaſtward of the Lower Navarre, being about ſixteen leagues in length and twelve in breadth, a dry mountainous country generally, but the valleys are tolerably fruitful. They ſow very little but Indian Corn, which is the food of the natives. The ſoil alſo bears flax, which they manufacture themſelves. Upon the leſſer hills there are a great many vineyards, and the wine in ſome parts is excellent. In the mountains are found ſome mines of lead, copper and iron, and good ſtore of firr-trees, which ſerve for maſts and planks of ſhips; and there are ſeveral ſprings of mineral-water in the country, particularly near Eſcot and Oleron. The two principal rivers are the Gave de Bearnois, and the Gave de Oleron, both of which fall into the Adour.

Rivers.

Towns.

The chief towns of Bearne are, 1. Pau. 2. Leſcar. 3. Navarreius. And, 4. Oleron.

Pau.

Pau, *Palum*, is the capital of Bearne. It ſtands on an eminence, at the foot whereof runs the river Gave-Bearnois, and is about thirty miles to the eaſtward of Bayonne. It is a very handſom little town, and has a caſtle at the end of it, where **Henry** IV. of France was born, having been the ordinary reſidence of the princes of Bearne. The park and gardens, it is ſaid, deſerve a traveller's curioſity.

Oleron.

Oleron is ſituated on the Gave d'Oleron, four leagues to the weſtward of Pau. It is a populous place: the citizens, who are generally merchants, have a pretty briſk trade with the Spaniards, and particularly with thoſe of Arragon.

Commerce.

The commerce of Bearne conſiſts in wines, which the Engliſh and Dutch take off their hands, in linen, cattle, and a ſmall breed of horſes, which they vend in Spain; the laſt being very proper for that mountainous country. And many of the Bearnois go into Spain, to cultivate and manure their lands, by which they acquire conſiderable fortunes; for the Spaniards are generally lazy, and have no genius for huſbandry.

Military government.

Lower Navarre and Bearn have the ſame governor-general, lieutenant-general, and King's lieutenant. St. John Pied de Port is the only town which has a particular governor in Navarre, as that of Navarreius is in Bearne.

CHAP. XV.

Treats of the province or general government of Guienne and Gaſcony.

CHAP. XV.

Guienne and Gaſcony. Situation, &c.

THE province of Guienne and Gaſcony, comprehending the generalities of Bourdeaux and Montauban, is bounded by Saintonge, Angoumois and Marche, on the north; by Auvergne and Languedoc, on the eaſt; by the Pyrenean mountains, on the ſouth; and by the Ocean, on the weſt; extending fourſcore leagues in length from north to ſouth, and near as much in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Rivers.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Garonne above-mentioned; and, 2. The Dordonne, which having united their ſtreams below Bourdeaux, obtain the name of the Gironne. 3. The Adour. 4. The Tarn. 5. The Aveyron. And, 6. The Lot.

Garonne.

Dordonne.

The tide comes up the Garonne as high as Langon and St. Maccaire, which are eight leagues above Bourdeaux, and thirty leagues from the mouth of the river: and the ſpring-tides go up the river Dordonne as high as Caſtillon, which is ſix or ſeven and twenty leagues from the mouth.

Adour.

The Adour riſes in the Pyrenean mountains, and taking its courſe firſt to the north, turns about to the weſtward, and having received the Gave d'Oleron, and ſeveral other ſmall ſtreams, falls into the ſea a little below Bayonne, beginning to be navigable at Grenade in the Marſan.

The Tarn.

The Tarn riſes in the Gevaudan, and running weſtward through Languedoc, diſcharges itſelf into the Garonne on the confines of Guienne and Gaſcony.

The Lot.

The river Lot alſo riſes in the Gevaudan, and running weſtward, falls into the Garonne at Aiguillan. This river is of great ſervice in tranſporting the wine, brandies, and other merchandize, of the inland country to Bourdeaux.

Ports.

The ports and roads belonging to this government, are thoſe of Cape Brecon, Old Boucat, Arachon and Socoa; of which Arachon is the moſt conſiderable, being a fine baſin of eight leagues in circumference, but of a difficult entrance, there being no more than two fathom water upon the bar.

Mineral waters.

They have ſeveral ſprings of mineral waters, as, 1. At Mier. 2. At Crauſac, in the election of Ville Franche, to which there reſort great numbers of people in May and September. 3 At Pont de Camarez. 4. At Vabrez. 5. At Barbazan. 6. At Encauſſe. 7. At Capbern.

Baths.

The moſt remarkable hot baths are, 1. at Bagniers, which takes its name from thence; and, 2. at Barege.

Mines.

This government alſo affords mines of copper and iron, quarries of marble, and coal-pits; and they mention an extraordinary plant called Radoul, which is of great uſe both to the tanners and dyers,

Diviſion.

The province of Guienne and Gaſcony is not near ſo extenſive as the ancient Aquitain was, but is however the largeſt government in the kingdom, comprehending the diſtricts hereafter mentioned, viz. 1. Guienne Proper. 2. Bazadois. 3. Agenois. 4. Querci. 5. Rovergne, 6. Perigord. 7. Armagnac. 8. Chaloſſe. 9. Condomois. 10. Landes. 11. The country of Labourd. 12. The Viſcounty of Soule. 13. Bigorre. 14. Comenge. And, 15. Conſerans.

Guienne Proper. Bourdelois

Chief towns.

Guienne Proper, or the Bourdelois, *Ager Burdigalenſis*, is bounded by the river Gironne, which divides it from Saintonge, on the north; by the Agenois and Perigord, on the eaſt; by the Bazadois and Landez, on the ſouth; and by the Ocean, on the weſt. The chief places are, 1. Bourdeaux. 2. The Tower of Corduan. 3 Blaye. 4. Bourg. 5. Libourne. 6. Fronſac. 7. Coutras. And, 8. Cadillac.

Bourdeaux

Bourdeaux is ſituated on the weſt-ſide of the river Garonne, fifty miles ſouth of the mouth of that river, and nineteen ſouth of Rochelle. The town and ſuburbs lying in the form of a creſcent about the river, make a capacious harbour for ſmall ſhips. It is ſurrounded by an old wall and towers; but its principal defence conſiſts in three ſtrong forts, viz. the Trumpet Caſtle, the Caſtle of Hau, and Fort St. Lewis or St. Croix, which are all ancient caſtles, but enlarged and improved by Monſieur Vauban, in the reign of Lewis XIV. for the defence of the town and harbour, which they entirely command.

Bourdeaux is one of the largeſt and richeſt towns in the kindom, there being five thouſand houſes in the city and ſuburbs, and upwards of forty thouſand ſouls. The antiquity of it is evident from the remains of an ampitheatre and other Roman buildings. It is the See of an Archiſhop, and the principal modern edifices are, the metropolitan church of St. Andrew, eſteemed one of the faireſt in France; the archiepiſcopal palace, a magnificent building; the church of St. Michael, the Jeſuits college, and the Chartreuſe are elegant pieces of architecture; but the town in general is none of the moſt beautiful, the ſtreets being narrow, and the building old; and the uſual inconveniencies are met with here that are found in other ſea-port towns, that is, a great deal of noiſe, hurry and inſolence. As to its trade, this will be conſidered hereafter.

Cordouan tower.

The tower of Cordouan is ſituated on a rock at the mouth of the river Garonne or Gironne. and ſerves not only to defend the entrance of it, but as a pharos, or light-houſe, for mariners.

Blaye.

Blaye, *Blavium*, a little ſtrong town ſituated on the river Garonne, about ſeven leagues to the northward of Bourdeaux, having a citadel and two ſtrong forts; one of which is erected on an iſland in the middle of the river, and the other on the oppoſite ſhore, called Fort Medon, from its ſtanding in a diſtrict of that name. Theſe defend the paſſage of the river, and no ſhips can go up to Bourdeaux without their permiſſion.

The Bazadois.

The Bazadois lies ſouth-eaſt of the Bourdelois; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Bazas. 2. Reole. 3. Caſteljaloux. 4. Nerac. And 5. Langon.

Bazas.

Bazas, *Coſſium Vaſatum*, is an ancient town ſituated on a rock, two leagues and half to the weſtward of the Garonne, and thirty ſouth of Bourdeaux. It is a biſhop's ſee, but not conſiderable on any other account.

Reole.

Reole is a little trading town ſituate on the Garonne, nine leagues to the ſouthward of Bourdeaux, whither the parliament and courts of Bourdeaux were ſometimes removed in the laſt reign to mortify that city.

Nerac.

Nerac, the capital of the dutchy of Albret, is ſituated two leagues to the weſtward of the Garonne, and is a town of good trade, ſaid to be well repleniſhed with Calviniſts; but I preſume, they mean thoſe who are inclined that way, for none are permitted to profeſs themſelves Proteſtants openly. Here is an old caſtle built by the Engliſh when they were ſovereigns of this country.

Agenois.

The Agenois lies to the eaſtward of Bazadois, from which it is ſeparated by the river Garonne; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Agen. 2. Clairac. 3. Villeneuve. 4. St. Foi. 5. Toneius. 6. Monheurt. 7. Marmande. 8. Salvetat. And, 9. Aiguillon.

Agen.

Agen, *Agennum Nitobrigum*, the capital of the county, a town of great antiquity, is ſituated on the north ſhore of the river Garonne, about fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Bourdeaux. It is a large place and a biſhop's ſee, and though it be well ſeated for trade, has very little, the natives having no genius for commerce.

Villeneuve

Villeneuve de Agenois ſtands on the river Lot, and is one of the fineſt ſituations in the country.

St. Foi.

St. Foi, *Fanum Sanctæ Fidei*, is ſituated on the river Dordogne, three leagues below Bergerac, and has a briſk trade in corn, wine and brandy.

Marmande.

Marmande ſtands on the river Garonne, ſix leagues north-weſt of Agen, and twelve ſouth-eaſt of Bourdeaux. It is a pretty large town, and has a good trade.

Aiguillon.

Aiguillon ſituate at the confluence of the Lot and Garonne, is a fortified town, the capital of a dutchy and peerage, and a place of good trade.

Querci diſtrict.

The diſtrict of Querci lies to the eaſtward of the Agenois; the chief towns are, Souillac, Lanzerte, Martel, St. Cere, Gourdon, Roquemadour, Figeac, Capdenac, Cahors, Montauban, Moiſſac Negrepeliſſe, Cauſſade, Caylus, Montpezat, Molieres, Realville la Francois, Burniquel, Montricons and Montclar.

Cahors.

Cahors, *Divona Cadurcorum*, the capital of Querci, is ſituated on the river Lot, thirty miles north-eaſt of Agen: a very ancient town, as appears by the ruins of ſeveral Roman buildings. It is at preſent the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Bourdeaux, who ſtiles himſelf Count, and contains about eight thouſand ſouls; but is a poor place, and makes a very indifferent appearance.

Montauban.

Montauban, *Mons Albanus*, is ſituated on an eminence, at the foot whereof runs the river Tarn, over which there is a handſom ſtone-bridge that joins it to a ſuburb in the province of Languedoc, and ſtands about thirty miles to the ſouthward of Cahors. It is a well-built populous town, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Thouloufe. The things beſt worth the viewing here are the biſhop's palace, the Griffon fountain, and the Faleſe, which is an agreeable walk on the banks of the Tarn. It is computed there are about eighteen thouſand ſouls in the place.

Rovergne

Rovergne has Querci on the weſt, and the Cevennes and Gevaudan on the eaſt; being about thirty leagues in length, and twenty in breadth; the chief towns whereof are Radez, Milhaud, Ville-Franche, and St. Antonin.

Rodez.

Rodez, *Urbs Rutena*, the capital of Rovergne, is ſituated on a hill ſurrounded by mountains, between the river Aveyron and a little rivulet, ſixteen leagues to the eaſtward of Cahors. It is a biſhop's See, and has a fine cathedral of an octogonal figure, the tower whereof is admired for its extraordinary height. They preſerve in the treaſury here one of the Virgin Mary's ſhoes; tho' it be a queſtion whether ſhe wore any. The Jeſuits have a fine college in this city, and the convents of the Cordeliers, Dominicans, Capuchins, and Chartreuſe are handſom ſtructures. Here are alſo the nunneries of the congregation of our Lady, the Urſelines, and the abby of Monſtier. It is computed there are about ſix thouſand ſouls in the place.

Milhaud.

Milhaud the capital of Upper Rovergne, is ſituated on the Tarn, ten leagues ſouth-eaſt of Rodez; the fortifications whereof were raz'd on account of their adhering to the Calviniſts. It contains about three thouſand ſouls; but the French writers do not think it merits a farther deſcription.

Vabres.

Vabres, ſituated on the river Dourdan to the ſouthward of Milhaud, is no more than a little village at preſent, and only mention'd on account of its being a biſhop's See.

Ville-Franche.

Ville-Franche, *Francopolis*, is ſituated on the river Aveyron, eight leagues to the weſtward of Rodez, remarkable chiefly for the copper-mines in the neighbourhood. It contains about ſix thouſand ſouls; there are ſeveral fine convents and religious houſes in the place.

Perigord diſtrict.

Perigord lies to the northward of Agenois, from which it is divided by the river Dordonne, being about thirty-three leagues long, and twenty-four broad. The chief towns are, Perigueux, Bergerac, Sarlat and Caſtillon.

Perigueux

Perigueux, *Veſuna Petrocorium*, the capital of Perigord, is ſituated on the river L'Iſle, fifty miles north-eaſt of Bourdeaux, a populous town, and the See of a biſhop, and is very ancient, as appears by the ruins of ſeveral Roman buildings, particularly of an amphitheatre and a round ſtone tower, which has neither doors nor windows, but is entered by two ſubterraneous paſſages, ſuppoſed to have been a temple dedicated to Venus, for which they don't ſeem to have any other authority than its obſcurity.

Bergerac.

Bergerac is ſituated on the river Dordonne, five leagues ſouth of Perigueux. It was fortified by the Engliſh in the fourteenth century, and was a place of importance, commanding a paſs on the river above-named. It was often taken and retaken during the religious wars in France, and the fortifications at length razed on account of its adherence to the Calviniſts, of which ſect there were not leſs than forty thouſand in this city and the neighbourhood, at the revocation of the edict of Nants. It is ſtill a populous wealthy town, being the center of trade between Lyons and Bourdeaux.

Sarlat.

Sarlat is ſituated in a bottom ſurrounded by mountains, a league and a half from the river Dordonne, and ten ſouth-eaſt of Perigueux. It is a poor place, and ſcarce deſerves mentioning, but upon account of its being a biſhop's See.

Caſtillon.

Caſtillon, *Caſtilio*, ſituate on the Dordonne, two leagues to the weſtward of St. Foy, memorable chiefly for a bloody battle fought between the Engliſh and French, about the year 1453; wherein the famous John Talbot, Earl of Shrewſbury, and his ſon were killed, and all the province of Gaſcony loſt ſoon after.

Armagnac diſtrict.

The diſtrict of Armagnac lies to the weſtward of the Thoulouſan, from which it is ſeparated by the river Garonne, being two and twenty leagues in length, and ſixteen in breadth. The chief towns are, Auch, Lectoure, Nogaro, Mirande, Leyrac, Eauſe, Vic, Fleurence, Caſtelnau, Verdun, and Grenade.

Auch.

Auch, *Auguſta Auſciorum*, the capital of Gaſcony, is ſituated on the ſide of a mountain near the river Gers, about thirty miles weſt of Thouloufe, and ſeventy ſouth-eaſt of Bourdeaux. It is the See of an Archbiſhop, one of the richeſt in France, the revenue being computed at an hundred thouſand livres per ann. He has the joint ſovereignty of the town with the Count of Armagnac, and ſtiles himſelf Primate of Aquitain; the cathedral dedicated to the Virgin, is one of the fineſt in France, where they pretend to have preſerved a bottle of the Virgin's milk. The town is ſmall, containing not above three thouſand ſouls; and I don't find any building of conſequence mentioned by the French writers beſides the cathedral, unleſs it be the archiepiſcopal palace, from whence there is an admirable proſpect of the adjacent country.

Lectoure,

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Lectoure.

Lectoure, *Lectora*, is ſituated on a mountain, at the foot whereof runs the river Gers, twenty-five miles north of Auch. It is ſurrounded by a triple wall, and defended by a caſtle, the ſee of a biſhop, and computed to contain about four thouſand inhabitants.

Verdun.

Verdun, capital of a diſtrict, called the Verdunois, is ſituated five and twenty miles north-eaſt of Auch, and contains between two and three thouſand ſouls; which is all the deſcription I meet with of it.

The Chaloſſe, or Proper Gaſcony.

The Chaloſſe, or Proper Gaſcony, lies to the weſtward of Armagnac, and is about thirteen leagues over either way. The chief towns are St. Sever, Aire, Gabaret and Arſac.

St. Sever.

St. Sever is ſituated on the river Adour, about thirth miles north-eaſt of Bayonne, which ſome look upon to be the capital of the Gaſcon country. Here they put on board their wines to carry them to Dax and Bayonne.

Aire.

Aire, *Adurium*, *Vicus Julii*, ſtands upon the Adour, about twelve miles to the weſtward of St. Sever, and tho' it be ſtill a biſhop's See, is dwindled into a village.

The Condomois.

The Condomois lies to the northward of Armagnac, and is about twenty leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, but extremely narrow. The chief towns are Condom, Gavaret, and Mont de Marſan.

Condom.

Condom is ſituated on the river Geliſe, twenty-five miles to the northward of Auch. It is the See of a biſhop, but a poor town of no manner of trade. The Catholicks complain of the ravages committed here by the Hugonots in the civil wars, who plundered the cathedral, burnt ſix parochial churches and five monaſteries.

Mont Marſan.

Mont Marſan is only conſiderable for being the capital of the Viſcounty of Marſan, which anciently belonged to the Princes of Bearne. It ſtands on the river Medouze, about four and twenty miles to the weſtward of Condom.

The Landes.

The Landes, or Lannes, lies upon the Ocean to the ſouthward of the Bourdelois. It is a barren ſandy country, producing little but broom and heath. The chief towns are, Dax, Tartas, Albret, and Peyronrade.

Chief towns.

Dax.

Dax, d'Aqu's, *Aquæ Auguſtæ*, *Civitas Aquenſis*, is ſituated on the river Adour, about ſixteen miles to the northward of Bayonne, and takes its name from the hot ſpring in the middle of the town. It is defended by ſome antique fortifications and a caſtle, a populous trading town, and a biſhop's See; there are alſo a great many convents and religious houſes in the place.

Tartas.

Tartas ſtands on the Medouze, ſeven or eight miles to the northward of Dax, conſiderable chiefly for its market.

Labourd.

The county of Labourd lies upon the ſea of Gaſcony to the ſouthward of Landes, and was part of the country of Baſques, a people originally of Cantabria. It formerly extended as far as St. Sebaſtian in Spain; but the Spaniards are now maſters of all the country on the other ſide the river Bidaſſoa. The chief towns are Bayonne, St. John de Luz, Sibour, Uſtarits, Andaye, Bidacte, Guiche.

Chief towns.

Bayonne.

Bayonne, *Lapurdum*, ſituate on the rivers Nive and Adour, fifteen miles north of the confines of Spain, about an hundred to the weſtward of Thouloſe, and three to the eaſtward of the ſea of Gaſcony. It received its name from the Baſquiſh words Baia and Ona, which ſignify a good bay or harbour, and is divided into three parts by the rivers, ſtrongly fortified in the late reign by that celebrated engineer Monſieur VAUBAN. The citadel commands the town, the harbour and the adjacent country; beſides which, it has ſeveral other good forts for its defence. The town is tolerably large and populous, and is of conſequence as well on account of its foreign trade, as its being one of the ſtrongeſt frontier gariſons on the ſide of Spain. It is a biſhop's See; but neither the cathedral or the other publick or private buildings, have any thing in them that merits a particular deſcription. The harbour is tolerably good, but of a difficult entrance.

St. John de Luz.

St. John de Luz ſtands on a bay of the ſea, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Bayonne, and ten north-eaſt of Fontarabia in Spain. It is a pretty large borough-town, but no city.

The Iſle of Pheaſants, the place of the Pyrenean treaty.

The Iſle of Pheaſants ought not to be forgot in this place, which lies in the middle of the river Bidaſſoa, that divides France from Spain, and to which therefore both Princes have an equal claim, was pitched upon for a treaty of peace between theſe kingdoms in the year 1659; and from the neighbourhood of the Pyrenees, was called the Pyrenean treaty. Here King CHARLES II. of England attended in perſon, to ſollicit the aſſiſtance of thoſe powers, while he remained in exile; but was ſhamefully deſerted by both of them: tho' the following year, when his ſubjects voluntarily ſent for him and reſtored him to his throne, he was as much courted by theſe and the reſt of the Princes of Europe, as he had been neglected in his diſtreſs.

Valley of Soule.

The Country or Valley of Soule makes part of the country of Baſques, and lies along the river Gave de Suzon, between Bearne on the eaſt, and the Lower Navarre on the weſt, conſiſting of ſixty-nine pariſhes, the only conſiderable town being that of Manleon Malleo, ſituate on the Gave de Suzon; and this the French writers do not give us any particular deſcription of, only obſerve, that the celebrated HENRY SPONDE, biſhop of Pamiers, was born here.

Manleon.

Bigorre county.

The county of Bigorre lies ſouth-eaſt of Bearne, on the confines of Spain, being about eighteen leagues in length, and three in breadth. The chief towns are, Tarbes, Vic de Bigorre, Lourde, Bagneres, Barege, St. Sever de Ruſtan, and Jornac.

Tarbes.

Tarbes is ſituated on the river Adour, about thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Auch, and twelve ſouth-eaſt of Pau, in one of the moſt pleaſant fruitful valleys in the country. It is a pretty little town divided in four or five parts by the ſeveral branches of the river; a biſhop's See, the cathedral whereof is dedicated to the Virgin, beſides which there is only one pariſh-church and two monaſteries. It is defended by the caſtle of Bigorre, which it is ſaid gives name to the county.

Bagueres.

Bagueres, *Aquæ Convenarum*, ſituate on the Adour, is conſiderable for its hot baths, which occaſions a great reſort of people hither.

County of Cominges.

The county of Cominges lies between the Thoulouſan on the north-eaſt, and Bigorre on the ſouth-weſt, being about eighteen leagues in length, and ſix in breadth. The chief towns whereof are, St. Bertrand, Lombez, Muret, Montregean, St. Beat, St. Gaudens, and St. Martory.

S. Bertrand

St. Bertrand is a little town ſituate on a hill near the river Gironne, about thirty miles to the eaſtward of Pau, and as much ſouth of Auch. At the foot of the hill whereon it ſtands, lay the ancient Cominges, *Lugdunum Convenarum*, which was a larger town than Thouloſe, as appears by the and a biſhop's ſee, and though it be well ſeated for trade, has very little, the natives having no genius for commerce.

Villeneuve

Villeneuve de Agenois ſtands on the river Lot, and is one of the fineſt ſituations in the country.

St. Foi.

St. Foi, *Fanum Sanctæ Fidei*, is ſituated on the river Dordogne, three leagues below Bergerac, and has a briſk trade in corn, wine and brandy.

Marmande.

Marmande ſtands on the river Garonne, ſix leagues north-weſt of Agen, and twelve ſouth-eaſt of Bourdeaux. It is a pretty large town, and has a good trade.

Aiguillon.

Aiguillon ſituate at the confluence of the Lot and Garonne, is a fortified town, the capital of a dutchy and peerage, and a place of good trade.

Querci diſtrict.

The diſtrict of Querci lies to the eaſtward of the Agenois; the chief towns are, Souillac, Lanzerte, Martel, St. Cere, Gourdon, Roquemadour, Figeac, Capdenac, Cahors, Montauban, Moiſſac Negrepeliſſe, Cauſſade, Caylus, Montpezat, Molieres, Realville la Francois, Burniquel, Montricons and Montclar.

Cahors.

Cahors, *Divona Cadurcorum*, the capital of Querci, is ſituated on the river Lot, thirty miles north-eaſt of Agen: a very ancient town, as appears by the ruins of ſeveral Roman buildings. It is at preſent the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Bourdeaux, who ſtiles himſelf Count, and contains about eight thouſand ſouls; but is a poor place, and makes a very indifferent appearance.

Montauban.

Montauban, *Mons Albanus*, is ſituated on an eminence, at the foot whereof runs the river Tarn, over which there is a handſom ſtone-bridge that joins it to a ſuburb in the province of Languedoc, and ſtands about thirty miles to the ſouthward of Cahors. It is a well-built populous town, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Thoulouſe. The things beſt worth the viewing here are the biſhop's palace, the Griffon fountain, and the Faleſe, which is an agreeable walk on the banks of the Tarn. It is computed there are about eighteen thouſand ſouls in the place.

Rovergne

Rovergne has Querci on the weſt, and the Cevennes and Gevaudan on the eaſt; being about thirty leagues in length, and twenty in breadth; the chief towns whereof are Radez, Milhaud, Ville-Franche, and St. Antonin.

Rodez.

Rodez, *Urbs Rutena*, the capital of Rovergne, is ſituated on a hill ſurrounded by mountains, between the river Aveyron and a little rivulet, ſixteen leagues to the eaſtward of Cahors. It is a biſhop's See, and has a fine cathedral of an octogonal figure, the tower whereof is admired for its extraordinary height. They preſerve in the treaſury here one of the Virgin Mary's ſhoes; tho' it be a queſtion whether ſhe wore any. The Jeſuits have a fine college in this city, and the convents of the Cordeliers, Dominicans, Capuchins, and Chartreuſe are handſom ſtructures. Here are alſo the nunneries of the congregation of our Lady, the Urſelines, and the abby of Monſtier. It is computed there are about ſix thouſand ſouls in the place.

Milhaud.

Milhaud the capital of Upper Rovergne, is ſituated on the Tarn, ten leagues ſouth-eaſt of Rodez; the fortifications whereof were raz'd on account of their adhering to the Calviniſts. It contains about three thouſand ſouls; but the French writers do not think it merits a farther deſcription.

Vabres.

Vabres, ſituated on the river Dourdan to the ſouthward of Milhaud, is no more than a little village at preſent, and only mention'd on account of its being a biſhop's See.

Ville-Franche.

Ville-Franche, *Francopolis*, is ſituated on the river Aveyron, eight leagues to the weſtward of Rodez, remarkable chiefly for the copper-mines in the neighbourhood. It contains about ſix thouſand ſouls; there are ſeveral fine convents and religious houſes in the place.

Perigord diſtrict.

Perigord lies to the northward of Agenois, from which it is divided by the river Dordonne, being about thirty-three leagues long, and twenty-four broad. The chief towns are, Perigueux, Bergerac, Sarlat and Caſtillon.

Perigueux

Perigueux, *Veſuna Petrocorium*, the capital of Perigord, is ſituated on the river L'Iſle, fifty miles north-eaſt of Bourdeaux, a populous town, and the See of a biſhop, and is very ancient, as appears by the ruins of ſeveral Roman buildings, particularly of an amphitheatre and a round ſtone tower, which has neither doors nor windows, but is entered by two ſubterraneous paſſages, ſuppoſed to have been a temple dedicated to Venus, for which they don't ſeem to have any other authority than its obſcurity.

Bergerac.

Bergerac is ſituated on the river Dordonne, five leagues ſouth of Perigueux. It was fortified by the Engliſh in the fourteenth century, and was a place of importance, commanding a paſs on the river above-named. It was often taken and retaken during the religious wars in France, and the fortifications at length razed on account of its adherence to the Calviniſts, of which ſect there were not leſs than forty thouſand in this city and the neighbourhood, at the revocation of the edict of Nants. It is ſtill a populous wealthy town, being the center of trade between Lyons and Bourdeaux.

Sarlat.

Sarlat is ſituated in a bottom ſurrounded by mountains, a league and a half from the river Dordonne, and ten ſouth-eaſt of Perigueux. It is a poor place, and ſcarce deſerves mentioning, but upon account of its being a biſhop's See.

Caſtillon.

Caſtillon, *Caſtilio*, ſituate on the Dordonne, two leagues to the weſtward of St. Foy, memorable chiefly for a bloody battle fought between the Engliſh and French, about the year 1453; wherein the famous John Talbot, Earl of Shrewſbury, and his ſon were killed, and all the province of Gaſcony loſt ſoon after.

Armagnac diſtrict.

The diſtrict of Armagnac lies to the weſtward of the Thoulouſan, from which it is ſeparated by the river Garonne, being two and twenty leagues in length, and ſixteen in breadth. The chief towns are, Auch, Lectoure, Nogaro, Mirande, Leyrac, Eauſe, Vic, Fleurence, Caſtelnau, Verdun, and Grenade.

Auch.

Auch, *Auguſta Auſciorum*, the capital of Gaſcony, is ſituated on the ſide of a mountain near the river Gers, about thirty miles weſt of Thoulouſe, and ſeventy ſouth-eaſt of Bourdeaux. It is the See of an Archbiſhop, one of the richeſt in France, the revenue being computed at an hundred thouſand livres per ann. He has the joint ſovereignty of the town with the Count of Armagnac, and ſtiles himſelf Primate of Aquitain; the cathedral dedicated to the Virgin, is one of the fineſt in France, where they pretend to have preſerved a bottle of the Virgin's milk. The town is ſmall, containing not above three thouſand ſouls; and I don't find any building of conſequence mentioned by the French writers beſides the cathedral, unleſs it be the archiepiſcopal palace, from whence there is an admirable proſpect of the adjacent country.

Lectoure.

Lectoure, *Lectora*, is ſituated on a mountain, at the foot whereof runs the river Gers, twenty-five miles north of Auch. It is ſurrounded by a triple wall, and defended by a caſtle, the ſee of a biſhop, and computed to contain about four thouſand inhabitants.

Verdun.

Verdun, capital of a diſtrict, called the Verdunois, is ſituated five and twenty miles north-eaſt of Auch, and contains between two and three thouſand ſouls; which is all the deſcription I meet with of it.

The Chaloſſe, or Proper Gaſcony.

The Chaloſſe, or Proper Gaſcony, lies to the weſtward of Armagnac, and is about thirteen leagues over either way. The chief towns are St. Sever, Aire, Gabaret and Arſac.

St. Sever.

St. Sever is ſituated on the river Adour, about thirth miles north-eaſt of Bayonne, which ſome look upon to be the capital of the Gaſcon country. Here they put on board their wines to carry them to Dax and Bayonne.

Aire.

Aire, *Adurium*, *Vicus Julii*, ſtands upon the Adour, about twelve miles to the weſtward of St. Sever, and tho' it be ſtill a biſhop's See, is dwindled into a village.

The Condomois.

The Condomois lies to the northward of Armagnac, and is about twenty leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, but extremely narrow. The chief towns are Condom, Gavaret, and Mont de Marſan.

Condom.

Condom is ſituated on the river Geliſe, twenty-five miles to the northward of Auch. It is the See of a biſhop, but a poor town of no manner of trade. The Catholicks complain of the ravages committed here by the Hugonots in the civil wars, who plundered the cathedral, burnt ſix parochial churches and five monaſteries.

Mont Marſan.

Mont Marſan is only conſiderable for being the capital of the Viſcounty of Marſan, which anciently belonged to the Princes of Bearne. It ſtands on the river Medouze, about four and twenty miles to the weſtward of Condom.

The Landes.

Chief towns.

The Landes, or Lannes, lies upon the Ocean to the ſouthward of the Bourdelois. It is a barren ſandy country, producing little but broom and heath. The chief towns are, Dax, Tartas, Albret, and Peyronrade.

Dax.

Dax, d'Aqu's, *Aquæ Auguſtæ*, *Civitas Aquenſis*, is ſituated on the river Adour, about ſixteen miles to the northward of Bayonne, and takes its name from the hot ſpring in the middle of the town. It is defended by ſome antique fortifications and a caſtle, a populous trading town, and a biſhop's See; there are alſo a great many convents and religious houſes in the place.

Tartas.

Tartas ſtands on the Medouze, ſeven or eight miles to the northward of Dax, conſiderable chiefly for its market.

Labourd.

Chief towns.

The county of Labourd lies upon the ſea of Gaſcony to the ſouthward of Landes, and was part of the country of Baſques, a people originally of Cantabria. It formerly extended as far as St. Sebaſtian in Spain; but the Spaniards are now maſters of all the country on the other ſide the river Bidaſſoa. The chief towns are Bayonne, St. John de Luz, Sibour, Uſtarits, Andaye, Bidacte, Guiche.

Bayonne.

Bayonne, *Lapurdum*, ſituate on the rivers Nive and Adour, fifteen miles north of the confines of Spain, about an hundred to the weſtward of Thoulouſe, and three to the eaſtward of the ſea of Gaſcony. It received its name from the Baſquiſh words Baia and Ona, which ſignify a good bay or harbour, and is divided into three parts by the rivers, ſtrongly fortified in the late reign by that celebrated engineer Monſieur VAUBAN. The citadel commands the town, the harbour and the adjacent country; beſides which, it has ſeveral other good forts for its defence. The town is tolerably large and populous, and is of conſequence as well on account of its foreign trade, as its being one of the ſtrongeſt frontier gariſons on the ſide of Spain. It is a biſhop's See; but neither the cathedral or the other publick or private buildings, have any thing in them that merits a particular deſcription. The harbour is tolerably good, but of a difficult entrance.

St. John de Luz.

St. John de Luz ſtands on a bay of the ſea, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Bayonne, and ten north-eaſt of Fontarabia in Spain. It is a pretty large borough-town, but no city.

The Iſle of Pheaſants, the place of the Pyrenean treaty.

The Iſle of Pheaſants ought not to be forgot in this place, which lies in the middle of the river Bidaſſoa, that divides France from Spain, and to which therefore both Princes have an equal claim, was pitched upon for a treaty of peace between theſe kingdoms in the year 1659; and from the neighbourhood of the Pyrenees, was called the Pyrenean treaty. Here King CHARLES II. of England attended in perſon, to ſollicit the aſſiſtance of thoſe powers, while he remained in exile; but was ſhamefully deſerted by both of them: tho' the following year, when his ſubjects voluntarily ſent for him and reſtored him to his throne, he was as much courted by theſe and the reſt of the Princes of Europe, as he had been neglected in his diſtreſs.

Valley of Soule.

Manleon.

The Country or Valley of Soule makes part of the country of Baſques, and lies along the river Gave de Suzon, between Bearne on the eaſt, and the Lower Navarre on the weſt, conſiſting of ſixty-nine pariſhes, the only conſiderable town being that of Manleon Malleo, ſituate on the Gave de Suzon; and this the French writers do not give us any particular deſcription of, only obſerve, that the celebrated HENRY SPONDE, biſhop of Pamiers, was born here.

Bigorre county.

The county of Bigorre lies ſouth-eaſt of Bearne, on the confines of Spain, being about eighteen leagues in length, and three in breadth. The chief towns are, Tarbes, Vic de Bigorre, Lourde, Bagneres, Barege, St. Sever de Ruſtan, and Jornac.

Tarbes.

Tarbes is ſituated on the river Adour, about thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Auch, and twelve ſouth-eaſt of Pau, in one of the moſt pleaſant fruitful valleys in the country. It is a pretty little town divided in four or five parts by the ſeveral branches of the river; a biſhop's See, the cathedral whereof is dedicated to the Virgin, beſides which there is only one pariſh-church and two monaſteries. It is defended by the caſtle of Bigorre, which it is ſaid gives name to the county.

Bagueres.

Bagueres, *Aquæ Convenarum*, ſituate on the Adour, is conſiderable for its hot baths, which occaſions a great reſort of people hither.

County of Cominges.

The county of Cominges lies between the Thoulouſan on the north-eaſt, and Bigorre on the ſouth-weſt, being about eighteen leagues in length, and ſix in breadth. The chief towns whereof are, St. Bertrand, Lombez, Muret, Montregean, St. Beat, St. Gaudens, and St. Martory.

S. Bertrand

St. Bertrand is a little town ſituate on a hill near the river Gironne, about thirty miles to the eaſtward of Pau, and as much ſouth of Auch. At the foot of the hill whereon it ſtands, lay the ancient Cominges, *Lugdunum Convenarum*, which was a larger town than Thoulouſe, as appears by the ruins of its walls. St. Bertrand is a biſhop's See, and has a cathedral; but the inhabitants ſcarce amount to five hundred ſouls.

Lombes.

Lombes ſtands upon the little river Seve, about twenty miles to the northward of St. Bertrand, containing about two thouſand five hundred inhabitants, only conſiderable on account of its being a biſhop's See.

Muret.

Muret ſituate on the Garonne, about thirty miles north-eaſt of St. Bertrand, where the Roman Catholicks ſay, they obtained a miraculous victory over the Albigenſes. They relate, that Peter, King of Arragon, the Count de Thoulouſe, and many other ſovereign Princes, having beſieg'd Muret with an army of an hundred thouſand men, in the year 1213, and that St. Dominick, with the biſhop of Thoulouſe, being ſhut up in the place, and calling to their aſſiſtance Simon Earl of Montford, they ſallied out upon the beſiegers with fourteen thouſand men, St. Dominick carrying a crucifix before them, and totally routed the King of Arragon's army, who was killed upon the ſpot. They pretend to have preſerved St. Dominick's crucifix to this day at Thoulouſe, with three arrows ſticking in the wood of the croſs, with the Chriſt untouched. And tho' we ſhould not be much in the wrong to ſuſpend our belief as to ſome circumſtances in the ſtory, yet we may obſerve from hence and other relations we have met with, that almoſt all South France, part of Italy and Spain, as well Princes as people, were very early united in a confederacy againſt the church of Rome and its ſuperſtitions, and maintained their ground for ſome ages, till a general croiſado was proclaimed againſt them; and then it was with no ſmall difficulty they were ſuppreſſed.

St. Beat.

St. Beat is ſituated on the Garonne, two or three leagues to the ſouthward of St. Bertrand, ſo incloſed between two mountains, that there is only room for the buildings and the river between them; and tho' it be a very indifferent place in other reſpects, they can ſay what few others can, namely, that the whole town is built with marble, which is the only ſtone to be found in their neighbourhood.

St. Gaudens.

St. Gaudens is a little populous trading place on the Garonne, ſituated north-eaſt of St. Bertrand, the beſt town in the Cominges, and the capital of the Nebouzan.

Conſerans.
St. Lizier.

Conſerans lies ſouth-eaſt of Cominges, adjoining to the Pyrenean Mountains; the only town of any conſequence is St. Lizier, *Fanum Sancti Licerii, Civitas Conſeranorum*, ſituate on the river Salat, at the foot of the Pyrenees, fourteen or fifteen miles to the eaſtward of St. Bertrand. It is the See of a biſhop, but not conſiderable on any other account.

The ancient ſtate of Guienne and Gaſcony.

The government of Guienne and Gaſcony is part of the ancient Aquitain, ſo called *ab aquis*, from the great number of hot baths and mineral waters in it. In the Roman diviſion of Gaul, it comprehended all that country which lies between the river Loire and the Pyrenean mountains, and was transferred to the Goths by the Emperor Valentinian III. The Franks having made a conqueſt of it, Charles the Great erected it into a kingdom for his youngeſt ſon Lewis, who afterwards ſucceeded him in the Empire. It falling to the Kings of France in the diviſion of the Empire, they governed it by Counts and Dukes, who at length aſſumed an unlimited dominion, and made it hereditary in their families. Eleanor the heireſs of William, the ninth Duke of Aquitain, married Lewis VII, King of France, who having divorc'd her, ſhe afterwards married Henry of Anjou, ſon to the Empreſs Maud, and grandſon of Henry I, King of England; who ſucceeding his grandfather in the crown of England, enjoy'd the dutchy of Aquitain alſo in the right of Eleanor his wife, whom he married about the year 1152, and his deſcendants enjoy'd it till 1202, when the French King Lewis VIII ſeizing ſome part of it, a war broke out between the two kingdoms of England and France; which ended in a treaty, wherein it was ſtipulated, that the Engliſh ſhould enjoy the dutchy of Guienne, as it was bounded on the north by the river Charente, and on the ſouth by the Pyrenean mountains; which tract of land was of a larger extent than the preſent province or government of Guienne and Gaſcony, tho' not ſo large as the ancient kingdom of Aquitain. This the Engliſh enjoyed for more than two hundred and fifty years afterwards, namely, till the fatal year 1453, when John Talbot Earl of Shrewſbury and his ſon were killed in a deciſive battle near Caſtillon in Gaſcony, during the unfortunate reign of Henry VI. This Prince had been crowned at Paris, and was once actually ſovereign of the reſt of France, as well as England, but ſaw himſelf deprived of both before his death, and the Engliſh have never ſince had any conſiderable footing in France.

The trade and produce of Guienne and Gaſcony.

The produce as well as trade of Guienne conſiſts chiefly in wine. In time of full peace, when their commerce is not interrupted, it is computed that the foreign ſhipping which comes to Bourdeaux does not take off leſs than an hundred thouſand tons annually: but theſe wines are not all of the growth of this province, great part of them are brought hither from Languedoc, &c. They have two great annual fairs at Bourdeaux of fifteen days continuance each, when foreigners chiefly reſort hither; one begins the firſt of March, and the other the fifteenth of October; the laſt is much the moſt conſiderable, being after the vintage, when there is the greateſt plenty of wine and fruit, and then we may ſometimes ſee four or five hundred ſail in the port of Bourdeaux, ſome of them of five hundred tons, whoſe cargoes conſiſt of brandies, vinegar, prunes and fruit, as well as wine: and we may judge of the trade of Bourdeaux, ſays a French writer, by the cuſtoms paid there, which in ſome years amount to four millions of livres.

Bayonne is the moſt conſiderable port on this coaſt next to Bourdeaux. Hither the Spaniards bring their wool over the mountains on mules, and take ſugars in return: and from Bayonne the Spaniſh wool is diſtributed to all the provinces of France where there are woollen manufactures. Timber for ſhipping, as maſts and yards, are alſo brought down the rivers in floats from the Pyrenean mountains to Bayonne, and ſent from thence to Breſt and other ports, where the King's ſhips are built and repaired. The merchants of this town alſo fit out ſhips every year for the whale-fiſhery in Greenland, and pretend to have been the firſt who found out and were engaged in this branch of trade. True it is, their neighbours the Biſcayners of Spain, were the firſt we are acquainted with that followed the whale-fiſhery, and on account of their dexterity in that art, the Engliſh took ſeveral of them into their ſervice when they firſt eſtabliſhed the whale-fiſhery in the Greenland ſeas: and under the name of Biſcayners it is highly

CHAP. XV.

probable the mariners of Bayonne and other ports on this coaſt might be included. But it appears they followed this employment in more ſouthern latitudes, and not in the ſeas of New Greenland, till they were carried thither by the Engliſh.

From Port Blaye on the Garonne, below Bourdeaux, they alſo export wine, and in plentiful years corn; and from the bay of Arcathon, pitch, tar and roſin.

That part of this province which is called the Election of Montauban, produces corn, wine, prunes, tobacco, ſaffron and ſilk, which are ſent down the rivers Garonne and Tarn to Bourdeaux; and it is computed that the Engliſh and Dutch lay out annually in prunes only, above an hundred thouſand crowns. Their ſaffron and ſilk are ſent chiefly to Lyons.

This country alſo has ſome manufactures of linen and woollen, but not much of theſe to export. They abound in mules, which the Spaniards purchaſe of them, being very proper for carrying burthens, and travelling over the Pyrenean mountains.

Military government of Guienne and Gaſcony.

The governor general of Guienne has under him two lieutenant-generals, the one for Guienne, and the other for Gaſcony and Bigorre; beſides which, the King conſtitutes lieutenants-general in every election, and in every fortified town, of which laſt there are a great number in this province.

CHAP. XVI.

Treats of the province or general government of Saintonge and Angoumois.

CHAP. XVI.

Saintonge, ſituation, &c.

THIS government comprehends almoſt all Saintonge and Angoumois. Saintonge is bounded by Poitou and Aunis on the north; by Angoumois and Perigord on the eaſt; by the Bourdelois and the Gironde on the ſouth; and by the Ocean on the weſt; being five and twenty leagues in length, and twelve in breadth.

Angoumois, ſituation, &c.

Angoumois is bounded by Poitou on the north; by Limoſin on the eaſt; by Perigord on the ſouth; and by Saintonge on the weſt; being eighteen leagues long and fifteen broad.

Rivers.

The principal rivers of this government are the Charente and the Boutonne.

Charente.

The Charente having its ſource in the Limoſin, firſt takes its courſe north-weſt into Angoumois, and then turning about to the ſouthward, viſits Angouleſme; after which taking its courſe ſouth-weſt again, it viſits Saintes, diſcharging itſelf into the Ocean a league and half below Rochefort.

Boutonne.

The Boutonne riſing in Poitou, takes its courſe ſouth-weſt till it falls into Charente at port Carillon. The other rivers of this province are but ſmall, but it is obſerved that their waters make excellent paper.

Face of the country.

The air of this country is eſteemed hotter than that about Paris. The country is full of little hills, but has not one conſiderable mountain in it, unleſs that on which Angouleſme is ſituated. The ſoil produces corn, wine, ſaffron, and all manner of fruits in abundance. They have ſome good iron-mines, which afford a great quantity of that metal, but no others wrought. Thoſe of Rancogne and Plancheminer are the moſt conſiderable.

Chief towns.

The chief towns in Saintonge are Saintes, Marennes, Arvert, Sanjon, Royan, Tallemond, Mortagne, Pons, Barbeſieux, Chalais, St. John de Angeli, Tonnai-Charente, Taillebourg.

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The chief towns of Angoumois are Angouleſme, Cognac, Jarnac, Rochefoucaut, Blanzac, Chateauneuf, Bouteville, Ruffec and Vauguyon.

Saintes.

Saintes, *Mediolanum, Urbs Santonica*, a little ill-built city on the river Charente, ſixty miles to the northward of Bourdeaux, and twenty to the eaſtward of the Ocean, is the capital of Saintonge, and a Biſhop's See, but not very conſiderable on any other account at preſent, unleſs it be for the noble ruins found here, which ſufficiently diſcover its antiquity; as a triumphal arch, ſuppoſed to be erected in the reign of Tiberius, the ruins of an amphitheatre, ſeveral aqueducts, and a capitol, the laſt of which edifices were only erected by the Romans in towns of the firſt magnitude.

St. John de Angeli.

St. John de Angeli, *Angeliacum*, ſtands on the river Boutonne, five leagues north-eaſt of Saintes. It was anciently a magnificent caſtle, built in the middle of a foreſt named *Angeliacum*, where the Dukes of Aquitain had their reſidence. It afterwards grew to be a conſiderable town, and was ſtrongly fortified, but the inhabitants adhering to the Calviniſts, it was beſieged and taken by Lewis XIII, whereupon they were deprived of their privileges, and the fortifications demoliſhed.

Angouleſme.

Angouleſme, the capital of Angoumois, *olim Inculiſma*, is ſituated on the top of a mountain ſurrounded with rocks, at the foot whereof runs the river Charente, thirty miles to the eaſtward of Saintes. It is a Biſhop's See, the cathedral church dedicated to St. Auſonius, beſides which there are eight churches and ſix convents in the place. It is ſuppoſed to contain eight thouſand ſouls.

Cognac.

Cognac, ſituate on the Charente, ſeven leagues to the weſtward of Angouleſme, in one of the moſt deſirable countries in the world, and remarkable for being the place of the nativity of Francis I, but better known to us by the excellent wine and brandy it produces.

Rochefoucaut.

Rochefoucaut, *Rupes Fucaldi*, ſituate on the Touvre, four leagues to the eaſtward of Angouleſme, has the title of a dutchy and peerage, but I do not meet with any particular deſcription of it.

The trade and produce of Saintonge

The principal trade of Saintonge is in ſalt, of which they make a ſurprizing quantity in their ſalt-marſhes, much better than that of Bretagne, or any other part of France; but the duties are ſo much higher in this province than they are in Britany, that they make much leſs than they have done.

Of Angoumois.

The Angoumois have a good trade in wine, brandy, paper and ſalt, but they are a lazy generation, pretty much addicted to pleaſure, and do not make all the advantages they might of the fertility of their country. Their manufacture of paper is eſteemed the beſt in Europe, which it ſeems has been diſcouraged of late, and is not equal to what it was.

Military government.

The governor of this province hath a lieutenant-general under him in Saintonge and Angoumois, and a lieutenant of the King's in each of thoſe cities, beſides which the town of Cognac has its particular governor.

CHAP. XVII.

Treats of the province or government of Aunis.

CHAP. XVII.

Province of Aunis. Situation, &c.

THIS government comprehends the country of Aunis, the country of Brouageois, the iſles of Re, Oleron, &c. and is bounded on the north and eaſt by Poitou; by Saintonge on the ſouth, and by the Ocean on the weſt.

The

Rivers. Ports.

The principal rivers which paſs through this country are the Charente and the Seare. And tho' it be but a ſmall government, it has the advantage of ſeveral good ports, of which the moſt conſiderable are Rochefort, Rochelle, Brouage, St. Martins in Re, Tremblade, and Tonnai-Charente. This country is generally dry, and yet produces good corn and wine. In the maritime parts, where there are large meadows, they feed abundance of cattle, and in their ſalt-marſhes make the beſt ſalt in Europe.

Chief towns.

The chief places in this government are Rochelle, Rochefort, Brouage, Marennes, Alvert, Tremblade, Saujon, Royan, and the iſles of Re and Oleron.

Rochelle.

Rochelle, *Rupella*, is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, twelve leagues north-weſt of Saintes, two ſouth-eaſt of the iſle of Re, and four north-eaſt of Oleron, is forty-ſix degrees twelve minutes north latitude, ſtrongly fortified by that great Engineer VAUBAN. The town is of a ſquare figure, and about three miles in circumference. Queen ELEANOR of Guienne brought it, with the reſt of her territories, to HENRY II. King of England, about the year 1152; the French ſurpriſed it in 1224, but by the treaty of Britany, anno 1360, they were obliged to deliver it up to the Engliſh again. The town revolted ten years after, and put themſelves under the protection of France. Upon the reformation they declared for the Proteſtants, who defended the place againſt the Kings of France from the year 1567, till 1628, being ſupported by the Engliſh; but the Duke of Buckingham, who was going to their relief with a powerful fleet, being ſtabbed by that aſſaſſin FELTON, the expedition miſcarried, and they were forced to ſurrender, after having ſuffered a terrible famine, and all other miſeries of a long ſiege, whereby two thirds of them were deſtroyed before the town was taken; after which the fortifications were demoliſhed, and lay in ruins till the year 1689, as has been intimated already, when that famous Engineer Monſieur VAUBAN fortified it after the modern way, to prevent a deſcent of the Engliſh. It is at preſent a Biſhop's See, and a place of very great foreign trade, as will appear under that head.

Rochefort

Rochefort, *Rupifortium*, ſituate three or four leagues from the mouth of the Charente, and ſeven or eight to the ſouthward of Rochelle, was but a little caſtle in the year 1665, when the French King LEWIS XIV, obſerving that the coaſts on the Ocean were generally very dangerous and of difficult acceſs, and that there was ſcarce a port or road except that of Breſt, where the royal navy might ride with any ſecurity, he ordered ſeveral places to be ſounded, and diſcovered at length that a good port might be made in the mouth of the river Charente, and that there was depth ſufficient in that river for the largeſt veſſels, he purchas'd the abovementioned caſtle of Rochefort, and ordered the plan of a town to be traced out of the bigneſs of Bourdeaux, and having ſurrounded it with a wall and other modern fortifications, erected an arſenal and magazines, and gave all manner of encouragement to his ſubjects to build and ſettle there; and it is now one of the fineſt towns, and the beſt provided to accommodate the royal navy of any upon the coaſt, except Breſt and Port-Lewis. Here is a noble hoſpital alſo for diſabled ſeamen: but the place is ſtill very unhealthful in Auguſt, September and October, ſuppoſed to proceed from the badneſs of the water, and its being covered by the hills from the north wind. The entrance of the river and the port is defended by ſeveral forts that render it inacceſſible to an enemy by ſea.

Brouage.

Brouage is ſituated on a bay of the ſea about eight leagues ſouth of Rochelle; it is ſurrounded by a ſalt-marſh where they make vaſt quantities of ſalt, as will appear under the article of trade; but the harbour is in a manner choaked up.

Soubize.

Soubize is ſituated on the river Charente two leagues from the ſea, conſiderable chiefly for being the capital of a principality, and for its healthful air, whither the natives of Rochefort frequently retire for reſtoring their broken conſtitutions.

Iſle of Re.

The iſle of Re, *Rea Inſula*, lies five or ſix miles to the weſtward of Rochelle, and is four or five leagues in length, and one and a half in breadth, producing plenty of wine and ſalt, tho' their wine is but indifferent, and ſerves chiefly to convert into brandy and ſtrong waters. They have neither corn, graſs or trees upon the iſland: it is however populous, and ſtands very advantageouſly for a foreign trade. The chief town is that of St. Martins, beſides which there are five or ſix pariſhes upon it.

St. Martins.

St. Martins is but an inconſiderable town in itſelf, but of great conſequence on account of the fortifications about it, which were erected in the late reign by Monſieur VAUBAN. They conſiſt of a good wall with ſix royal baſtions and five half-moons, a ditch and covered way well lined, and a fine citadel which commands the town, the harbour and the adjacent country. The entry of the port is narrow and defended by a fort.

Fort Pree. Fort Martray.

Fort Pree ſtands on the north-weſt part of the iſland, and defends the entrance of the channel called Pertruis Breton. Fort Samblancean ſtands on the ſouth-eaſt point of the iſland, and defends the channel called Pertruis Antiocle. Beſides which, there is another fort on the coaſt called Fort Martray, raiſed by the above-mentioned celebrated engineer: ſo that it would be much more difficult to make a deſcent upon this iſland now, than when the Duke of Buckingham landed here in order to relieve Rochelle in the year 1627. It ſeems he was maſter of the whole iſland except Fort Pree. which holding out againſt him, and the Rochellers ſtupidly refuſing to admit him into the city, upon ſome fooliſh inſinuations of their brethren the ſaints in England, he was forced to return home without effecting any thing; and being ſtabbed by FELTON while he was recruiting his troops in England in order to return to their relief, Rochelle was taken, and the inhabitants, as well as the reſt of the Proteſtants of France, ſuffered ſufficiently for their diſtruſt and ingratitude towards the Engliſh court, who had done ſo much to ſupport them.

Duke of Bucks's expedition againſt Re and Rochelle, an. 1627.

Oleron.

The iſle of Oleron, *Uliarus*, lies two or three leagues to the ſouthward of Re, and as much to the weſtward of the continent; being about five leagues in length, two in breadth, and twelve in circumference; containing ſix pariſhes, and ten or twelve thouſand inhabitants. It is defended by a caſtle ſituated on the eaſt part of the iſland, and ſome other forts. The natives had formerly a mighty reputation for their ſkill in navigation; and in conformity to their cuſtoms it was, that Queen ELEANOR, Dutcheſs of Guienne, made thoſe conſtitutions in relation to ſea-affairs, which obtained the title of the laws of Oleron, and became a model for all other maritime powers on the Ocean, as thoſe of Rhodes were in the Mediterranean in the time of the Romans. Upon each of theſe iſlands of Re and Oleron there is a pharos or light-houſe for the direction of mariners in the night. The ſoil of

Oleron is very fruitful, producing corn and wine in abundance; beſides which, the natives make great quantities of ſalt of the ſea-water.

Trade and produce of the province of Aunis.

The great foreign trade which is driven at Rochelle enriches all the towns and villages of this little province. The Rochellers trade to St. Domingo, and the reſt of the American iſlands; to Senegal, Canada, Miſſiſſipi, Cadiz, Portugal, the iſles of Azores, Sweden, Denmark, Muſcovy, England and Holland, whither they ſend great numbers of ſhips loaden with wine and brandy, ſalt, paper and linen; and ſome ſay ſtuffs, ſerges, and other woollen manufactures to the northern kingdoms. They ſend to the American iſlands almoſt all the neceſſaries of life; and in return bring back ſugars, indigo, tobacco, ſkins, Brazil and Campechy-wood, cotton, and other leſſer articles: and they receive from the ſide of Domingo cochineal, quinquina, cocoa nuts, vanilles, pearls, emeralds and dollars. Their colonies in North America furniſh them with dried cod, ſtock-fiſh, ſalmon, ſalted eels, fiſh-oil, hides, maſts, yards, and other naval ſtores. They import from Africa ſkins, wax, gums, and a ſmall quantity of gold-duſt. From Portugal they bring Brazil-tobacco and ſnuff, chocolate, dried citrons and oranges; and in time of war Liſbon was the ſtaple of all the merchandizes of Spain, England and Holland.

The principal manufacture at Rochelle is that of refining and baking ſugar, as that of linen is at Rochefort and Barbeſieux: to which we may add the diſtilling brandy and ſtrong waters here and in every other town of the country. But nothing turns to ſo much account as their ſalt, which is made by letting the ſea at high water into ſhallow baſins or pans, where the water being evaporated, the ſalt ſubſides, and they find a kind of cruſt of ſalt at the bottom. Then they let in the ſea again, and ſo from time to time till the cruſt is come to the thickneſs they deſire it, when they take it out and lay it on heaps, and then repeat the experiment again. This brings in a good revenue to the proprietors of the ſalt-marſhes, but a much greater to the crown.

The military government of Aunis.

There is a governor-general of Aunis, Rochelle, Brouage, Re and Oleron, who has under him a lieutenant-general, the King's lieutenant, and ſeveral governors of particular places and forts: beſides which there is a captain or general, who has the command of nine or ten thouſand militia, to prevent any ſurprize or deſcent on the coaſts in time of war.

CHAP. XVIII.

Contains a deſcription of the province or general government of Poitou.

CHAP. XVIII.

Poitou province. Situation, &c.

THE province of Poitou, *Pictavia*, is bounded by the territories of Nants and Anjou on the north; by Touraine and Berry on the eaſt; by Saintonge, Angoumois and Aunis on the ſouth; and by the Ocean on the weſt; and is forty-eight leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and two and twenty in breadth from north to ſouth.

Face of the country.

This country is diverſified with champain, woods and paſture grounds, (very little of it mountainous) and ſome few foreſts.

Rivers.

There are but two navigable rivers in it, which are thoſe of Vienne and the Sevre Niortoiſe.

Vienne.

The Vienne riſes in the Limoſin, and running north-weſt, falls into the Loire two or three leagues to the eaſtward of Saumur.

Sevre.

The Sevre Niortoiſe, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from the Sevre Nautois, hath its ſource in the eaſt part of Poitou, and taking its courſe weſtward, paſſes by Niort, where it begins to be navigable, and continuing its courſe weſterly, falls into a bay of the Ocean a little below Marans.

Mineral waters.

There is but one fountain of mineral waters of any conſequence in the country, and that is at Availles.

Ports.

They reckon up nine ports on the coaſt of Poitou, but they are of little ſervice to any veſſels but fiſherboats and ſmall craft, except that of Sables d'Olonne, which it is ſaid will admit veſſels of an hundred and fifty tons.

Diviſion. Chief towns.

Poitou is divided into the higher and lower, of which the higher is the largeſt diviſion, and comprehends the towns of Poitiers, Thouars, Loudun, Mirebeau, Chatelleraut, St. Maixent, Luſignan, Montmorillon, Chauvigny, Richelieu and Mortemar. And in the lower Poitou are Niort, Maillezais, Lucon, Fontenai le Compte, Parthenai and la Rocheſuryon.

Poitiers.

Poitiers, *Auguſtoritum Pictavium*, the capital of this province, is ſituated on an eminence near the little river Clain, fourſcore miles to the eaſtward of the Ocean, and about as much north-eaſt of Saintes. It is the largeſt town in France next to Paris, if we regard the extent of the walls; but then there is a great deal of ploughed lands, gardens and waſte ground included within thoſe bounds. The town however, is not ſmall, containing two and twenty pariſhes, nine convents of friars and twelve of nuns, beſides ſeveral abbeys, two ſeminaries, and three hoſpitals; and is governed by a mayor, five and twenty aldermen, and ſixty-five burgeſſes. They have a very little trade, which is aſcribed to the lazy indolent temper of the inhabitants, who are nevertheleſs eſteemed a polite and ſociable people. Poitiers is a Biſhop's See, and has a univerſity of ſome credit; there are alſo the remains of ſeveral Roman edifices in the place, as of an amphitheatre, a triumphal arch, which ſtill ſerves for one of the gates, and ſome aqueducts. In the middle of the town is a great round tower called the caſtle of Maubergeon: the black Prince, ſon to EDWARD III, King of England, took JOHN King of France and his ſon PHILIP priſoners, about two leagues from this city, anno 1357.

Thouars.

Thouars, *Toarcium*, ſituate on a little hill near the river Toue, ten leagues north-weſt of Poitiers, conſiderable chiefly for being the capital of a dutchy.

Loudun.

Loudun, *Caſtrum Loſdunum*, ſtands eight leagues north-weſt of Poitiers, is a pretty town, and has a great number of convents and religious houſes in it; but was much more remarkable in the laſt century for its attachment to the Proteſtants: here it ſeems they had one of their laſt ſynods in 1658.

Luſignan.

Luſignan, *Liciniacum Caſtrum*, is a little town ſituated five leagues ſouth-weſt of Poitiers, famous formerly for one of the ſtrongeſt caſtles in France, which is now demoliſhed, the Lords whereof were Kings of Cyprus and Jeruſalem.

Richelieu.

Richelieu, an elegant town and caſtle, ten leagues north of Poitiers, enlarged and beautified by the celebrated Cardinal RICHELIEU, and made the capital of a Dutchy and Peerage; the Duke's palace or caſtle, with the park, gardens, &c. are eſteemed equal to moſt in France.

Lucon.

Lucon is ſituated three and twenty leagues ſouth-weſt of Poitiers, conſiderable only on account of its being a Biſhop's ſee.

Fontenai le Comte.

Fontenai le Comte, the capital of the lower Poitou, is ſituated twenty leagues ſouth-weſt of Poitiers, and is a well-built town, conſiſting of three pariſhes and ſeveral convents; but the French writers do not give us any farther deſcription of it.

The ancient ſtate of Poitou.

Poitou is part of Aquitania, and erected into a county by CHARLEMAIN in favour of ABSON, whoſe poſterity were Dukes of Guienne for ſeveral generations; the laſt of them was WILLIAM the Ninth, whoſe only daughter and heireſs marrying HENRY of Anjou, afterwards HENRY II. King of England, brought this province with Guienne and Gaſcony to the crown of England, as has been obſerved already, and which was poſſeſſed by the Engliſh with ſome interruptions from the French, till the unfortunate reign of HENRY VI. anno 1453.

Trade and produce.

The trade of Poitiers and the diſtrict belonging to it is inconſiderable, conſiſting only in worſted ſtockings, hats, and ſhammy leather. They ſell alſo ſome wool and cattle at their fairs, and druggets, which are the manufacture of Parthenai.

The diſtrict of Chatelleraud is a pleaſant fruitful country, the inhabitants eſteemed witty and induſtrious, and to have a genius for trade. The town of Chatelleraud is famous for watches, clocks, knives, ſciſſors, and other hard ware.

In the diſtrict of Maixent their trade conſiſts chiefly in corn and cattle, which they vend to the merchants of Auvergne, Lions, Piedmont and Savoy; and in the town of Maixent they have a woollen manufacture.

In the diſtrict of Niort they vend great numbers of cattle, horſes and mules; and at the town of Niort, their manufacture of woollen ſtuffs and ſhammy leather is conſiderable.

In the diſtrict of Fontenai they drive a good trade with their horſes, mules and corn; and at the town of Fontenai they have a manufacture of woollen cloth, ſerges and ſtuffs. On the ſea-coaſts they make ſalt of the ſea-water, as has been intimated already.

Military government.

The governor general of this province hath under him one lieutenat-general, and two of the King's lieutenants for the higher Poitou; and one lieutenant-general and two of the King's lieutenants for the lower: beſides the governors of particular places, as thoſe of Loudun, Poitiers, Chatelleraud, Luſignan, St. Maixent, Niort, Fontenai le Comte, and the caſtle of Chaune.

CHAP. XIX.

Contains a deſcription of the general government or province of Bretagne or Britany.

Bretagne. The name, ſituation.

BRetagne, Britany, Little Britain, anciently called Armorica, i. e. *Ad mare ſita*, from the ſituation on the ſea, is a peninſula bounded on the north, ſouth and weſt, by the Ocean, and on the eaſt by Anjou, Maine and part of Normandy, being ſixty leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and forty five in its greateſt breadth, that is, from Nantz to St. Malo's; but grows leſs gradually as we proceed to the weſtward, ſo that in ſome places it is not half that breadth.

Face of the country.

The air.

Rivers.

Ports.

This country is pleaſantly diverſified with mountains and valleys, but the lower Britany is the moſt mountainous, a chain of hills called Mount Arre running croſs it. There is alſo a happy variety of champain and woods. The trees in their foreſts are for the moſt part beech, oak or cheſnuts. The air is generally healthful, but thick and moiſt towards the ſea-coaſts. The principal rivers are the Loire, the Vilaine, the Ouſt, the Blavet and the Rance; of which the two firſt only are navigable. The Loire has been already deſcribed, which runs through this province from eaſt to weſt, and falls into the Ocean ten leagues below Nants. The Vilaine riſes on the eaſtern confines of this province, and running ſouth-weſt, falls into the ocean about twenty miles north-weſt of the mouth of the Loire. The reſt of the rivers riſe within the province, and running but a very ſhort courſe before they diſcharge themſelves into the Ocean, are not any of them navigable farther than the tide flows. There is no part of France abounds with ſo many good ports and roads as this; for here we find St. Malo's, Breſt, Conquet, Port Lewis, Nants, and ſeveral others, which I ſhall deſcribe when I come to treat of thoſe places.

Diviſion of Britany.

Bretagne is uſually divided into the higher and lower Britany: the higher lies towards the eaſt, and the lower towards the weſt; but the lateſt French geographers chuſe to deſcribe the ſeveral dioceſes it contains without regarding whether they ſtand in the higher or lower Britany; and theſe are nine in number, viz. 1. The dioceſe of Rennes. 2. That of Nants. 3. Vannes. 4. Quimper. 5. Leon. 6. Triguer. 7. St. Brien. 8. St. Malo. And, 9. That of Dol.

Rennes dioceſe.

The Biſhoprick of Rennes is an inland country, having the dioceſe of Dol on the north, and the dutchy of Maine towards the eaſt; the chief towns whereof are Rennes, Fougeres and Vitre.

Rennes city.

Rennes, *Civitas Redonum*, the capital of the province, as it was anciently of Armorica, is ſituated on the river Vilaine, about fifty-five miles to the northward of Nants, and forty-five ſouth of St. Malo. It is divided by the river in two parts, which have a communication by three bridges; a large populous town, the See of a Biſhop, and the place where the States or Parliament meets: it hath ſome fine ſquares in it, but the ſtreets are generally narrow and the houſes high, which makes them very dark. The cathedral and Jeſuits college are the only buildings that travellers mention as worth the viewing.

Nants dioceſe.

Chief towns.

The dioceſe of Nants is bounded by that of Rennes on the north; by Anjou on the eaſt; by Poitou on the ſouth, and the Ocean on the weſt; being divided in two parts by the river Loire. The chief towns are Nants, Chateaubriaud, Gueraude, Croiſic, Cliſſon, Ancenis, Machecond and Paimbœuf.

Nants city

Nants, *Condivionum*, *Civitas Namnetum*, is ſituated on the Loire, about thirty miles to the eaſtward of the Ocean, and forty-five to the weſtward of Angers, in 47 degrees 15 minutes north latitude, a degree and half to the weſtward of London. It is a large, populous town, ſurrounded by a wall and other fortifications, and defended by a caſtle. The ſuburbs are larger than the town. As to the trade, which is as conſiderable as that of any town of the kingdom, I ſhall ſpeak of it under another head; only obſerve here, that no ſhips or veſſels of any burthen can come up hither on account of the ſands, tho' the tide runs up a great deal higher, but are forced to unload their merchandize into hoys and lighters at Paimbœuf, near the mouth of the river. There is a fine key along the river-ſide, on which ſtand the merchants houſes, and a handſom bridge over the river. The principal buildings mentioned by the French writers are the cathedral, a magnificent Gothick ſtructure, in which are the tombs of ſeveral of the ancient

Dukes of Bretagne; the town-houſe, a modern building, and the epiſcopal palace. Near the city is a famous hermitage ſituated on a rock, from whence there is a fine proſpect of the town, the Loire, and the adjacent country. Here the hermits have with their own hands hewn a handſom chapel out of the rock, cells for their lodging, and other conveniences, to which they have with great labour added a pretty garden. But this town is remarkable for nothing more than the famous edict of Nants, ſo called from its being granted here by King Henry IV. ſurnamed the Great, in the month of April, 1598, by which the Proteſtants were allowed the free exerciſe of their religion: it was confirmed by his ſucceſſor Lewis XIII. and ſome ſay by Lewis XIV. But however that be, certain it is that Lewis XIV. revoked it in the year 1685, upon which followed that perſecution which occaſioned ſo many thouſands of his ſubjects with their families to take refuge in other kingdoms, to the irreparable damage of his own. The principal inducement to which, ſeems to me rather an inſatiable thirſt to make himſelf abſolute, than from any prejudice he had to the reformed religion; for this body of men ever joining with thoſe who were for defending their civil rights, he could never hope to eſtabliſh an abſolute dominion over the lives and fortunes of his ſubjects till they were extirpated.

Paimbœuf.

Paimbœuf is ſituated on the ſouthern bank of the Loire near its mouth, and may very properly be ſtiled the port-town to Nants; for here all merchandize are unloaded that go up thither, and here whatever they export is put on board, and the whole town conſiſts only of inns and taverns for the reception of ſea-faring men.

Gueraude.

Gueraude is ſituated to the north-weſt of the mouth of the Loire, and is conſiderable for the ſalt-marſhes about it, which yield vaſt quantities of ſalt.

Bourgneuf

Bourgneuf lies to the ſouthward of the mouth of the Loire on a large bay of the ſea, where they alſo make abundance of ſalt, which they export to Holland and other countries.

Vannes dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Vannes, or Vennes, lies on the ſea-coaſt, north-weſt of that of Nants. The chief towns whereof are, 1. Vannes. 2. Auray. 3. Hennebond. 4. Redon. 5. Port Lewis. 6. Pontray. 7. Maleſtroit. The peninſula of Rhins; and laſtly, the iſland of Belle-Iſle.

Vannes city.

Vannes or Vennes, *olim Dariorigum* and *Civitas Venetum*, is ſituated on a canal through which the tide flows, two leagues from the ſea, and twenty north-weſt of Nants, and is looked upon as one of the moſt ancient towns of the province, and indeed of Old Gaul; it is ſtill a Biſhop's See, but the town is ſmall, the ſtreets narrow and ill-built; the ſuburbs are much larger than the town, where are their faireſt buildings, as the college of the Jeſuits, the grand hoſpital, and the Dominican convent.

Auray.

Auray is a little trading town, ſituate on the ſea-coaſt to the weſtward of Vennes, conſiſting only of a large key and one fine ſtreet.

Port Lewis.

Port Lewis is a conſiderable town ſituate on a bay of the ſea at the mouth of the river Blavet, ten leagues north-weſt of Vennes. It has a good harbour that receives the largeſt ſhips, and here the India company have their ſtore-houſes and principal magazine; here alſo in time of war part of the royal navy are fitted out: but notwithſtanding the ſeeming advantage of the ſituation, there are not many merchants reſort hither, which my author ſuppoſes to proceed from their meeting with a better and quicker market at Nantz, which is always ready to take off any cargo they export; and perhaps another reaſon may be, becauſe it is one of the ports of the royal navy; for merchants ſeldom care to be under thoſe reſtraints that are put upon them by the military power; arms and trade cannot flouriſh in the ſame place.

Pontivi is ſituated on the river Blavet, eight or nine leagues north-eaſt of Port Lewis, and is the chief town of the dutchy of Rohan, the Dukes whereof are ſaid to be deſcended from the ancient Dukes of Britany: Henry II, Duke of Rohan, was in great eſteem among the French Proteſtants, being one of their generals, and died of the wounds he received at the battle of Rhinfield in the year 1638.

Belle-Iſle.

Belle-Iſle, *olim Calonesus*, lies about ſix leagues ſouth-weſt of the continent of Britany and ten from Vennes; it is almoſt encompaſſed with rocks, which make it of difficult acceſs, and is ſix leagues in length and two in breadth. There is a pretty good road to the northward of the iſland, defended by forts and other works, in which there is always a good gariſon; and here the French fleet uſually rendezvous before they put to ſea. This iſland was erected into a marquiſate in the year 1573. The moſt remarkable places upon it are the pariſhes of Lauzon, Palais, Locmaria and Bangor.

Quimper dioceſe. Chief towns.

The dioceſe of Quimper ſtretches it ſelf along the coaſt of Britany to the north-weſt of that of Vennes; the chief towns whereof are, Quimper, Corentin, Quimperler, Concarnau, Carhaix, Chateauneuf, Gourin, Roſtrenin, Chateaulin, Faou, Audierne, Pont Croix, Pont l'Abbe, Bouarnez and Crozon.

Quimper city.

Quimper, which in the Britiſh language is ſaid to ſignify a place ſurrounded with walls, is ſituated on the river Oder, twelve or thirteen leagues north-weſt of Port Lewis, and two or three from the ſea. It is the capital of a county to which the Britons who tranſported themſelves from Great Britain to Armorica gave the name of Cornwal or Cornouaille, being the country from whence they are ſuppoſed to come. The town is tolerably large, a place of ſome trade, and the See of a Biſhop, who alſo ſtiles himſelf Count. The cathedral is a noble old ſtructure, and the Jeſuits have a fine college here, which are the only conſiderable buildings mentioned by the French writers.

Leon dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Leon takes up the moſt weſterly part of Britany, extending it ſelf along the ſea-coaſt from the harbour of Breſt to the river of Morlaix, and forms a kind of peninſula, the ſea encompaſſing it on three ſides. The chief towns are St. Paul de Leon, Breſt, Leſneven, St. Renaud, Landernau, Porſal, the iſles of Oueſſant or Uſhant.

Leon city.

Leon, or St. Paul de Leon, ſo denominated from one of their firſt Biſhops, who has the reputation of a ſaint, is ſituated near a bay of the ſea in the north-weſt part of the province, an hundred miles north-weſt of Rennes, and thirty north-eaſt of Breſt. It is the See and reſidence of a Biſhop, who is alſo a temporal Lord, and would not be very conſiderable upon any other account, were it not for the ſuburb of Roſcof, which with the iſle of Baz forms an excellent road or harbour, where their ſhipping uſually touch which are bound to or from the Engliſh channel.

Breſt.

Breſt is ſituated on an eminence on the north ſide of a fine bay, called Breſt or Cameret Bay, in 48 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, four degrees odd minutes to the weſtward of London.

The harbour, in the phraſe of the French writers, is the fineſt in the world; ſeeming to have forgot that much finer of their own at Toulon, for their largeſt ſhips are always built and laid up at Toulon, becauſe (as I preſume) Breſt will not eaſily admit of ſhips of that bulk. They have indeed a great number of men of war at Breſt, but not one of the firſt rate, as I can learn; the entrance of the harbour is too ſhallow or too rocky to admit them: which is however a ſecurity againſt the fleet of an enemy. The town and the entrance of the harbour are fortified as well as the nature of the ground will admit; and the port, it is ſaid, will contain five hundred ſail of ſhips. The yards and magazines here are ſo conſiderable, if we may credit the French writers, that they can equip out ſeventy ſail of men of war from this port; but they muſt certainly mean of the leſſer ſort, from what has been hinted already. Their ſmall ſquadrons and privateers which ſheltered themſelves here uſed to be extremely troubleſom to our merchant-men in the late wars; for which and other reaſons it was thought proper by the confederates to make a deſcent here in the year 1694, in order to have taken the town and deſtroyed their ſhipping; but the attempt miſcarried, having been ſo long diſcovered before the Engliſh fleet ſailed from their ports, that the Britiſh government had intelligence that the deſign was betrayed, and yet were ſo ſanguine as to proceed in the expedition, to the no ſmall loſs and diſgrace of their fleet and forces: for there was an army more numerous than themſelves ready to receive them, and batteries of guns planted on the ſea-ſhore wherever there was any poſſibility of landing. Here the brave TALMASH, who commanded the land-forces, received his mortal wound as he was about diſimbarquing the firſt ſix hundred men, who were moſt of them killed, wounded or made priſoners; the tide leaving the boats they were in upon the ſand. This diſappointment ſo diſcouraged us, that in the laſt two long wars we ſcarce ever made a deſcent upon the French coaſts afterwards, though we were maſters at ſea, and might certainly have very much weakened their armies elſewhere by it, and diſtracted their affairs. I muſt ſay it was a brave and wiſe attempt of my countrymen to endeavour the deſtruction of the French ſhipping, and the only two harbours they have of any conſequence, namely, Breſt and Toulon; though neither of theſe enterprizes ſucceeded according to expectation: for as the French in one reign increaſed their royal navy to ſuch a degree as to diſpute the empire of the ſea with the united fleets of England and Holland more than once, what may we not dread if we ſhould ſee another enterprizing monarch at their head?

Conquet.

Conquet is a little port-town in the moſt weſterly part of Britany, near the entrance of the bay of Breſt, the ſea between which and the iſles of Uſhant has obtained the name of Conquet Road.

Uſhant iſles.

The iſland of Oueſſant or Uſhant, *Uxantius*, lies four or five leagues to the weſtward of Conquet, and is about eight miles in circumference; there are ſome little villages upon it, and a caſtle for its defence. There are a great many other leſſer iſlands near it, which from the larger have obtained the name of the iſles of Uſhant.

Triguer. dioceſe.

The dioceſe of Triguer extends it ſelf along the northern coaſt of Britany, from the river of Morlaix to the town of St. Brieu. The chief towns whereof are Triguer, Morlaix, Guingamp, Lannion and Lanmur.

Triguer city.

Triguer, *Lantriguet*, is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt thirty miles to the eaſtward of Leon, the cathedral is dedicated to St. TUDAL, ſaid to be their firſt Biſhop and an Engliſhman: the Biſhop is temporal as well as ſpiritual Lord of the place, and ſtiled Count. The town ſtands almoſt in the midſt of the water, and has a port for ſmall veſſels.

Morlaix.

Morlaix, *Mons Relaxus*, ſtands on a little river, to which it communicates its name, two or three leagues to the ſouthward of St. Paul de Leon, and will admit of ſmall veſſels. The road at the mouth of the river has good anchorage, and is much frequented.

St. Brieu dioceſe.

The dioceſe of St. Brieu lies alſo upon the northern coaſt, between that of Triguer and St. Malo. The chief towns whereof are St. Brieu, Montcontour, Lambale and Quintin.

St. Brieu city.

St. Brieu is ſituated ten leagues to the eaſtward of Triguer, in a bottom ſurrounded with mountains out of ſight of the ſea, tho' it be within half a league of it, where there is a tolerable port for ſmall veſſels. The churches, ſtreets and ſquares make a good appearance, and there are ſeveral convents in the place, but neither wall or ditch about it: the Biſhop is both temporal and ſpiritual Lord of the town.

St. Malo dioceſe.

The biſhoprick of St. Malo lies between that of Brieu and Dol. The chief towns are St. Malo, Concale, Chateau-Neuf, Dinant, Tintiniac, Combourg, Montfort, Breal, Guer, Ploermel Joſſelin, Trinity, and Comper.

St. Malo.

St. Malo is ſituated on a rock called St. Aaron, ſurrounded by the Ocean, but joined to the continent by a cauſey; it lies about eight or nine leagues to the eaſtward of Brieu, and twelve north-weſt of Rennes. The town, eſpecially that part of it contiguous to the cauſey, is ſtrongly fortified. The harbour is ſaid to be one of the beſt upon the coaſt, but of difficult acceſs, and will not admit of very large veſſels. The cathedral, the Biſhop's palace and the town-houſe ſtand in the Place, as they call it; which I perceive is no more than a common market-place, though ſome writers have given it the elegant title of a ſquare. They tell us alſo there are ſome other beautiful places and ſquares in it, though their beſt writers confeſs it is generally an ill-built town with narrow ſtreets, a ſea-port of the worſt kind, being inhabited chiefly by people who have made their fortunes by privateering, or common mariners; though ſome will have it that it is become rich and populous by the Weſt India trade: this neſt of privateers did us ſo much damage in the late wars, that our government were provoked to bombard them; but I queſtion whether the damage they received, amounted to much more than the powder and ſhot that was ſpent upon them, their flats and ſands keeping the fleet at ſuch a diſtance. The gariſon of this town, it is ſaid, turn their dogs out of the gates every night to prevent a ſurprize, in imitation of ſome of the ancients.

Dinant.

Dinant or Dinan is ſituated on a mountain, ſteep and almoſt inacceſſible on every ſide, and is alſo defended by a wall and caſtle; it ſtands about five leagues ſouth of St. Malo, and is the capital of a county to which it gives its name.

Dol dioceſe.

The biſhoprick of Dol lies upon the coaſt between St. Malo and Normandy, and is the ſmalleſt in the province, not being more than five leagues in length, the only conſiderable town whereof is Dol.

Dol.

Dol, *Dolum*, is ſituated in a marſhy country two leagues from the ſea, and four to the eaſtward of St. Malo; it is a little unhealthful town and poorly peopled, the Biſhop is temporal Lord of the place.

The ancient ſtate of Britany.

This country, which, with part of Normandy, conſtituted the ancient Armorica, was divided into ſeveral little principalities and ſtates, which were confederated together againſt the Romans when Cæsar ſubdued them.

The account the French give of its being called Britany or little Britain, is as follows: they ſay, that part of the natives of the iſland of Great Britain being driven out of their country about the middle of the fifth century, in the reign of the Emperor Valentinian, by the Engliſh or Anglo-Saxons, fled for refuge into Armorica, which thereupon began to be called *Britannia*, *Britannia Ciſmarina*, and *Britannia Minor*. And that the Romans who were then maſters of Armorica, received them as friends and allies, who might aſſiſt them to reſiſt the incurſions of the barbarous nations, particularly the Viſigoths, who then began to be very powerful about the Loire, that they committed the defence of this province to Riothame, captain or general of the Britons, conferring on him at the ſame time the title of Count and General of the Empire. That Clovis King of France attempted to make a conqueſt of their country, but at length came to an accommodation with the Counts of Bretagne, and ſettled the limits of their reſpective dominions. That the Counts, Dukes, or Sovereigns of Bretagne, with ſome interruptions from the French, enjoyed their territories till the reign of Francis II. the laſt Duke of Britany, whoſe daughter Anne marrying Charles VIII. of France, brought with her the dutchy of Britany; but Charles dying without iſſue, and Anne ſurviving him, it reverted to her again, and was afterwards united to France by another match, about the year 1532, till when it was under a different government and adminiſtration from the reſt of the kingdom.

Neither the French or Engliſh hiſtorians are agreed either on the time or the occaſion of the Britons tranſporting themſelves in ſuch numbers into Armorica as to obtain the dominion of it, give new names to the moſt conſiderable places as well as the country it ſelf, and to introduce their own language, tho' theſe are facts not to be controverted. The Britiſh or Welch tongue is ſtill ſpoken here, many places retain their Britiſh names, and their laws and conſtitutions were lately very different from the reſt of France. Nor does it appear that the Franks, or any of the Kings of France were ſovereigns of this country, till it was lately united to that crown by marriage of the heireſs of Britany with one of thoſe monarchs. But I ſhall enlarge on this head in their general hiſtory.

Trade and produce of Britany.

Of Nants.

The commerce of the province, both foreign and domeſtick, is indeed very great; the briſkeſt and moſt conſiderable in the kingdom, according to the French writers, and is carried on chiefly at Nants and St. Malo. The merchants of Nants trade principally to America and the Weſt-Indies, whither they ſend annually about fifty ſail, from ſixty to three hundred tuns. Five and twenty or thirty of theſe veſſels are bound to Martinico, eight or ten to Guardeloupe, as many more to St. Domingo, and three or four to Cayenne and other little ports. Their Cargoes conſiſt of all manner of proviſions and neceſſaries for the plantations, and by the way theſe veſſels take in wines at Fyal and Madeira, which are ſtrong-bodied and will bear the ſea. Other ſhips touch at the iſles of Cape Verd, where they load themſelves with ſalt and tortoiſes, which ſell well in the iſlands of the Weſt Indies. Theſe ſhips uſually ſet ſail in November and December, and are five and forty or fifty days in their voyage outward bound. They make their returns from the Weſt-Indies and the continent in ſugar, cocoa, ginger, cotton, wool, indigo, hides, tortoiſe-ſhells, and other ſmall articles. They are not permitted to carry ſugars unrefined out of the kingdom, but theſe are refined at the ſugar-works at Nants, Saumur, Angers and Orleans. As for the reſt of the merchandize imported, it is exported to Holland, Denmark, Hamburgh, Dantzick, Stockholm, &c. to great advantage.

In their fiſhery at Newfoundland and the Iſle-royal they employ thirty ſail of ſhips, which uſually ſet out in July, Auguſt, December or January, and return in three or four months, moſt of them making two voyages every year. Their gains are proportionable to the ſhoals of cod-fiſh they meet with: ſometimes a thouſand cod will not make more than two hundred livres, and at other times they are ſold for twelve hundred. Nants is as it were the ſtaple for this kind of fiſh, the ſhips which go from Rochelle and Oleron to this fiſhery unloading their cargoes in the river Loire, and they are ſent from Nants not only to all the towns on that river, but to Paris by the canal of Lyons, to Auvergne, and all over the kingdom.

The merchants of Nants alſo have a good foreign trade to Spain, particularly to Bilboa, St. Sebaſtian, Corunna, and all the coaſt of Galicia; but it is in ſmall barks loaden with paper, linen, ſilk-ſtuffs, gold and ſilver lace, ſugar, iron-wares and mercery. And they bring back in return, iron, wool, ſheep-ſkins, oranges, citrons, and a great deal of ſpecie. They have alſo a trade with Portugal, whither they ſend the ſame ſpecies of goods as to Spain, and bring back much the ſame merchandize. Moſt of the nations of Europe, and particularly the northern kingdoms, drive a great trade with Nants. The Dutch carry thither their cinnamon and other fine ſpices, ſtarch, lead, copper, tobacco, pipe-ſtaves, timber, deal-boards, maſts, pitch, tar, cordage, hemp, wire, Ruſſia-leather, tallow, oil, whalebone, and a great deal of iron or hard ware, and mercery or haberdaſhers wares; taking in return wine, brandy, paper and prunes; but chiefly ſalt, which they embark at the bay of Bourgneuf and Pouliguen.

The Engliſh bring to Nants lead, tin, copperas and ſea-coal; and take in return alſo, wine, brandy, paper, prunes and ſalt: but as the value of the goods they bring is not equal to what they take, they pay the difference in treaſure.

Proviſions from Ireland bear a good price at Nants, as barrelled butter, ſalt beef, tallow, herrings, hides, tanned leather, and wool, when they dare hazard the running of it.

The Hamburghers, Danes, Swedes and Dantzickers, bring ſteel, copper, planks, maſts, pitch, cordage and hemp.

The city of Nants alſo has a very conſiderable trade with Flanders, and all the ports of their own kingdom; and the adjacent country feeds great herds of cattle, of which they make a conſiderable advantage.

Of St. Malo.

The city of St. Malo alſo has as good a foreign trade as any town in the kingdom, with England, Holland, Spain, &c. To England they export the linens of Rouen, Laval, Quintin, Vitre, Pontorſon and Rennes; and the Engliſh give them in return, woollen-cloth, lead, tin, ſea-coal, flax, copperas and galls: but as the goods they bring do not amount to half ſo much as they receive, the exchange is here alſo prodigiouſly againſt them, and they pay the difference in bills or ſpecie.

The Engliſh in time of peace ſend a hundred ſhips to St. Malo one year with another, and the Dutch a great many; but the French traffick with Spain is the moſt conſiderable and profitable, and conſiſts chiefly in linens, which they buy up in all parts of the kingdom; the ſattins of Lyons and Tours, gold and ſilver-ſtuffs, the woollen manufactures of Amiens and Rheims, caſtors, &c. which are ſent directly to Cadiz, and from thence to the Spaniſh plantations in America, the returns from whence are made in ſpecie, rich merchandizes, hides, cochineal, indigo, Campechy wood and Spaniſh wool; but it is eighteen months or two years before the returns are made from New Spain, and then indeed they are very large, amounting ſometimes to twelve millions of livres in ſpecie, and never leſs than ſix or ſeven. And the French obſerve, there is no trade more advantageous, either to particular men, or the publick, as it furniſhes them with moſt of their treaſure.

The merchants of St. Malo alſo have a great dependance on the cod-fiſhery, to which they ſend annually abundance of ſhips, from a hundred to three hundred tons, ſelling their cargoes at their return at Bourdeaux, Bayonne and Bilboa, for wines, brandy, prunes, raiſins, and other fruits. They alſo carry their fiſh to the coaſt of Provence and Italy, bringing back fruits, ſoap, oil, alum, &c.

Privateers of St. Malo.

When the late war interrupted their trade, the people of St. Malo in general applied themſelves to privateering. They armed all the ſhips they had for that ſervice; and as the Engliſh and Dutch, their enemies, have a much greater ſhare of foreign trade than the French, they did them an inconceivable damage, and enriched themſelves more by their piracies, than by all their foreign commerce in time of peace. They alſo bred up and entertained great numbers of mariners, which were of ſervice to the ſtate, ſay the French writers, and became a terror to all the maritime powers of Europe. And indeed the French King did the Confederates more miſchief by this piratical war, than ever they could do his ſubjects or territories, tho' they were always maſters at ſea.

I ſhall conclude this head with an account of the produce and manufactures of the province. The dioceſe of Rennes yields wheat, rye, oats, and abundance of buck-wheat, or French-wheat, fitter to fat hogs with than to be the food of men; tho' uſe, it ſeems, will bring a man to like any thing, for I have heard ſome people admire the flower of buck-wheat. In Flanders, by way of deriſion, they ſay ſuch a fellow lives on *Buck-a-de-cooks*, which are pancakes made of buck-wheat, and ſold to the pooreſt people at the corners of the ſtreets. They feed alſo a great many cattle in this dioceſe, and have excellent butter, with which they ſupply their neighbours of Nants and Anjou.

The manufacture of ſail-cloth for ſhipping, and twiſted thread is conſiderable. They dye their thread of all colours, and vend it at Paris, Rouen, and other great cities throughout the kingdom. It is exported alſo to England and Spain, and even to the Indies.

The dioceſe of Vannes produces abundance of corn, which they export to St. Sebaſtian, Portugal, Bayonne, and other places; and from Spain they uſually bring back ſpecie in return. They ſalt up alſo great quantities of pilchards, congers, &c. which they vend at Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Nants and St. Malo. The town of Port-Lewis alone, it is ſaid, vends four thouſand hogſheads of ſalted pilchards to the merchants of St. Malo, who export them to Spain and the Mediterranean. The Natives of Belle-Iſle alſo drive a great trade with pilchards, the veſſels employed in this fiſhery are not above two or three tuns burthen a-piece, and are manned with about five hands every boat, carrying a dozen nets at leaſt, of twenty or thirty fathoms in length. They ſalt them, barrel them up, and ſell them to the merchants before they come on ſhore.

The dioceſe of Quimper abounds in corn and cattle, which they vend in Normandy; for which they receive money in return, as they do wine for the corn they carry into Gaſcony.

The principal trade of the biſhoprick of Leon is in horſes, paper and linen. They have not corn enough for their ſubſiſtence, which is therefore frequently imported from the north, as well as flax for their linen manufacture.

The biſhoprick of Triguer on the contrary abounds in corn and cattle, with which they ſupply the ſea-ports of Breſt and St. Malo. Their hemp alſo turns to good account, the King purchaſing of them the value of three millions of livres a year to ſupply his magazines at Breſt.

Linen and thread are the principal manufactures in the dioceſe of Brieu; the ſoil alſo produces corn and fruits in abundance, particularly apples, of which they make cyder, the common beverage of the province, for there is no wine grows in the country.

The dioceſe of St. Malo alſo produces plenty of apples, which they convert into cyder; and abounds in corn and cattle.

Military government of Bretagne.

The government-general of Bretagne has in it two general lieutenancies, one of them conſiſting of the dioceſe of Nants only, and the other of the remaining eight dioceſes; in each of which the King hath alſo a lieutenant: and as Britany is a peninſula encompaſſed almoſt on every ſide by the ſea, there are abundance of caſtles and forts erected on the coaſts for its defence; the ſtrongeſt of which are the caſtle of Belle-Iſle, the caſtle of Breſt, the citadel of Port Lewis, the caſtles of St. Malo and of Nants, the caſtle of Torro, which defends the entrance of the river of Morlaix, and many others were erected during the late wars, when the confederate fleet frequently viſited their country.

CHAP. XX.

Contains a deſcription of the province or general government of Normandy.

CHAP. XX.

Normandy. The name.

NOrmandy, known to the Romans by the name of the eleven confederated cities or provinces of Gaul, and afterwards by that of Neuſtria, or Weſt France, of which kingdom it made a part, received its modern name from the Danes and other northern people, who went under the general name of Normans, and made a conqueſt of it about the year 912, under the conduct of ROLLO, or RAOUL, as the French call him, their General or Prince, who is always looked upon as the firſt Duke of Normandy.

Situation, &c.

This province is bounded by the Britiſh channel on the north; by Picardy and the Iſle of France on the Eaſt; by Beauſſe, Perche and Maine, on the ſouth; and by Bretagne on the weſt;

Face of the country. Air. Rivers.

weſt; extending ſixty leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and thirty in breadth from north to ſouth; being one of the largeſt and moſt fruitful provinces of the kingdom. There are indeed ſcarce any vineyards; but then they abound in apples and pears, of which they make cyder and perry, the ordinary drink of the natives. The country has ſome hills in it, but no high mountains. It conſiſts of an agreeable variety of arable, meadow, paſture-grounds and foreſts. The air is colder here than in any part of France, but not unhealthful. The principal rivers are the Seine, the Eure, the Aure, the Iton, the Audelle, the Rille, the Dive, the Touque, the Careutone, the Aute and the Orne.

The Seine. The Seine, already deſcribed, runs north-weſt through this province, and having viſited Rouen, falls into the Britiſh channel near Havre de Grace.

The Eure. The Eure riſes in Perche, and taking its courſe firſt to the eaſtward, then turns to the north, and having croſſed part of Normandy, diſcharges it ſelf into the Seine near Pont de Larche.

The Orne. The Orne riſes near Seez, in the ſouth of Normandy, and taking its courſe firſt to the weſtward, afterwards turns about to the north; and having viſited Caen, falls into the Britiſh channel a little below that city.

Ports. The principal ports are thoſe of Diepe, Havre de Grace, Honfleur, Cherbourg and Grandville; and ſome add St. Valery and la Hogue; but theſe ſcarce deſerve the name of ports.

Mines and mineral waters. And as this country abounds in iron-mines, ſo it does in mineral waters, the chief whereof are thoſe of Beleſme, St. Paul de Rouen, Hebecrevon, Menitoue, Bourberouge, Pont Normand, Mont Boſque, and thoſe of Forges; of which the laſt are in much the greateſt reputation.

Diviſion. This province is uſually divided into the Upper and Lower Normandy. The Upper Normandy comprehends, 1. The country of Caux. 2. The Roumois. 3. The Vexin Norman. 4. The country of Bray. 5. The country of Campagne. 6. The country of Ouche. And, 7. The Lieuvin. The Lower Normandy contains, 1. The country of Auge. 2. The diſtrict of Caen. 3. The Beſlin. 4. The Cotentin. 5. The Avranchin. 6. The country of Bocage. And, 7. The Marches.

Caux diſtrict. Chief towns. The country of Caux received its name, ſay the French writers, from the Caletes, its ancient inhabitants, tho' I muſt confeſs, I don't find any great reſemblance in the two names. It extends from Rouen to Havre, and from Caudebec to Picardy. The land is generally high, but plain, having few valleys in it. The French look upon it as a very cold country, and inconvenient on account of the ſcarcity of good water; but the plenty of corn here makes them ſome amends. The chief towns are Caudebec, St. Valery, Diepe, Arques, Eu, Aumale, L'Iſle-bonne, Yvetat and Longueville. 'Tis true, Havre de Grace, Montivilliers, Harfleur and Feſcamp, are alſo in Normandy; but as theſe conſtitute another government by themſelves, they will be conſidered in another chapter.

Caudebec. Caudebec, *Calidobecum*, is ſituated on the river Seine, at the foot of a mountain covered with woods, ſeven leagues north-weſt of Rouen, and eleven ſouth-eaſt of Havre, a little populous trading town, conſiderable formerly for its manufacture of hats, which were tranſported to other countries; but they don't make more than will ſupply their own at preſent.

Diepe. Diepe, *Juliobona Caletorum*, obtained its modern name, according to the French, from its ſtanding in a bottom. It is ſituated on the north-eaſt coaſt of Normandy, fourteen leagues to the northward of Rouen, being of a triangular figure, and ſtrongly fortified, tho' the works are very irregular, occaſioned by the uneven ſituation of the ground. It is one of the moſt conſiderable ports upon this coaſt, but will not admit of men of war of the line, or merchant-ſhips of great burthen. During the war it was a neſt of privateers, and did conſiderable damage to the Britiſh trade; whereupon the Engliſh Fleet bombarded it in the year 1694, ſince which it has been rebuilt to advantage, and ſome new works added to the fortifications, by Monſieur VAUBAN. The natives are moſt of them mariners. One of their own writers obſerves, that tho' the air here is very groſs, and their bodies ſtill groſſer, it has produc'd ſeveral bright men, and excellent mechanicks. The town contains about thirty thouſand ſouls.

Eu. Eu, *Ou*, *Auga*, is ſituated on the confines of Picardy, near the mouth of the river Breſele, ſix leagues north-eaſt of Diepe, conſiderable chiefly for its being the capital of a county and peerage.

The Roumois. The Roumois lies between the rivers Seine and Rille, and abounds in corn, fruit and cattle, but eſpecially ſheep. The chief towns are, Pont Audemer, Quillebeuf and Elbeuf.

Pont Audemer. Pont Audemer is ſituated on the Rille, twelve leagues from Rouen. LEWIS XIV. endeavoured to make it a port.

Elbeuf. Elbeuf is ſituated on the Seine, four or five miles north-weſt of Pont de l'Arche, conſiderable for its woollen manufacture, and for its being erected into a dutchy and peerage.

The Vexin Norman. The Vexin Norman lies on the north-eaſt ſide of the Seine, and is a very fruitful country, comprehending the towns of Rouen, Giſors, Audely, and Econi.

Rouen. Rouen, *Rotomagus*, the capital of Normandy, and formerly of the Velocaſſes, is ſituated in a bottom on the north bank of the Seine, encompaſſed on three ſides with hills, and only open towards the river, being ſeventy miles north-weſt of Paris, and forty-five ſouth-eaſt of Havre de Grace and the Britiſh channel. It is ſurrounded by a wall, defended by round antique towers, but of no great ſtrength in this age. As the town is very populous, containing ſixty thouſand ſouls, but not extremely large, the ſtreets are narrow, and the people ſeem to be crouded together. It contains thirty-ſix pariſhes, ſeveral hoſpitals, thirty-five fountains, ſixteen monaſteries, nineteen nunneries, and a fine college of Jeſuits. The cathedral, the churches of St. Owen and St. Maclou, in the phraſe of my French author, are perfectly fine. In the cathedral are the tombs of ſeveral Kings, Princes, Prelates and Noblemen, particularly thoſe of HENRY III. and RICHARD I. Kings of England, and Dukes of Normandy, on each ſide of the high altar in the choir, and that of CHARLES V. King of France, in the middle of the choir. They reckon up a great many publick places and ſquares in Rouen; ſeven of which the French eſteem very fine ones: but ſeveral of them are no better than the market-places in our great towns, and put to the ſame uſes. There was a handſom ſtone-bridge over the river between the city and ſuburbs, ſaid to be built by the Empreſs MAUD; but this being broken down, the place is now ſupplied by a bridge of boats. The famous JOAN of Arce, or Maid of

Orleans, was burnt here by the Engliſh for an impoſtor: but the French, when they became maſters of the city, erected a ſtatue to her memory, as ſhe had been a means of turning the fortune of the war, and preſerving their country from an entire conqueſt by the Engliſh.

Rouen, it is ſaid, hath been burnt and rebuilt twelve or thirteen times, but ſtands ſo very advantageouſly for trade, upon the Seine, between Paris and the Britiſh channel, that it will never be deſerted; and is at preſent looked upon as the center of the French trade on this ſide, on which I ſhall enlarge when I come to that head. It is the See of an Archbiſhop, and the place where the parliament of the province have their ſeſſions. The corporation conſiſts of a mayor and ſix aldermen, the mayor being elected every three years.

The neighbourhood of the city of Rouen is extremely fine. On every ſide of it are pleaſant walks and beautiful country-ſeats; and at about a league diſtance ſtands the Charter-houſe, which is one of the moſt agreeable ſolitudes imaginable. The polite world will certainly have an opinion of the ſituation of Rouen, when they remember that the late Earl of Clarendon, grandfather of Queen ANNE, a gentleman of the moſt refined taſte, choſe to make it the place of his reſidence during his exile.

The country of Bray

The country of Bray is bounded on the north and weſt, with the country of Caux; the Beauvoiſis, on the eaſt; and the Vexin Norman, on the ſouth. This diſtrict is partly hilly, and partly marſhy, fit for the feeding of cattle. The arable land alſo bears rye; and they have plenty of fruit, of which they make cyder and perry, but very little wheat. The chief towns are Neufchatel, Gournay, Le Ferte and Forges.

Neufchatel.

Neufchatel is ſituated five or ſix leagues ſouth-eaſt of Diepe, and is a pleaſant town, conſiſting of three pariſhes, the chief of this diſtrict, but not conſiderable upon any other account.

The country of Campagne.

The country of Campagne lies ſouth-weſt of the Seine; the chief towns whereof are, Pont de l'Arche, Louviers, Neubourg, Harcourt, Evreux, Gaillon, St. Andre, Nonancourt, Vernevil, Bretville and Concles.

Pont de l'Arche.

Pont de l'Arche, *Pons Arcus*, takes its name from a ſtone-bridge of two and twenty arches, built over the Seine at this place, about four leagues ſouth of Rouen. It is incloſed with a wall, and defended by a caſtle, which ſtands on an iſland in the river. There is one pariſh-church in the place, and two convents.

Evreux.

Evreux, *Mediolanum Aulercorum*, is ſituated in a fruitful plain on the river Iton, eight or nine leagues ſouth of Rouen, the capital of a county, to which it communicates its name, and a Biſhop's See. It contains nine pariſhes, and ſeveral religious houſes. The cathedral and the magnificent caſtle of Navarre near this town, are worth the viewing.

The diſtrict of Ouche.

The diſtrict of Ouche lies to the weſtward of that of Campagne. The chief towns are Bernai, Beaumont le Roger, and L'Aigle; but none of them merit a particular deſcription.

The country of Lieuvin.

The country of Lieuvin lies to the northward of Ouche, and abounds in corn, flax, and good paſture. The chief towns are, Corneilles, Lievrai and Tiberville; none of which my French authors have thought worth deſcribing.

The country of Auge.

The country of Auge lies to the weſtward of the Roumois, and conſiſts for the moſt part of paſture-grounds. The chief towns are Liſieux, Honfleur and Pont l'Eveque.

Liſieux.

Liſieux, *Civitas Lexeviorum*, is ſituated at the confluence of two ſmall rivers, partly on a hill, and partly in a valley, eighteen leagues to the weſtward of Rouen. It is ſurrounded by a wall, and ſome antique towers of no great ſtrength. The cathedral and biſhop's palace are the only buildings mentioned as worth the viewing.

Honfleur.

Honfleur, *Huneflotum*, is ſituated on the weſt bank of the river Seine near its mouth, three leagues ſouth-weſt of Havre de Grace, and ſixteen weſt of Rouen, a port-town, which the late King endeavoured to improve, by making a baſin fit to receive ſhipping, and a large key about it. The town is ſuppoſed to contain about twelve thouſand ſouls. Here they unload the ſalt which is brought from the bay of Brouage, and diſtribute it to all the towns on the Seine.

Caen diſtrict and city.

The country of Caen lies to the weſtward of that of Auge; the chief town whereof is Caen, *Cadomus*, ſituate at the confluence of the rivers Orne and Odon, in a valley between two large meadows, about two leagues ſouth of the Britiſh channel, and eight to the weſtward of Liſieux. This city, which is the ſecond of the province, conſiſts of twelve pariſhes, two abbeys, eight monaſteries and ſeven nunneries. The moſt remarkable publick buildings are the caſtle, the epiſcopal palace, the hotel, called the grand cheval, the office of the exchequer, the new buildings of the univerſity, the town-houſe or guild-hall, and the buildings about the place-royal, where they erected a ſtatue of their grand Monarch in the year 1685. The inhabitants of Caen are computed to amount to near forty thouſand ſouls. They are a trading people, and have a communication with the ſea by the little river Orne, by which they bring their merchandize up in boats; and their univerſity is ſaid to be in a flouriſhing condition. The Normans firſt made this town conſiderable, WILLIAM the Conqueror having laid the foundation of their caſtle, according to the tradition of the place. Certain it is, the Conqueror and his Queen built two abbeys here, of which ſome French hiſtorians give the following relation. They ſay, that this Prince having married MATILDA, the daughter of BALDWIN Earl of Flanders, who was nearly related to him, without a diſpenſation from the Pope, his Holineſs, by way of penance, enjoined them to build theſe two abbeys; whereupon the Conqueror founded that of St. Stephen, in which he was afterwards interr'd; and his wife that of the Trinity, in which ſhe was buried. The firſt is poſſeſſed by monks, and the other by nuns. Both the abbeys are of the order of St. Bennet, and richly endowed. The Conqueror, beſides the lands he had granted to that of St. Stephen in France, gave ſeveral mannors in England to the monks of that houſe by his laſt will.

The diſtrict of Beſſin.

The Beſſin lies along the ſea-coaſt to the weſtward of Caen; the chief towns whereof are Bayeux and St. Lo.

Bayeux.

Bayeux, *Civitas Baiocaſſium*, is ſituated on the river Aure, a league and a half from the ſea, and ſix to the weſtward of Caen. It is the See of a Biſhop, and contains ſeventeen pariſhes; but is not populous. The cathedral church dedicated to the Virgin, is one of the fineſt of the province.

The Coutantin.

The Coutantin, or Coſtantin, is bounded on three ſides by the Britiſh channel, and on the eaſt by the Beſſin, and is a hilly uneven country, but affords good paſture. The chief towns are, Coutance, St. Saviour, Cherbourg, Barfleur, Valogne, Carentan, Villedieu, Granville and La Hogue.

Coutance. Coutance, *Conſtantia*, *Coſedia*, pleaſantly ſituated among the meadows and rivulets, about two leagues diſtant from the ſea, and ten ſouth-eaſt of the iſle of Jerſey; the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Rouen, and has a magnificent cathedral, eſteemed one of the fineſt pieces of Gothick architecture in Europe. There are alſo ſeveral convents and monaſteries, and two parochial churches. It is not a place of any great trade, and the fortifications are demoliſhed; but by the remains of a Roman aqueduct, and other ancient ruins, is held to be a place of great antiquity.

Cherbourg Cherbourg, is ſituated on a bay of the ſea, fifteen leagues north of Coutance. It is a ſmall ſea-port, and fortified by LEWIS XIV. but he ordered the works to be demoliſhed in the year 1689. This was one of the laſt towns the Engliſh poſſeſſed in Normandy.

Barfleur. Barfleur is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, four or five leagues to the eaſtward of Cherbourg. It was formerly one of the moſt conſiderable ports in Normandy; but the harbour is now filled up with ſand, and there remains only a ſmall baſin. Here part of the French fleet was burnt by the Engliſh after the victory obtained near Cape la Hogue, in the year 1692.

La Hogue La Hogue is a village from whence the moſt north-weſt cape or promontory of Normandy takes its name; remarkable chiefly for the victory obtained near it by Admiral RUSSEL commander of the Engliſh fleet, over the French commanded by Admiral TOURVILLE, on the 19th of May 1692, wherein no leſs than one and twenty of the largeſt French men of war were deſtroyed: the Riſing-Sun particularly, the Admiral, was ſet on fire in ſight of the French army on ſhore, who were making preparations to invade England.

The Avranchin. The Avranchin lies on the ſouth of Coutantin. This country produces corn, cyder, flax, and hemp, but has very little paſture. The chief towns are Avranches, Pont Orſon, St. James, Mount St. Michael and Mortain.

Avranches Avranches, *Civitas Abrincatum*, is ſituated near the ſea-coaſt on the top of a mountain, at the foot whereof runs the river See, being about eight leagues ſouth of Coutance. It is a Biſhop's See; the cathedral dedicated to St. ANDREW; beſides which, there are three parochial churches, an abbey, and ſeveral monaſteries. As the Normans and Britons were perpetually at variance, while they were ſubject to different Sovereigns, this was one of the moſt conſiderable frontier gariſons of the Normans againſt Britany.

Mount St. Michael. Mount St. Michael is ſituated on a rock, in a bay of the ſea, formed by the coaſts of Normandy and Britany; the neareſt of which is a league and half diſtant from it. The ſea, twice in four and twenty hours at high water, covers all the ſtrand between the rock and the continent; and conſequently there is no coming at it by land, but at the tide of ebb. It ſtands about three leagues to the weſtward of Avranches, and to add to the ſtrength of its ſituation has a caſtle for its defence. Here is alſo an abbey of Benedictines; the Prior whereof is governor of the place in time of peace, and has no other gariſon but the burgeſſes; tho' in time of war the King ſends them a commander and regular troops. And as this is a place of great ſecurity, hither the government ſometimes ſend their ſtate-priſoners, whom they immure in dungeons, at the bottom of this rock, when it is not convenient to puniſh them openly. The abbey is alſo famous for the crouds of pilgrims that annually reſort hither, to adore the precious reliques they have in their cuſtody.

The Bocage. The country of Bocage lies to the ſouthward of Beſſin; the chief towns whereof are Torigny, Vire, and Conde ſur Noireau, none of which deſerve a particular deſcription.

The Marches. The Marches, which comprehend the Holme, is a little country, ſo called from its lying on the confines of Perche and Maine. The chief towns are Alençon, Seez, Argentan, Falaiſe and Domfront.

Alençon. Alençon, *Alenſon*, *Alencio*, is ſituated on the river Sarte, near the borders of Perche. It is ſurrounded by a wall, flanked with antique towers, and a caſtle, which are rather an ornament than defence to the place at preſent. It conſiſts but of one ſingle pariſh, the church whereof is dedicated to the Virgin, in which are the tombs of the Dukes of Alençon, the laſt of whom, brother to the then French King, made his addreſſes to Queen ELIZABETH, and was long kept in ſuſpenſe by her. It has been of late years erected again into a dutchy and peerage.

Seez. Seez is ſituated on the river Orne, five leagues north-eaſt of Alençon. It has the honour of being a Biſhop's See, but is a poor place, almoſt deſerted. There are however beſides the cathedral, four pariſh-churches, an abbey of Benedictines, and ſeveral convents, in one of which, they pretend to have a thorn of our Saviour's crown, which St. LEWIS made them a preſent of.

The ancient ſtate of Normandy. This great province, as has been hinted already, conſiſted of eleven confederated cities or communities, while it remained a part of the ancient Gaul, who were brought under the dominion of the Romans, by SABINUS the lieutenant of CÆSAR. Upon the decline of the Roman Empire, they underwent the fate of the reſt of Gaul, till CLOVIS made a conqueſt of them. And the territories of this Prince being divided among his children after his death, this province made part of Neuſtria, or Weſt France, ſometimes denominated the kingdom of Soiſſons. The Danes, and other northern nations, who went under the general name of Normans, having ravaged the kingdom of France, in a terrible manner, eſtabliſhed themſelves at length in Neuſtria, in the ninth century, and three times beſieged Paris it ſelf; to which city they were become ſo terrible, that the people made it part of their litany to be delivered from the Normans; *A furore Normanorum libera nos Domine*, were the words of the petition. And, ſay the French hiſtorians, CHARLES the Simple found himſelf under a neceſſity of yielding this part of Neuſtria to them, that he might enjoy the reſt of his dominions in peace: but it was upon condition, they add, that their Prince ſhould hold it as a fee of the crown of France. Neuſtria, in changing its maſters, changed alſo its name for that of Normandy, the name of the people that had conquered it. CHARLES the Simple, when he ſurrendered Neuſtria to the Normans, in the year 912, gave his daughter GESELE or GISLETTE in marriage to ROLLO or RAOUL, their Prince or Captain, the firſt Duke of Normandy, who thereupon embraced the Chriſtian religion, and took upon him the name of ROBERT at his baptiſm. He was ſucceeded by the following Princes of his blood, Dukes of Normandy, viz.

2. WILLIAM, ſurnamed Longſword, An. 917
3. RICHARD I, ſtiled Dreadnought, or the Old, — — — 943
4. RICHARD II, called the Undaunted, 996
5. RICHARD III, — — 1026
6. ROBERT II, — — — 1028
7. WILLIAM the Conqueror, King of England, — — — 1035
8. ROBERT III. —— 1087
9. WILLIAM II. called Rufus, King of England.
10. HENRY I, King of England, 1107
11. STEPHEN, King of England, 1135
12. The Empreſs MAUD.
13. GEOFREY V, Earl of Anjou, and huſband of MAUD.
14. HENRY II, King of England, 1154
15. HENRY the Younger, ſurnamed Courtmantle, who died before his father.
16. RICHARD IV, ſurnamed Cœur de Lyon, 1189
17. JOHN, King of England, who loſt Normandy to the French about the year 1202. It was afterwards reconquered by HENRY V, King of England, about the year 1420, and poſſeſſed by the Engliſh thirty years; but regained by the French during the unfortunate reign of HENRY VI, and was formally united to the crown of France, about the year 1464.

The account the French give of theſe Dukes of Normandy, who where Kings of England, being attended with ſome circumſtances omitted by our Engliſh hiſtorians, may be acceptable to the reader. They relate that the Conqueror was the ſon of Duke ROBERT II. and of HERLEVE or HARLOT, the wife of a citizen of Falais. That St. EDWARD (EDWARD the Confeſſor) being driven out of England by a faction, fled for refuge to ROBERT II, Duke of Normandy, and reſided in his court and his ſon WILLIAM's a conſiderable time. That the Saint being reſtored to his dominions, by way of gratitude, appointed WILLIAM his ſucceſſor: but the Engliſh not approving the choice, crowned HAROLD the Queen's brother. WILLIAM thereupon invaded England with a great army, and defeated HAROLD at the battle of Haſtings, the 14th of October 1066, which victory made him maſter of England, WILLIAM the Conqueror dying in the year 1087, and leaving three ſons, ROBERT, WILLIAM and HENRY, ROBERT ſuffered his brother WILLIAM RUFUS to ſupplant him in the kingdom of England firſt, and afterwards in his duchy of Normandy. And WILLIAM II. dying in the year 1100, ROBERT ſuffered himſelf a ſecond time to be deprived of the crown of England, by his youngeſt brother HENRY I. ROBERT indeed made ſome attempts to prevent it; but HENRY having defeated him and taken him priſoner, put out his eyes. HENRY dying in the year 1135, the male line of the Dukes of Normandy failed, that duchy deſcending to MAUD or MATILDA his daughter, who married GEOFREY, Earl of Anjou, by whom ſhe had iſſue HENRY II, King of England and Duke of Normandy; who, by his marriage with ELEANOR, Ducheſs of Guienne, whom LEWIS the Younger had divorced, became maſter of Guienne, Poitou, Saintonge and Aunis; which, with Normandy, made a very conſiderable part of the kingdom of France. HENRY II, died anno 1189, leaving three ſons, viz. RICHARD, GEOFREY, and JOHN. RICHARD ſucceeded him, but was killed at the ſiege of Chalons, anno 1199; whereupon his brother JOHN poſſeſſed himſelf of the kingdom of England, in prejudice of ARTHUR Duke of Britany, the ſon of GEOFREY his eldeſt brother. Nor was he content with uſurping his nephew's dominions, but killed him with his own hand; for which parricide or felony, he was cited to appear before the court of Peers in France, and by an edict deprived of the territories he poſſeſſed in that kingdom, in the year 1202; which PHILIP-AUGUSTUS ſo far put in execution, as to wreſt Normandy from him; and this province was thereupon united to the crown, till the civil wars happened between the houſes of Orleans and Burgundy, about the year 1420, when the Engliſh did not only make themſelves maſters of Normandy again, but of almoſt all the kingdom of France, poſſeſſing this province particularly for near thirty years.

Trade and produce of Normandy.

As to the trade of Normandy, eſpecially of Rouen, and the country about it, it conſiſts chiefly in their woollen and linen manufactures, leather, hats, combs, paper, playing-cards, pins, and abundance of other haberdaſhery-wares. The woollen manufacture employs ſeveral thouſand hands, of which they vend the greateſt part in France: they export ſcarce any woollen-cloth or ſtuffs. The manufacture of linen is much more advantageous to the kingdom, for the greateſt part is ſent abroad to Spain and other countries. And their linen or canvas, of which they make ſails for ſhips, is valued in all the countries of Europe. They have alſo manufactures in glaſs, where they make glaſs-plates for looking-glaſſes and coaches, and all other glaſs-ware whatever.

Their fiſheries for cod, herring, &c. employ abundance of hands, and bring them in a great deal of money, and they drive a great trade with their cattle, butter and cheeſe, which they vend in the ſouthern provinces. Their butter is ſalted up, and ſent to Paris and other great towns by the Seine.

And as there is no country abounds more in apples and pears, they make vaſt quantities of cyder and perry, the common drink of the country, and ſupply almoſt all the other provinces in France with it. Nay, they have ſuch plenty of fruit, that they tranſport ſome years a great deal of it to England, and other foreign countries: but then they have little or no wine, but what is brought them from the ſouthern provinces.

Military government of Normandy.

The government of Normandy being one of the moſt conſiderable in the kingdom, is always committed to a perſon of diſtinction. There are in it two lieutenant-generals, one for the Higher, and the other for the Lower Normandy; and the King has alſo a lieutenant in every baillage, which are ſeven in number. The fortified places in this province are, Cherbourg, La Hogue, Caen, Honfleur, Havre, (but this is a diſtinct government) Diepe, St. Valeri, and Treport, which have each of them a particular governor.

CHAP. XXI.

Contains a deſcription of the government of Havre de Grace.

CHAP. XXI.

Government of Havre de Grace.

THE government of Havre de Grace lies in the country of Caux, to the northward of the mouth of the Seine, comprehending the towns and diſtricts of Feſcamp, Montvilliers, Havre de Grace, and Harfleur. This little diſtrict is only ſeparated from the reſt of Normandy in reſpect of its military government; for as to the eccleſiaſtical and civil government, it is comprized under the general government of Normandy. The only town of any conſequence is that of Havre de Grace. As to thoſe of Feſcamp, Montvilliers, and Harfleur, they do not deſerve a particular deſcription,

Havre de Grace.

Havre de Grace, *Franciſcopolis, Portus Gratiæ*, had its former name of Franciſcopolis from FRANCIS its founder; but the French writers don't pretend to gueſs how it came by its preſent name of Havre de Grace. It is a ſmall fortified town, ſituate in a flat country at the mouth of the river Seine, fourteen or fifteen leagues north-weſt of Rouen, and as many north-eaſt of Caen. It is almoſt of a ſquare figure, divided into two parts by the port, ſurrounded by a wall and other works, and defended by a citadel; of great conſequence on account of its ſituation at the mouth of the Seine, its harbour and foreign trade, and is looked upon as one of the keys of the kingdom; which, I preſume, is the reaſon it is made a diſtinct government from the reſt of Normandy. In the religious wars in the year 1562, it was ſurprized by the French Proteſtants, and delivered up to the Queen of England, who ſent the Earl of Warwick thither with a good gariſon; but the plague raging in the place, and carrying off moſt of his men, he was forced to ſurrender it again the following year. Here the French uſed to arm out their privateers and ſmall ſquadrons in the late war, which occaſioned its being bombarded by the confederate fleet in the year 1694.

CHAP. XXII.

Treats of the general government of Maine and Perche.

CHAP. XXII.

Maine and Perche.

THE government general of Maine and Perche, comprehends the diſtrict of Maine, with the county of Laval, and the greateſt part of the county of Perche.

Situation of Maine.

Maine is bounded by Normandy on the north; by Perche on the eaſt; by Touraine and Vendomois on the ſouth; and by Britany and Anjou on the weſt; being about five and thirty leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and more than twenty in breadth from north to ſouth, and about ninety in circumference. In it we meet with arable lands, vineyards, meadows, agreeable little hills and foreſts, and abundance of rivers; the chief whereof are the Maienne, the Huiſne, the Sart, and the Little Loire.

Rivers.

Maine, Sart, Huiſne.

The Maine and the Sart riſe in the confines of Normandy, and having received the Huiſne, run to the ſouthward till they unite their ſtreams near Angers.

Loire.

The Little Loire riſes on the eaſtern confines of Perche, and running weſtward, joins the abovementioned rivers near Angers; two or three leagues below which city, theſe united ſtreams fall into the great river Loire.

Iron mines and mineral waters. Marble quarries.

There are ſeveral iron mines in the pariſhes of Andouilly, Chaſlon, Silly and Bourgon; and the mineral waters of Baignols and Linieres are in ſome reputation. There are alſo ſome quarries of fine marble at St. Berthevin, Argentre, Bernai and Villedieu.

Perche.

Perche is bounded by Normandy on the north; by Timerais and the county of Chartrain on the eaſt; and by Maine on the ſouth and weſt. It is one of the leaſt provinces in the kingdom, being not above fifteen leagues in length, and twelve in breadth. It is a hilly uneven country. The higher grounds bear ſcarce any thing; nor are they cultivated indeed, but ſerve only for grazing ſheep and cows. The valleys and flat country on the contrary bear all kinds of grain and hemp; and they abound in apples, of which they make cyder, the common drink of the country. As to their vines they have but few; and thoſe produce ſuch poor thin wines, that cyder is preferred before it. They have here alſo ſome iron mines and mineral waters. Their rivers, which are the Huiſne and Loire, have been already deſcribed in Maine.

The chief towns of Maine are Mans, Laval, Maienne and Sable.

Mans.

Mans, *Civitas Cenomannorum*, the capital of Maine, is ſituated on a hill, at the bottom whereof runs the river Sarte, which here unites its waters with the river Huiſne, about ten leagues ſouth of Alençon, thirteen north-weſt of Tours, and thirty-two ſouth-weſt of Paris. In the city and ſuburbs are ſeventeen pariſhes, three thouſand two hnndred houſes, and about fifteen thouſand ſouls. It was anciently much more conſiderable than it is at preſent; however, it is ſtill a Biſhop's See, and beſides, the cathedral dedicated to St. PETER, has ſeveral fine convents within its walls.

Laval.

Laval is ſituated on the Maine, eight leagues to the weſtward of Mans, and is ſurrounded by a wall and other antique fortifications. It hath alſo an old caſtle of the ſame kind, but not capable of making any great defence, ſince the art of war has been improved. It contains three pariſhes, and ſeveral monaſteries. This town was taken by ſcalade in the year 1446, by the famous TALBOT Earl of Shrewſbury, General of the Engliſh.

Maine.

Maine, *Maduana*, is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Maine, twelve leagues north-weſt of Mans. This place was anciently ſo ſtrong, having a caſtle ſituated on the brow of a rock, beſides its other fortifications, that it was eſteemed almoſt impregnable. The Engliſh General, the Earl of Saliſbury, however, took it in the year 1424. It was erected into a duchy and peerage anno 1573, and belongs now to the Duke of Mazarin, conſiſting of two pariſhes.

Sable.

Sable is ſituated on the Sarte, nine or ten leagues ſouth-weſt of Mans. It was formerly a ſtrong place, but is only conſiderable at preſent on account of its being erected into a marquiſate and peerage.

The chief towns in Perche are Mortaigne, Belleſme, Nogent and Chateauneuf; none of which the French writers have thought fit to give a particular deſcription of.

The ancient ſtate of Maine and Perche.

The province of Maine, like the reſt of France, was ſubdued by the Romans, and afterwards by the Goths, Franks, &c. CHARLEMAIN eſtabliſhed Counts here, who became hereditary, and after a long ſucceſſion the heireſs of Maine, about the year 1110, married FOULK Earl of Anjou, of which marriage was born GEOFREY V. named PLANTAGENET, who married MAUD the Empreſs, and was father of HENRY II. King of England, Duke of Normandy, Earl of Maine, &c. and the Kings of England were ſovereigns of this country till King JOHN loſt it, together with Normandy, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, when it was united to the crown of France, or became an appenage of ſome of the blood-royal. The Earls of Perche alſo were hereditary, like thoſe of Maine, till the earldom became annexed to the crown.

Trade.

As the province of Maine affords good arable and paſture land, and abounds in corn and cattle, the peaſants furniſh their neighbours both with the one and the other, which brings a great deal of money into their country; and in the towns they have both woollen and linen manufactures, thoſe of woollen being ſerges, and other ſlight French ſtuffs. The whitening of linen and wax alſo employs a great many hands.

Perche alſo affords corn and cattle, but not in ſuch abundance as Maine, tho' they have the advantage of lying nearer Paris, where they vend moſt of their cattle, corn, fowls, and other proviſions. They make alſo ſome ſlight French ſtuffs, and have a manufacture of coarſe linen. The woollen ſtuffs of Nogent are vended at Paris, and exported to other countries. There are ſeveral iron forges in the country, inſomuch that they furniſh Paris, and other great towns, with iron to the value of fifty thouſand livres annually. The tanners trade once flouriſhed here; but the French writers acknowledge that this is almoſt ruined, as well as their other manufactures, by the extreme poverty of the country, moſt people being reduced to wooden ſhoes, by the tyranny and oppreſſion of the government.

Military government.

The military government of Maine and Perche comprehends all Maine, the county of Laval and Perche, except Perche Gouet, which belongs to the government of Orleanois, and the Tinerais, which is annexed to that of the Iſle of France. The governor-general has under him one lieutenant-general, and two of the King's lieutenants, one for Maine, and the other for Perche. It being an inland country, there are ſcarce any towns fortified after the modern way: the old towers, and other antique fortifications are held ſufficient here, where they can ſcarce ever expect to ſee an enemy.

CHAP. XXIII.

Contains a deſcription of the general government of Orleanois.

CHAP. XXIII.

Orleanois diviſion. Situation and extent

THIS government comprehends the Orleanois Proper, the Pais Sologne, the Beauſſe or Beauce, the Blaſois, the greateſt part of the Gatinois and the Perche Gouet; being bounded by Perche and the Iſle of France, on the north; by another part of the Iſle of France, Champagne and Nivernois, towards the eaſt; by the government of Berry, towards the ſouth; and by Maine and Touraine, towards the weſt; being about two and thirty leagues in length, from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-eight in breadth from north to ſouth.

Soil and face of the country.

It is an exceeding healthful pleaſant country, divided by the river Loire in two parts, and watered by ſeveral other conſiderable ſtreams, on the banks whereof are ſome of the beſt vineyards in France, with arable lands, foreſts and little hills, which form a moſt agreeable proſpect, inſomuch, that ſome have given it the name of the Enchanting Country; and others the Granary of Paris, from which the north-eaſt part of it is not ten leagues diſtant.

Rivers and canals.

The principal rivers are the Loire, the Loiret, the Cher, the Laconia, the Ergle, and the Hyerus; beſides which, there are two canals, by which the Loire and Seine have a communication; and the navigation is continued from the Ocean, to the Britiſh channel.

The Loire

The Loire has been already deſcribed, which, after having viſited the city of Orleans, takes its courſe to the weſtward, and diſcharges itſelf into the Ocean ten or twelve leagues below Nants. The merchants, who inhabit the towns on this river, have obtain'd a grant of the King for laying a duty on all goods paſſing and repaſſing it, towards cleanſing this river, and preſerving the navigation, which is of great conſequence to the whole kingdom, but more immediately to them.

The Cher.

The Cher riſes in the Lionois, and running northward till it reaches the eaſtern borders of this country, turns about to the weſt, and falls into the Loire between Tours and Saumur.

Canal of Briare.

The Canal of Briare is ſo called from a little village on the Loire where it begins, and is carried on north-eaſt to the river Loing, which falls into the Seine, near Moret, and was eſteemed vaſtly advantageous, as it preſerved a communication between Nants (and conſequently the weſtern Ocean) and Paris, and all the fine provinces ſituated on the Loire, the Seine, &c. But the canal of Orleans, which has been made ſince, is much more commodious, inſomuch that the canal of Briare is very little uſed.

Canal of Orleans.

The canal of Orleans begins at the Loire, about two leagues above that city, and having travers'd the foreſt of Orleans, and the plain beyond it, joins the river Loing alſo about a league below Montargis, being about eighteen leagues in length, whereas that of Briare is not a fourth part of that length. The canal of Orleans was begun in the year 1682, and finiſhed in the year 1692; and the trade is ſo great upon it, that the duties on goods paſſing and repaſſing in one year, have amounted to an hundred and fifty thouſand livres. There are about thirty ſluices upon it.

Foreſt of Orleans, &c.

The foreſts of this country are thoſe of Blois, Ruſſy, Boulogne, Chambord, Montargis, Dourdans and Orleans; of which that of Orleans is much the moſt conſiderable, as well upon account of its extent, containing fourſcore and fourteen thouſand acres, as for the wood that grows in it, viz. oaks, elms, and aſpin-trees; of which they cut as much as amounts to an hundred thouſand livres annually.

Orleanois Proper.

Orleanois-Proper is bounded by La Beauſſe towards the north; by Gatinois and Nivernois on the eaſt; by Sologne on the ſouth; and the Blaſois on the weſt. The chief towns are Orleans, Beaugency, Meun, Lorris, Sully, Gergeau and Pluviers.

Orleans city.

Orleans, *Genabum, Aureliana Civitas*, ſtands on the river Loire, two and thirty leagues almoſt ſouth of Paris; and if we may compare a ſmall city with a great one, the ſituation reſembles that of London: for it is on the north-ſide of the river, on the declivity of a hill, the buildings reaching down to the water-ſide, and the town winding with the river, is much longer than broad. The croſs-ſtreets are moſt of them narrow, and make a very indifferent figure; but there is one handſom broad ſtreet which runs the whole length of the town, and is the beauty of it, being above a thouſand fathoms long: but then the buildings are old and ill-contrived, ſo that in this reſpect it can by no means be compar'd to London. There is a large handſom ſtone-bridge over the river to one of the ſuburbs, which ſtands upon an iſland. This bridge is an hundred and ſeventy fathoms long, and upon it is a brazen ſtatue of the bleſſed Virgin, ſitting at the foot of the croſs, and holding in her arms a dead CHRIST. On one ſide of her is King CHARLES VII, in armour,

mour, on his knees, and on the other Joan of Arc, called the Maid of Orleans, in armour alſo, and on his knees, deſigned to perpetuate the ſtory of the deliverance this city received by the addreſs of that heroine, the Maid of Orleans, when it was cloſely beſieged by the Engliſh, and on the point of ſurrendering, in the year 1429. And indeed it is an event that deſerves to be commemorated. The Engliſh were at this time maſters of Paris and of almoſt all the reſt of France; when it is ſaid Joan of Arc, a poor ſhepherdeſs about eighteen years of age, preſented herſelf to Charles the French King, ſtiled by the Engliſh in deriſion King of Berry, having ſcarce another province left him, declaring, that ſhe had received a revelation from heaven, that he ſhould drive his enemies from Orleans, and ſhortly be crowned King of France at Rheims, the uſual place where the Kings of France are crowned, and then in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, offering to lead his troops in perſon, and ſhew them the way to victory; and was ſo fortunate in the ſallies ſhe made, ſay the French, that ſhe ſoon after raiſed the ſiege of Orleans, revived the courage of the French, and gave ſuch a turn to their affairs, that the Engliſh were defeated in every encounter, and the French King, according to her prediction, was crowned at Rheims, which eſtabliſhed her fame, and made her adored by the French as their tutelary Goddeſs: tho' moſt men, I believe, at this time of day, look upon this occurrence as a pure ſtate-trick. The people were diſpirited upon the repeated victories of the Engliſh, and the King's affairs become deſperate; which put him upon counterfeiting a revelation from heaven in his favour, knowing how great things had been effected by ſuch ſtratagems as theſe in all kingdoms of the world. When a people can once be brought to think, they are fighting the cauſe of God, and are ſupported by his almighty arm, all dangers are contemned; like the Turks or Engliſh Enthuſiaſts, they are confident of victory if they live, or if they die of going immediately to paradiſe. But this ſtratagem alone would not have reſtored the affairs of the French, eſpecially when ſhe ſo ſoon after ſuffered the diſgrace of being defeated, made priſoner, and burnt by the Engliſh for an impoſtor, as ſhe really was. There was a great many other concurring circumſtances which contributed to the ſucceſs of the French; as firſt, the Engliſh Generals having a miſunderſtanding with their great allie the Duke of Burgundy at this very time, which was the principal occaſion of raiſing the ſiege of Orleans. 2. The minority of the King of Engalnd. 3. The York faction diſtreſſing his affairs. And, laſtly, the diſagreement among the Engliſh Governors and Generals. But I ſhall have occaſion to conſider theſe things more particularly in the hiſtory of France, and return now to the modern account of this city, which has in it four handſom publick places or ſquares. The cathedral is ſaid to be one of the fineſt in the kingdom. Here is alſo a univerſity; but as far as I can learn, law is the chief or only ſtudy attended to in it. The town contains two and twenty pariſhes, and is near four thouſand common paces in circumference, being encompaſſed on the land-ſide with an old wall, flanked with antique towers, which are at this day rather an ornament than defence to the place. There is no city in France at ſuch a diſtance from the ſea which hath ſo briſk a trade, having an opportunity of exporting and importing all manner of merchandize, by the way of Nants, and the weſtern Ocean; and on the other hand, by the Seine and the Loire, they have a communication with moſt of the northern and ſouthern provinces of France. Their commerce with Paris alone is very conſiderable. The city is very ancient: ſome will have it founded by the Druids; but certain it is, we find it mentioned by Cæsar, under the name of *Genabum*. Its name of *Aurelianum*, it is ſuppoſed to have received from the Emperor Aurelian, who inlarged and beautified it. It was ſince the capital of the kingdom called Orleanois, which fell to the ſhare of Clodomir, the ſecond ſon of Clovis, which kingdom laſted about fourſcore years. Orleans is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan of Paris, and capital of a duchy, giving a title to the ſecond ſon of France, who is called Monſieur the Duke of Orleans. The French tongue is ſaid to be ſpoken in its greateſt purity here and at Blois. The natives are witty, and extremely given to raillery and ill-natured reflections in their converſation, which has occaſioned ſome of their neighbours to give them the character of a waſpiſh generation. There have been ſeveral councils held at Orleans, particularly in the years 511, 533, 538, 541, and 549.

Beaugency.

Beaugency is ſituated on a little hill, at the foot whereof runs the river Loire, over which there is a bridge of twenty-two arches. It has been a town of ſome conſequence, but is now only conſiderable for being the capital of a county. It ſtands about five leagues ſouth-weſt of Orleans.

Jargeau.

Jargeau, or Gergeau, is ſituated on the Loire, four leagues above Orleans. It is a ſmall town, but of ſome importance on account of its bridge over the Loire.

Sologne diſtrict.

The Pais de Sologne lies ſouth-eaſt of Orleans, between the rivers Loire and Cher, and is a very barren ſoil, producing ſcarce any thing but rye. The inhabitants are chiefly huſbandmen, and have but very little commerce with their neighbours; the chief town whereof is Sully.

Sully.

Sully, *Solliacum*, is a little town ſituated on the Loire, ſeven leagues above Orleans, remarkable chiefly for being erected into a duchy and peerage.

Beauſſe diſtrict.

The Beauſſe, or Beauce, comprehends, 1. Beauſſe Proper, or the Pais Chartrain. 2. The Dunois. And, 3. The Vendomois. Beginning about eight or ten leagues from Paris, and extending over vaſt fertile plains as far as the river Loire, abounding particularly in wheat, but has very few vineyards, woods mountains, rivers or fountains in it; and their wells are very deep, inſomuch, that the natives are obliged to preſerve the rain-water in ciſterns and reſervoirs.

Beauſſe Proper.

The Beauſſe Proper, or the Pais Chartrain, is the moſt northerly part of the Orleanois, being but a ſmall diſtrict, and comprehends the towns of Chartres, Nogent le Roy, Gallerdon, Bonneval and Maintenon.

Chartres.

Chartres is ſituated on the river Eure, about fourteen leagues ſouth-weſt of Paris, It is divided into two parts by the river; the largeſt of which ſtands upon an eminence. It is a Biſhop's See, and has a noble cathedral; but the town is not beautiful, the ſtreets being narrow and the building old. It contains ten pariſhes in the city and ſuburbs, and has been much larger, and is agreed by all to be a town of great antiquity, tho' not ſo ancient perhaps as the natives make it; who ſay, it was founded by a grandſon of Noah ſoon after the flood. They have another tradition of equal authority; namely, that the town was once poſſeſſed by the Druids, who built a temple, and dedicated it to the *Virgin of whom a child ſhould be born*, and pretend to ſhew the place were it ſtood. Among other hoſpitals and charitable foundations, here is an hoſpital erected for an hundred and twenty blind people. The chief trade of the place is corn.

The Dunois.

The Dunois lies to the ſouthward of the Pais Chartrain, or Beauſſe Proper, being ten leagues in length, and ſeven in breadth. The chief towns are Chateau-Dun, Marchenoir, Freteval, Patai and Puiſeau.

Chateau-Dun.

Chateau-Dun ſtands on an eminence, at the foot whereof runs the Little Loire, or Loirette, and is ſuppoſed to take its name from its ſituation; Dun, in the language of the Gauls (ſays my French author) ſignifying an eminence, which I will not vouch for: but certain it is, this word has that ſignification in more modern languages. There is in the town four parochial churches, and ſeveral convents, and a caſtle, which is at preſent moſt admired for its antiquity.

Vendomois.

The Vendomois lies ſouth-weſt of the Dunois. The chief towns are Vendome, Montoire, Savigny, and St. Calez.

Vendome.

Vendome, is ſituated on the Loirette, about eight leagues to the weſtward of Orleans, and is the capital of a county; but the French writers do not think it worth a particular deſcription. They only tell us that there is an old caſtle, a collegiate church, and ſeveral monaſteries in the place, which I preſume therefore is all that deſerves mentioning.

The Blaſois.

The Blaſois is bounded by la Beauſſe on the north; by Orleanois Proper towards the eaſt; by the government of Berry on the ſouth; and by Touraine on the weſt. This is one of the fineſt countries in France, abounding in corn, wine, cattle, game and fiſh. The paſtures about Blois are ſo rich, that the milk of their cattle, according to my French author, will reſtore a broken conſtitution, and produces the beſt butter in the kingdom. The chief places are Blois, Chambord, Mer, St. Die, Romorantin and Millancey.

Blois.

Blois, *Caſtrum Bleſenſe*, the capital of the Blaſois, is ſituated on the Loire, in an admirable good air, ten leagues ſouth-weſt of Orleans. The body of the town lies upon an eaſy aſcent of a hill on the north ſide of the river, and is joined to a ſuburb on the other ſide by a bridge, being placed in the middle of one of the fineſt countries in France. It is a large handſom town, but the greateſt beauty of it is the caſtle or palace, the reſidence of ſeveral of their Kings, with gardens, fountains, water-works and park, ſuitable to the magnificence of the buildings. In the grand court before the palace ſtands a collegiate church, one of the largeſt in France. The ſtair-caſe of the caſtle is much admired, as well as the gallery, which is an hundred fathoms long; and the equeſtrain ſtatue of Lewis XII. over the great gate. Blois was erected into a biſhoprick but in the year 1697, and is ſuffragan to Paris. It is obſervable, that there is an image of the Virgin over every gate of the town, ſet up in the year 1631, when they ſuffered pretty much by the plague, and were miraculouſly delivered from this calamity by the Queen of heaven, (as they ſtile the bleſſed Virgin) according to the tradition of the place. The pariſh-church of St. Solenne, the largeſt in Blois, having been deſtroyed by a tempeſt, was magnificently rebuilt by Lewis XIV, and converted into a cathedral. The Jeſuits alſo have a beautiful college here, the front whereof is adorned with the Dorick, the Ionick and the Corinthian orders of architecture. The other publick buildings mentioned by the French writers as worth the viewing, are the town-houſe, and the palace where the courts of juſtice are held. Their fountains alſo are very ſpacious, being ſupplied by a noble aqueduct, ſuppoſed to be the work of the ancient Romans. The natives, remarkable for their good ſenſe and genteel behaviour, as well as for their ſpeaking French in perfection, ſuppoſed to proceed from the frequent reſidence of the court here. There is a fat ſort of earth found about two leagues from this city uſed by their phyſicians, and eſteemed equal to the *Terra Sigillata* brought from the Levant.

Chambord

Chambord is a little hamlet, but conſiderable on account of a royal palace built there by Francis I, which the ſkilful in architecture ſay exceeds any Gothick building in France, and has ſuch various beauties, that the greateſt maſters may learn ſomething from it. Four large pavilions compoſe the body of the building, and the whole is ſurrounded with a wall of hewn ſtone flanked with towers, which give it a very magnificent appearance at a diſtance. So very large is this palace, according to ſome authors, that it would accommodate all the ſovereign Princes in Europe; but I preſume they ſpeak by way of figure: this vaſt fabrick however was never finiſhed. There is a winding ſtair-caſe in it of two hundred and ſeventy-four ſteps, ſo extravagantly wide, according to the French writers, that a perſon would hazard his reputation who ſhould repeat what they ſay of it. But I find it is two ſtair-caſes united, one for aſcending and the other for deſcending. The anti-chamber, chambers, halls, wardrobes, cabinets and galleries, are all of a moſt exquiſite architecture, and the garden and park anſwerable to the buildings.

There are abundance of other royal palaces and noblemens ſeats at a little diſtance from Blois, which were probably erected when the court reſided there, the chief whereof are thoſe of Montfrault in the foreſt of Boulogne, a league from Chambord. The Montils, two leagues from Montfrault. Herbault, four leagues from Blois. Villeſavin, at the ſame diſtance. Beauregard, in the foreſt of Ruſſi, two leagues from Blois. Chiverny, Menards Nozieux, &c.

Romorantin.

Romorantin, *Rivus Morentini*, is ſituated on a rivulet, ſeven or eight leagues ſouth-eaſt of Blois. It conſiſts of one pariſh only, but is conſiderable on account of its woollen manufacture, which is eſteemed one of the beſt in France.

The Gatinois.

The Gatinois or Orleanois hath the Iſle of France on the north eaſt, and Orleans Proper on the weſt. The chief towns are Montargis, Chateaurenard, Milly, Chatillon-ſur-Loing, Briare, Gien, Eſtampes, Bleſneau, St. Fargeau and St. Amant.

Montargis.

Montargis, the capital, is ſituated on the river Loing, not far from the place where the canal of Orleans falls into it, five and twenty leagues ſouth of Paris. The town is not large, but having been burnt down is handſomly rebuilt, and has a caſtle pleaſantly ſituated on a hill, which commands the town and the neighbouring country. Here are alſo a great number of convents, eſpecially nunneries; and beſides the pariſh-church, there are ten chapels founded by the inhabitants. The reſt of the towns in the Gatinois are of no great conſequence.

Perche Gouet.

The diſtrict of Perche Gouet, or Little Perche, lies on the north-eaſt part of the Greater Perche, and contains the baronies of Auton, Baſoche, Montmirail, Alluye and Brou, but has no conſiderable town in it.

Trade and produce of Orleanois.

The traffick carried on by the river Loire, ſay the French writers, is certainly the moſt extenſive of any in the kingdom, ſince it not only takes in all that is produced in the ſouthern and weſtern provinces of France, but alſo the merchandize of foreign countries. This commerce conſiſts in corn, hay, wine, brandy and ſtrong waters, ſilk, wool, ſugar, hemp, oil, iron, ſteel, freſh and ſalted fiſh, fruit, cheeſe, timber, oak-planks, deals, fire-wood, ſea-coal and charcoal, earthen-ware, leather, and other goods, of which the greateſt part is ſent to Paris. Almoſt all theſe ſpecies of merchandize are unloaden at Orleans, and from hence diſtributed to the ſeveral cities and provinces of France as they are called for. But the moſt conſiderable articles in their trade are thoſe of wine, brandy, corn and grocery-wares.

The vineyards of Orleans, as has been obſerv'd, are ſome of the fineſt in the kingdom: it is computed that they produce annually an hundred thouſand tons of wine. The corn ariſes chiefly in the Beauſſe. Their grocery-wares come from Provence by the way of Lyons, or from the American plantations by the way of Nants: and they have large ſugar-works at Orleans where the ſugars are refined, in great eſteem with the merchants of Paris. Here is alſo a conſiderable manufacture of ſtockings, and another of ſhammy-leather.

The trade in the towns of Blois and Beaugency conſiſts chiefly in wines and brandy. They have alſo a manufacture of ſerges, and other ſlight woollen ſtuffs; but thoſe of Romartin are much more conſiderable. At Vendoſme the drapers, tanners and glovers ingroſs moſt of the trade of the place.

Military government of the Orleanois.

The governor-general of Orleans hath under him three lieutenant-generals; one for the Orleanois, a ſecond for the Pais Chartrain, and a third for the Blaſois.

The general lieutenancy of Orleans comprehends the dutchy of Orleans, the Dunois and Vendomois.

The general lieutenancy of the Pais Chartrain comprehends that diſtrict, and the greateſt part of the Gatinois.

The general lieutenancy of the Blaſois takes in the country of that name; and in this and every one of the other general lieutenancies there is a lieutenant deputed by the King.

The towns which have particular governors of their own, are Chartres, Montargis, Gien, Jargeau, Pluviers and Beaugency.

CHAP. XXIV.

Contains a deſcription of the general government of Nivernois.

CHAP. XXIV.

Nivernois. Situation, &c.

Soil.

Rivers.

Nivernois is bounded by the Gatinois on the north; by Burgundy on the eaſt; by the Bourbonois on the ſouth; and by Berry on the weſt; being almoſt of a round figure, and about twenty leagues over either way. It produces corn, wine and fruit, except in the diſtrict of Morvant, which is a mountainous country, where there grows ſcarce grain enough for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants. They have alſo large woods, ſome pit-coal, and abundance of iron mines. The country is watered with a great many rivers, of which three are navigable, viz. the Loire, the Allier and the Yonne. The Loire runs from ſouth to north along the weſtern borders of this country, receiving the Allier a league below Nevers. The Yonne riſes in the ſouth-eaſt part of the Nivernois, and running northward, paſſes by Clamecy, Auxerre and Sens, and falls into the Seine at Montereau-faut-Yonne, beginning to be navigable at Clamecy in this province, the other ſtreams only ſerve to render the country fruitful and pleaſant. The mineral waters taken notice of here, are thoſe of St. Pariſe and Pogues near Nevers, of which the latter are in the greateſt reputation.

Chief towns.

The Nivernois is uſually ſubdivided into eight parts, viz. 1. The Vaux de Nevers. 2. The Amognes. 3. The valleys of Montenoiſon. 4. The valleys of Yonne. 5. The Morvant. 6. The Bazois. 7. The country between the Loire and the Allier. And, 8. The Donziois. But it not being conſiſtent with a work of this nature, to enter into a particular deſcription of every little diſtrict and ſubdiviſion, I ſhall proceed to ſpecify the towns of this province, mention'd by the French writers, which are Nivers, La Charite, Chamlency, Montenoiſon, Premery Ville, Champalemand, Clamecy, Tannay, Domecy, Vezelay, Corbigny, Chateauchinon, Auroux, Moulins, Engilbert, Montruillon, Cercy, Deſize, St. Saulge, Chatillon, Luzy, St. Pierre le Moutier, la Ferte Chaderon, Donzy, Entrain, Dreve, St. Saviour, Corvon, Billy, Eſtaiz, Coſne ſur Loire; the chief of which is,

Nevers.

Nevers, *Nivernum*, *Noviodunum*, *Æduorum*, the capital of the Nivernois, built in the form of an amphitheatre upon the banks of the Loire, thirty leagues ſouth-eaſt of Orleans. Here is a ſtone bridge of twenty arches, between which and the building, is a large ſpace on the ſide of Moulins, which makes that part of the town look very magnificent, but the reſt of the ſtreets are narrow, and the ground uneven. The cathedral dedicated to St. CYR is a fine ſtructure; beſides which there are eleven parochial churches, and a great many religious houſes of both ſexes. It is computed there are about eight thouſand ſouls in the place. The French writers mention no other publick buildings but an old caſtle of the ancient Counts, which fronts a large ſquare, conſiſting of fine houſes, uniformly built. The fields about the town are exceeding pleaſant, particularly the publick walks in the adjoining park. The principal manufactures are thoſe of glaſs and earthen ware, in which they are ſaid to excel the reſt of the towns of this government, but do not deſerve a particular deſcription.

Trade and produce of Nivernois.

The trade of Nivernois conſiſts chiefly in corn, hemp, and wood; and in the diſtrict of Morvant, it is ſaid, they dig as much pit-coal annually as brought them in an hundred and twenty thouſand livres. Their iron and tin wares which they ſend abroad, amounts to three hundred and fifty thouſand livres, and their glaſs and earthen ware is computed to produce two hundred thouſand livres. Their manufacture of Cloth at Chateau-Chinon, ſays my French author, would be very conſiderable, were it not for the extreme poverty of the inhabitants, who are not able to purchaſe any great quantity of wool to work upon. Their manufactures of glaſs and earthen ware have been mentioned already; beſides which, they traffick pretty much in hogs and fiſh. This government ſupplies the King's magazines with iron for guns, bullets, anchors, grenades, and other warlike and naval ſtores

Military government of Nivernois

This province hath a governor-general, one lieutenant-general only, and one King's lieutenant,

CHAP. XXV.

Contains a deſcription of the general government of Bourbonois.

CHAP. XXV.

Bourbonois. Situation, &c.

THE Bourbonois is bounded by Nivernois on the north; by the duchy of Burgundy on the eaſt; by Auvergne on the ſouth; and by Marche and Berry on the weſt; being about thirty leagues in length, and twenty in breadth. It is generally a plain even country, and tolerably fruitful, chiefly in corn, and has ſome good paſtures for feeding of cattle. They have abundance of game, and a pretty many woods and lakes. Here grows alſo very good wine, but it will not bear exporting, and is therefore ſpent in the country. The air is for the moſt part temperate, except in that part of the country which borders upon the mountains of Auvergne, where it is ſometimes exceſſive cold, occaſioned by the ſnows that cover them, and the frequent ſtorms and tempeſts from that quarter, mixed with hail, which frequently deſtroy their harveſt; and the torrents of melted ſnow ſo ſwell the river Allier, ordinarily about the month of July, that the floods do very conſiderable damage to the towns and countries which lie upon the banks of that river.

Soil and face of the country.

Air.

Rivers.

The three principal rivers of this province, are the ſame that were mentioned in the preceding, beſides which there are a great many ſmall rivulets peculiar to the country; both the Loire and the Allier run from ſouth to north through this province, from whence they take their courſe into the Nivernois.

Mines and mineral waters.

There are no mines in the Bourbonois, unleſs ſome of pit-coal, which are inconſiderable; but ſcarce any country affords greater variety of mineral waters, as the mineral ſpring of Bardour near Moulins; the waters of Neris, a league from the town of Montlucon; of St. Pardeaux; of Tranliere; but the moſt celebrated are thoſe of Bourbon-Archambaud, and Vichy: thoſe of Bourbon-Archambaud are contained in three baſins, which have different ſources. Below theſe baſins or reſervoirs, is a great ſquare-bath, called the poors-bath, and two or three paces from thence, a houſe in which there are three vaulted ground-rooms for bathing; one appropriated for men, a ſecond for women, and the third is ſeldom uſed. The waters of the ſprings or baſins above mentioned are clear and limpid, and ſo hot that there is no bearing one's hand a moment in them without ſcalding. Theſe waters, it is ſaid, partake of an equal quantity of nitre and ſulphur, exactly mixed and incorporated, and are as good for drinking as bathing; and beſides theſe hot wells they have a cold one, of an iron taſte, which is ſuppoſed to contain ſome vitriol in it.

Baths.

Near Vichy are ſix mineral ſprings, of which, that in the greateſt reputation, is about three hundred paces from the town, called the grate-fountain, from its being incloſed with an iron grate; the water whereof is hot and limpid, and of a poignant taſte, and abounds with ſalt, mix'd with earth. Fifteen paces from this ſpring, is another leſs limpid, but hotter, called the Capuchins fountain, from its neighbourhood to a Capuchin cloyſter; this has more ſalt and leſs earth than the former. The King's houſe is between theſe two fountains, wherein are two baths, one of which receives its waters from the grate-fountain, and the other from the Capuchins: the ſalts they extract from all the ſix fountains are of the ſame nature, namely, nitrous ſalts.

Chief towns.

They reckon up two and twenty great towns in the Bourbonois, viz. Villeneuve, Moulins, Montlucon, Neris, Gannat, Bourbon-Archambaud, Vichy, Sovigny Billy, Varennes, St. Pourcain, Verneuil, Le Veurdre, Jaligny, La Palice, Hericon, Montmeraut, Gonſon, Huriel, Ville Franche, Le Montetaux, Moines, and St. Amand; the chief whereof are,

Moulins.

Moulins, *Molinæ*, the capital of the Bourbonois, ſituated in an agreeable fruitful plain, upon the river Allier, twelve leagues ſouth of Nevers, and ſixty-four ſouth of Paris, ſaid to have taken its name from the many mills in the neighbourhood. The palace built by the Princes of the houſe of Bourbon is much admired, and the town itſelf is one of the handſomeſt and moſt agreeable in France, but without wall or fortification, containing a great number of religious houſes; among which the Chartreuſe and the Nunnery called the Viſitation, are the moſt magnificent; the laſt was built by Madam DE MONTMORENCY, who retired hither after her huſband the laſt Duke of Montmorency was beheaded, in the year 1632, and died Superior of the convent, anno 1666. There are about eleven or twelve thouſand inhabitants in the place. Here are fine walks of elms along the banks of the Allier, which the French call the Courſe. There is ſcarce a great town in France without ſomething of this kind; but the neighbouring fields of Moulins in general are extremely pleaſant.

Montlucon.

Montlucon is ſituated on the river Cher, nine or ten leagues ſouth-weſt of Moulins; it ſtands on the ſide of a hill, which gently deſcends to the river, over which there is a ſtone-bridge that joins it to a ſuburb on the other ſide. It is ſurrounded with an antique wall and towers, which ſerve rather for ornament than defence, and contains about three thouſand ſouls. It is looked upon as the ſecond town of the Bourbonois.

Bourbon l'Archambaud.

Bourbon l'Archambaud is ſituated in a bottom, ſurrounded by four hills; on one of which is an old ſquare caſtle, ſuppoſed to be built by one of the Archambauds, ſovereigns of the country. The town ſtands about five leagues to the weſtward of Moulins; it is ſmall, containing only one pariſh-church and ſome chapels and convents, but it is neatly built and much reſorted to on account of its baths, and the walks about it are exceeding pleaſant.

Vichy.

Vichy is a little town ſituated on the river Allier, moſt remarkable for its mineral waters and baths, which, with thoſe of Bourbon, have been already deſcribed. This town lies about ten leagues ſouth of Moulins, and contains but one pariſh; it is in one of the pleaſanteſt countries in France, and has a pretty briſk trade occaſioned by the numbers of people of quality that reſort to the baths.

The ancient ſtate of the Bourbonois.

The Boii are generally held to be the ancient inhabitants of the Bourbonois, who, with their allies the Ædui, were ſubdued by the Romans. On the decline of that empire it underwent the fate of the other Gallick provinces, till at length it was governed by a Prince of its own, the firſt of whom, call'd AIMAR, liv'd about the year 921. The laſt male of this family was ARCHAMBAUD the IXth, who left only one daughter named AGNES, that married JOHN of Burgundy; the ſecond ſon of JOHN IV, Duke of Burgundy, of which marriage was born BEATRIX of Burgundy, the wife of ROBERT of France, Count of Clermont, from whom deſcended the preſent French King LEWIS, XV, of whoſe pedigree I ſhall give a larger account in the general hiſtory of France.

Trade of Bourbonois.

The trade of this country conſiſts in corn, wine, hemp, cattle, wood, fiſh and hard ware; and they vend of mineral waters only, it is computed, the value of an hundred and fifty thouſand livres per annum.

Military government.

The Bourbonois hath a governor and lieutenant-governor, beſides two of the King's lieutenants, one for the country between the Loire and Allier and the other for the towns of Bourbon, Montlucon, and the country to the left of the Allier.

CHAP. XXVI.

Treats of the general government of the Lyonois.

CHAP. XXVI.

Lyonois.

Situation, &c.

UNder the title of Lyonois it is not intended to deſcribe the ancient government of Lyonois, which comprehended great part of Gallia Celtica, but only the three ſmall diſtricts of Lyonois Proper, Le Forez and Beaujolois, which conſtitute the modern Lyonois, and are bounded by Burgundy on the north; by Dauphiné and la Breſſe on the eaſt; by the Vivarez on the ſouth, and by Auvergne and Velay on the weſt. Lyonois Proper is about twelve leagues in length and ſeven in breadth: Beaujolois is near the ſame extent; but Le Forez is ſomething larger than both of them.

Soil.

Rivers.

This country produces corn, wine and fruits, but abounds moſt in excellent cheſnuts, and is watered by three large rivers already mentioned, viz. the Rhone, the Saone and the Loire, which are a great advantage to its commerce; and beſides theſe there are abundance of other leſſer ſtreams and mineral waters, but the latter are not in ſuch reputation as thoſe of Bourbon.

Chief towns.

The chief towns of the Lyonois Proper are Lyons, Tartara, Breſſe, St. Chamond, Condieu and Ance.

Lyons.

Lyons, *Lugdunum*, is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers Rhone and Saone, ſeventy-five leagues almoſt ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and fourteen weſt of Savoy. It ſtands partly on the hills of Tornir and St. Sebaſtian, and partly along the banks of the above-mentioned rivers. The body of the town lies between the Rhone and Saone, and a conſiderable part of it on the weſtern ſhore of the Rhone, beſides which there are four ſuburbs, viz. that of Veize on the road to Paris; that of the Red Croſs on the ſide of Breſſe; that of Guillotiere towards Dauphiné; and that of St. Juſtus, or Irenæus, on the way to Mombriſon. That of Guillotiere, the moſt conſiderable, belongs to Dauphiné. The whole town conſiſts of eleven pariſhes, which are divided into thirty-five wards, containing ninety thouſand ſouls, which is a pretty large calculation, if there be but four thouſand houſes in the place, as the ſame French writers inform us, making above two and twenty people in every houſe. The ſeveral parts of the town have a communication by four bridges, one over the Rhone, and three over the Saone. The firſt is of ſtone, and conſiſts of twenty arches: but what ſeems particular in this and the Pont Eſprit, is, that it is not built in a right line, but has an angle in the middle, the convex part whereof ſtands oppoſite to the ſtream, and is thus the better enabled to reſiſt the violence of the current. It was alſo made ſo narrow at firſt, that not more than one carriage could paſs the bridge at a time, which they have remedied by joining another bridge to it of the ſame dimenſions as the former. One of the bridges over the Saone alſo is of ſtone, but it is the narroweſt and moſt inconvenient: the other two are of wood, and one of them looked upon as a very bold piece of workmanſhip, as it conſiſts but of one arch. The town hath ſix gates, and is about ſix miles in circumference.

The moſt eminent publick buildings are the cathedral church, formerly dedicated to St. STEPHEN, but now to St. JOHN. It is a large magnificent fabrick, and better enlightned than the Romiſh churches uſually are. The high altar ſtands in the middle of the choir, and the front was adorned with abundance of fine ſtatues and images, which the Calviniſts defaced during their religious wars.

The parochial and collegiate church of St. Nizier is little inferior to that of St. John's, the choir whereof is filled with fine paintings, containing the hiſtory of our Saviour.

The church of St. Irenæus is the moſt ancient, where they pretend to ſhew part of the pillar Chriſt was tied to when he was ſcourged.

The hoſpital of Charity, which ſtands on the ſquare of Lewis le Grand, is remarkable for its extent and the commodiouſneſs of the building.

The Jeſuits have two colleges in the town, the largeſt whereof is one of the moſt magnificent in the kingdom, and is dedicated to the moſt Holy Trinity. It conſiſts of the four firſt orders of architecture, of which the Tuſcan very naturally ſerves for the baſe: the Dorick order, with all its ornaments, is above that of the Tuſcan; the Ionick is the third, and the Corinthian crowns the whole. But as ſome parts of the work are higher than the reſt, in the moſt elevated they have added the ornaments of the Compoſite. And in every great town of the kingdom, it is obſerved the Jeſuits college makes one of the principal ornaments in it. Beſides theſe, there are abundance of other fine abbeys and convents at Lyons.

The ſquare of Bellecourt, which in the year 1713 changed its name for that of Lewis le Grand, on the erecting an equeſtrian ſtatue of that Prince in the middle of it, is of a vaſt extent, and ſurrounded by houſes, in the phraſe of my author, of admirable beauty. It is an oblong ſquare, one end whereof terminates at the river Saone, and the other at the river Rhone, near which are planted twelve walks of cheſnut-trees, which form an agreeable grove. The ſquare of Terreaux alſo hath its beauties, of which the abbey of St. Peter, and the Guildhall of the city, which ſtand upon it, are the greateſt ornaments. The laſt is one of the fineſt pieces of architecture of the kind in Europe. The paintings and ornaments within, are anſwerable to the building without; amongſt which, thoſe of the grand ſtair-caſe, where Lyons is repreſented in flames, are exquiſitely fine. The exchange is leſs admired for its magnificence, than for the numbers of merchants that aſſemble there, who, in the language of the French, manage all the commerce of that kingdom and of foreign countries. No doubt the trade of this place is very great. The ſituation at the confluence of thoſe great rivers the Rhone and Saone, and the neighbourhood of Italy and Switzerland, are ſuch advantages as ſcarce any other town in France enjoys. Next to Paris it is eſteemed a place of the greateſt trade of the kingdom, though ſome except Rouen. It is the See of an Archbiſhop, who is ſtiled Primate of Gaul. The civil government is adminiſtered by a provoſt of the merchants and four aldermen; but I perceive the King takes the liberty of altering their form of government as often as he pleaſes, and has done it not many years ſince.

It is a town of very great antiquity, tho' authors, as uſual, differ much about the original of it. Certain it is, that in the reign of AUGUSTUS it was enlarged and beautified, and the uſual ſeat of the Roman governor. AUGUSTUS reſided here ſome time, and CLAUDIUS CÆSAR was born here. It was entirely burnt down in NERO's reign, who contributed largely to the rebuilding it. SUETONIUS, in the life of CALIGULA, mentions an Athenæum, or publick ſchool here, wherein orators diſputed before an altar erected to AUGUSTUS CÆSAR, and the perſon who had the worſt of the argument, was obliged either to retract his opinion, or be tumbled headlong into the river. The abbey of Aiſnay was built on the ruins of this academy, and bears the name of *Monaſterium Athænecenſe*. Here are ſtill viſible the ruins of ſome Roman palaces; and of an ancient aqueduct: and every traveller mentions the tomb of the two lovers, erected on pillars near the gate of Veſe, which ſome ſuppoſe to belong to HEROD and HERODIAS, who, according to tradition, were ſtarved to death here: and others, that it was a monument erected to a married couple, who had made vows of perpetual virginity. There have been two general councils held at Lyons, the firſt in the year 1245, and the other in the year 1274.

Le Forez.

The diſtrict of le Forez was anciently called the country of the Seguſians, the chief towns whereof are Feurs, St. Eſtienne, St. Galmier, Montbriſon, Rouane, St. Rambert and St. Bonnet.

Chief towns.

St. Eſtienne.

St. Eſtienne is ſituated at the foot of a hill on the little river Furens, whoſe waters are ſaid to be very proper for the tempering iron and ſteel, in which manufactures the natives are very expert, and particularly in fire-arms.

Montbriſon.

Montbriſon is ſituated on a rivulet, thirty miles weſt of Lyons, eſteemed the capital of the country, and was the reſidence of their ancient Counts. It is ſtill a conſiderable town, conſiſting of ſeveral pariſhes beſides convents, the inhabitants computed to amount to between four and five thouſand.

Beaujolois.

The diſtrict of Beaujolois is a fruitful country; the chief towns whereof are Beaujeu, Ville Franche, Belle Ville and Lay.

Chief towns.

Ville Franche.

Ville Franche is ſituated on the Morgou, in a fine fruitful plain, five leagues to the northward of Lyons, and is at preſent the capital of Beaujolois, in which there is little that deſerves notice, unleſs it be the collegiate church.

The ancient ſtate of the Lyonois.

The Lyonois was part of the ancient Gallia Celtica, and afterwards of the kingdoms of Burgundy and Orleans. Their Archbiſhops had for ſome time the ſovereignty of it, or at leaſt diſputed it with their Counts, who pretended to the ſame dominion here as thoſe officers did in other parts of France, till it came at length to be re-united to the crown about three hundred years ago.

The trade of the Lyonois.

The trade of the Lyonois Proper, Le Forez and Beaujolois, conſiſts of cheſnuts, paper, hard ware, great guns, fire-arms, and all manner of utenſils of iron; but the commerce of the country, though very conſiderable, is a trifle compared with that of the city of Lyons, the merchants whereof have a great trade with Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Germany, England, Holland, the northern kingdoms, &c. Their commerce with Spain is carried on by the Italians, and particularly the Genoeſe, in which the Spaniards are but their factors and truſtees in reality; and it is obſerved, very rarely falſify the truſt repoſed in them. The merchants of Lyons ſend to Spain cloth, linen, ſuſtians, ſaffron, paper, and other ſmall articles: and import from thence wool, drugs for painting, dollars, ingots of gold and ſilver; which traffick, ſay the French writers, never flouriſhes to that degree as when France is at peace with Spain, and at war with England and Holland. They export from Lyons to Italy, cloth, linen, ſome ſilk-ſtuffs, gold and ſilver lace, haberdaſhery ware and alamodes: bringing back in return ſilks, velvets, damaſks, brocades, ſattins and taffeta's; with rice, which comes from Piedmont and the Milaneſe. It is computed that the merchandizes exported annually from Lyons to Italy, amount to ſix or ſeven millions of livres; and that thoſe imported from Italy thither, amount to ten millions; ſo that this commerce ſeems to be diſadvantageous to the French: but as they manufacture ſome ſpecies of goods brought from Italy, and export them again, it may not be detrimental in the main.

They ſend to Switzerland coarſe cloth, hats, ſaffron, wine, oil, ſoap, and haberdaſhery wares, which amount to about a million annually; in return for which, they receive cheeſe to the value of ſix hundred thouſand livres, and in linen the value of fifteen hundred thouſand livres; and in time of war they are furniſhed with horſes from thence, which amount to a very conſiderable ſum.

The great towns of Germany take off the ſame ſpecies of goods as thoſe of Switzerland, together with gold and ſilver ſtuffs, amounting to more than fifteen hundred thouſand livres per ann. for which the merchants at Lyons receive in return tin, copper and tin-plates, and the reſt in ſilver; ſo that this trade is very advantageous to them, unleſs upon the breaking out of a war, when the Germans, to whom the French always give credit for their goods, make no conſcience of running away with all the money they have in their hands belonging to the merchants of Lyons.

They export to Holland about the value of five hundred thouſand livres annually in taffeta's and gold and ſilver-ſtuffs: for which they receive double the value in cloth, thread, fine linen and ſpices; but the greateſt benefit the merchants of Lyons receive from the Dutch is by negotiating bills of exchange, both for natives and foreigners, which are frequently made payable at Amſterdam.

They export annually to England, according to their own account, the value of two or three millions in merchandize, for which they do not receive a fourth part in goods in return, and conſequently the reſt is paid in ſpecie. The merchandize they receive from England conſiſts in fine woollen cloth, ſerges, ſtockings, lead, tin, grocery and haberdaſhery wares, drugs for dying and Campechy wood, and ſometimes ſilk of the Levant, when it is ſcarce at Marſeilles.

They drive alſo a conſiderable trade with the other provinces of the kingdom; for example, they take off great quantities of oils and dried fruits of Provence; of the cloth, wine and brandy of Languedoc; of the ſaffron of Guienne; of the ſlight ſtuffs of Champagne; of the linen of Picardy, Maine, Normandy and Bretagne, and of the corn of Burgundy, &c.

Military government of the Lyonois.

Theſe three ſmall diſtricts of the Lyonois Proper, Le Forez and Beaujolois have but one governor-general, one lieutenant-general, and two of the King's lieutenants; one of whom commands in the Lyonois and Beaujolois, and the other in Forez. The city of Lyons is the only fortified place in this government, which has three forts for its defence;

ſence; the firſt called the Chateau de Pierre en ſcize, the ſecond the fort of St. John, and the third Fort St. Clare.

CHAP. XXVII.

Contains a deſcription of the general government of Auvergne.

CHAP. XXVII.

Auvergne. Situation, &c.

THE province of Auvergne is bounded by the Bourbonois on the north; by Le Forez on the eaſt; by Rovergne and the Cevennes on the ſouth; and by Quercy, Limoſin and La Marche on the weſt; extending forty leagues in length from north to ſouth, and thirty in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Auvergne. The lower, which is alſo called the Limagne, is one of the moſt beautiful and fruitful countries in the world; abounding in corn, wine, hemp, fruits, fine meadows which yield three crops annually, and arable lands ſo rich that they never lie fallow. Their fruits have a delicious taſte, and there are ſuch abundance of walnut-trees that they burn ſcarce any other wood. The mountains of the higher Auvergne are much leſs fruitful: however here they breed and fat great herds of cattle, and make abundance of good cheeſe.

The air.

The air of the Lower Auvergne is ſerene and warm; whereas that of the mountainous country of the higher Auvergne is exceſſive cold, being covered with ſnow eight months of the year, and ſubject to continual ſtorms.

Rivers.

The principal rivers of this country are the Allier and the Dordonne, of which the former runs from ſouth to north, and the latter from eaſt to weſt, and have been already deſcribed.

Mineral waters.

Here are a great many ſprings and mineral waters, of which the chief are thoſe of St. Myon, whoſe waters are called vinous and eager; and the waters and baths of Mont d'Or, which are both hot and cold, and proper either for drinking or bathing; the latter of which it is evident were known to the Romans by the ruins of the baths which are ſtill viſible. Theſe are not ſo hot as thoſe of Bourbon and Vichy, for a perſon may bathe in the very ſpring head.

Mountains

The higheſt mountains of Auvergne are, 1. thoſe of Le Pui de Dome, *Mons Dominans*, upon which the celebrated Mr. **PASCHAL** made his experiments of the weight of the air. This mountain is ſixteen hundred and twenty yards above the ſurface of the earth. 2. The mountain Cantal, which is nineteen hundred and ſixty yards high. And, 3. The Mont D'Or, which is two thouſand and ſixty yards above the ſurface of the lower grounds.

Chief towns.

The towns of the Lower Auvergne are Clermont, Montferrand, Riom, Volvic, Aigneperſe, Thiers, Ambert, Maringue, Pont du Chateau, Yſſoire, Saucilanges, Brioude, Uſſon, St. German Lambron, Auſon, Cuſlet, Ebreville, Billon, Ardes, Vic le Compte, Langeac, St. Amant, Hermant, Artonne, Corpiere, Beſſe, Montaign, Chambon and Evaux.

Clermont.

Clermont, *Nemoſſus*, *Auguſta Nemetum*, the capital of Auvergne, is ſituated on a little eminence, between the rivers Artier and Bedat, twenty-ſix leagues weſt of Lyons. The ſtreets are narrow and the houſes dark, but it is eſteemed a rich populous place. The cathedral is a vaſt ſtructure, and reſembles that of Notredame at Paris. The Jeſuits college is an elegant building, as is the hall belonging to the court of aids; and the Courſe or publick walks are finely painted.

Riom.

Riom ſtands two leagues north of Clermont, and is much admired for its beautiful ſituation and its elegant buildings. It is alſo the capital of a duchy, but I do not find it conſiderable on any other account.

St. Flour.

St. Flour, the capital of the Higher Auvergne, is ſituated on a ſteep rock, about twenty leagues ſouth of Clermont. Its being a Biſhop's See is the principal thing which makes it taken notice of.

Aurillac.

Aurillac, or Orillac, is ſituated in a valley on the little river Jordan, twelve leagues ſouth-weſt of St. Flour, and is one of the moſt populous and flouriſhing towns of Auvergne. It contains however but one pariſh, beſides an abbey and ſome convents.

The ancient ſtate of Auvergne.

The people of Auvergne made a great figure among the ancient Gauls, and pretended to be deſcended from the Trojans as well as the Romans. **CÆSAR** and **LIVY** mention ſeveral of their Kings, as **AMBIGATUS**, **LUERIUS**, **BITUITUS** and **VERCINGETORIX**, the laſt of whom is ſaid to have commanded four hundred thouſand men againſt **CÆSAR**. But then this muſt be underſtood of a general confederacy of the reſt of the Gauliſh Princes under **VERCINGETORIX**, and not of the natives only of this province, which now goes under the name of Auvergne. This Prince being defeated and carried to Rome about the year 702, from the building of that city, Auvergne became a Roman province, and made a part of Aquitania. Upon the fall of the Roman Empire it underwent the ſame fate as the reſt of the Gallick provinces, and like them came at length to be governed by its particular Count, and was reunited to the crown about three hundred years ſince.

Trade and produce of Auvergne.

Notwithſtanding the French boaſt that the province of Auvergne is exceeding fruitful, I find they ſpend moſt of their corn and wine in the country, and export very little. Hemp is one of the moſt conſiderable articles they ſend abroad, and of this they vend large quantities at Breſt, Rochefort, Havre, and other ports. Cattle and cheeſe are the chief articles of their trade in the lower Auvergne; and it ſeems there go a great many thouſand people out of this province annually to work in Spain, either as mechanicks or huſbandmen, by which they make their fortunes, and return into their own country in good circumſtances. Here are alſo ſome woollen manufactures, in which they make ſerges and other ſlight French ſtuffs, but I don't find they are very conſiderable. Thread-lace is another manufacture here; and they make alſo ſome cutlers ware, with which they traffick in Spain. They furniſh the neighbouring provinces with playing cards and excellent paper, but complain this manufacture is not encouraged. Of ſea-coal and timber they are ſaid to vend large quantities abroad: their coals are carried as far as Paris; and their timber, which conſiſts of oak and fir, is cut in their mountains, and ſent down the rivers in floats to the port-towns, and uſed in building of ſhips.

Military government.

The governor-general of Auvergne has under him two lieutenants-general, and two of the King's lieutenants, one for the higher and the other for the lower Auvergne. But there is not one fortified town in the whole government: thoſe that were there formerly were demoliſhed, that they might afford no ſhelter for the malecontents of this country, and the Cevennes their neighbours.

CHAP.

CHAP. XXVIII.

Contains a deſcription of the general government of Limouſin.

CHAP. XXVIII. Limouſin. The ſituation.

LImouſin is bounded by Marche and Poitou on the north; by Auvergne on the eaſt; by Quercy on the ſouth; and by Perigord and Angoumois on the weſt; being about five and twenty leagues in length from north to ſouth, and almoſt as many in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

The face of the country.

This province alſo is divided into the higher and lower, the firſt being mountainous and cold, and the other level, warm and pleaſant. The country is almoſt covered with woods of cheſnuts, which are the principal food of the inhabitants. Their arable lands are more fit for rye and buck-wheat than better grain. The wine of the higher Limouſin is ſcarce fit to drink, but that in the lower part of the country is better.

Rivers.

The principal rivers are the Vienne, the Vezere, the Coureze and the Dordonne.

The Vienne has its ſource between the confines of the lower Limouſin and Marche, and croſſing the north part of this country, paſſes by Limoges; after which, it takes its courſe north-weſt thro' Poitou.

The Vezere has its ſource not far from that of the Vienne, and taking its courſe ſouth-weſt, falls into the Dordonne, which runs from eaſt to weſt through this province.

Mines.

The French about the year 1703 diſcover'd ſome mines of lead, copper, tin and ſteel near Limoges; but not any of them, it ſeems, would turn to account, to their great mortification, who ſtand very much in need of thoſe metals.

Chief towns.

The chief towns in the Higher Limouſin are Limoges, St. Junien, St. Leonard, Pierre Buffiere, St. Irrier and Chalus. The chief towns in the Lower are Tulle, Brive, Uſerche, Uſſel, Bord, Neuvi and Turenne.

Limoges.

Limoges, *Vicus Ratiatenſis*, the capital of the province, is ſituated on the river Vienne, partly on a hill and partly in a valley, by the river ſide, thirty leagues weſt of Clermont. The town is about a league and half in circumference, but ill-built, and has not one fine publick place or ſquare in it. The houſes are generally of wood, ſmall and dark. The cathedral is a magnificent edifice, ſaid to be built by the Engliſh, to whom, my French authors obſerve, their people aſcribe moſt of their ancient ſtructures that have an appearance of grandeur and magnificence. A falſe opinion, ſay they, with which all our provinces ſeem to be infatuated; as if our own architects were not capable of erecting a fine building. Here are three abbeys and ſeveral convents in the place; but their writers do not give us a particular deſcription of them, or their other publick buildings.

Tulle.

Tulle, *Tutela Lemovicum*, the capital of the lower Limouſin, is ſituated in a bottom on the river Coureze, fifteen leagues ſouth of Limoges, being about half a league in circumference. It contains about twelve hundred houſes, and five thouſand people. It is the See of a Biſhop, who has the title of Viſcount of the place.

Brive la Gaillarde.

Brive la Gaillarde is ſituated near the confluence of the Coureze and Vezere, ſeventeen leagues ſouth of Limoges, and five weſt of Tulle, in a valley ſurrounded with little hills planted with vines and cheſnuts, being a moſt beautiful ſituation. It is the only fine town of the province: the houſes are elegantly built, and the walls about it exceeding pleaſant. One finds in this place all the pleaſures and conveniences of life. It contains about a thouſand houſes, and five thouſand ſouls.

CHAP. XXVIII. The ancient ſtate of Limouſin.

Limouſin was part of the ancient Aquitain, and followed the fortunes of that principality, being ſubdued by the Romans, Goths, Franks, &c. ELEANOR of Guienne brought this province with the reſt of her dominions to HENRY II. King of England, and the Engliſh held it about three hundred years with ſome interruptions from the French, who regained the entire poſſeſſion of it about the year 1429, in the reign of King HENRY VI. of England.

Trade and produce.

The trade of the Limouſin conſiſts chiefly in cattle, which they ſell to the neighbouring provinces, and ſend great droves of them as far as Paris. And though this country be at a great diſtance from any ſea-port, and upon that account ſhould ſeem very ill ſituated for traffick, yet we find it the center of trade between Paris and Thoulouſe, and between Lyons and Bourdeaux, particularly for leather, cloth and paper; and their iron ware and fire-arms are in good eſteem.

Military government.

The governor-general of this province has under him one lieutenant-governor, and two of the King's lieutenants, one for the higher, and the other for the lower Limouſin. But being an inland country, and at a great diſtance from the frontiers, there is not one fortified place in it.

CHAP. XXIX.

Contains a deſcription of the general government of Marche.

CHAP. XXIX. Marche. Situation, &c. Soil.

THE government of Marche is bounded by Berry on the north; by Auvergne on the eaſt; by Limouſin on the ſouth, and by Poitou on the weſt: being two and twenty leagues in length, and eight in breadth. It is divided into higher and lower, like Limouſin, and the ſoil and climate are much the ſame. There are vineyards about Bellac and Dorat, and the higher Marche yields corn.

Rivers.

The principal rivers are the Vienne, the Cher, the Creuſe and the Gartempe.

The Creuſe, ſo denominated for its depth, riſes in the ſouth-eaſt confines of this province, and taking its courſe north weſt to Berry, falls into the Vienne.

The Gartempe riſes at Gueret in this country, and taking its courſe through it from eaſt to weſt, afterwards turns about to the northward, and falls into the Creuſe.

Chief towns.

The province of Marche, as hath been obſerv'd, is uſually divided into the higher and lower. In the higher the chief towns are Gueret, Felletin, Jarnage, Aubuſſon, Ahun, Chenerailles. In the lower, Dorat and Bellac.

Gueret.

Gueret, *Varacticum*, ſituate near the head of the Gartempe, ten leagues north-eaſt of Limoges, is the capital of the country, and the place where their courts of juſtice are held; but the French writers give us no farther deſcription of it.

Aubuſſon.

Aubuſſon is ſituated in a bottom on the Creuſe, five leagues ſouth-eaſt of Gueret. It is a little town of an irregular figure, ſurrounded by rocks and mountains, but conſiderable on account of its woollen-manufacture.

Dorat.

Dorat is a little town ſituate near the Gartempe, ten leagues north-weſt of Limoges, containing about four hundred houſes.

The ancient ſtate of Marche.

This county of Marche, or the Marquiſate, is ſaid to have taken its name from its ſituation on the

Trade.

the marches or confines between the territories of France and thoſe of the Engliſh in Guienne and Poitou, and was poſſeſſed by one or the other as their arms met with ſucceſs. Their trade conſiſts chiefly in cattle, and in the woollen manufactures which are made at Aubuſſon and Felletin.

The military government.

It has one governor-general, one lieutenant-general, and two of the King's lieutenants, one for the higher and the other for the lower Marche. There is not one fortified place in the country.

CHAP. XXX.

Contains a deſcription of the general government of Berry.

CHAP. XXX.

The province of Berry. Situation, &c.

THE province of Berry is bounded by Sologne on the north; by the Nivernois and Bourbonois on the eaſt; by La Marche on the ſouth; and by Touraine on the weſt: extending thirty-ſix leagues in length from north to ſouth, and twenty in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Air and ſoil.

The air of this country is temperate, and the ſoil produces both corn and wine. Their wine in ſome places is not inferior to that of Burgundy, but in moſt is weak and ill-taſted. They abound in excellent fruits, and have good paſtures for ſheep, that are valued for the fineneſs of their wool. This Country alſo produces flax and hemp. They pretend to have ſome mines of ſiver and iron, but they are not wrought. Their ſtone-quarries on the contrary are of great advantage to them.

Rivers.

The chief rivers of Berry are the Creuſe, the Cher, the Indre, the Orron, the Evre, the Aurette, the Moulon, the Saudre, and the Nerre; moſt of which have been already deſcribed, and the reſt are but inconſiderable ſtreams. The lake of Villiers, which lies about ten leagues from Bourges, is ſeven or eight leagues in circumference.

Berry is divided into High and Low; the Higher extends eaſtward from the Cher to the Loire; and the Lower is incloſed between the Cher and the Creuſe.

Chief towns.

The chief towns in the higher Berry are Bourges, Dun-le-Roy, Chateauneuf, Mehun, Vierzon, Argens, Catillon ſur Loire, Aubigni, Concourſault, La Chapelle-dam-Gilon, Les Aix-dam-Gilon, Henrichemont, Sancerre and Montfaucon.

Bourges.

Bourges, *Avaricum Biturigum*, the capital of Berry, and the See of and Archbiſhop, is ſituated on a hill between the rivers Evre and Orron, to the banks of which it gradually deſcends; thirty-five leagues ſouth of Paris, and ſeventeen almoſt ſouth-eaſt of Orleans. The two rivers above-mentioned encompaſs it on every ſide, except on that next the gate of Bourbonnoux. It is a large ſpacious town, containing ſixteen pariſhes, but has nevertheleſs ſeveral void ſpaces within its walls, and the reſt is not well peopled. We meet with a great many eccleſiaſticks, gentlemen and ſcholars here; and it is computed there are in all about fifteen thouſand ſouls, but not many of them tradeſmen, the place having no other commerce than what is neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants. It is the privilege of Nobility which LEWIS XI. granted to the Mayor and Aldermen of this city, which occaſioned ſuch numbers of gentlemen reſorting hither, and is the mother of that indolence for trade which is ſo conſpicuous in the inhabitants. The cathedral church, dedicated to St. STEPHEN, is the fineſt Gothick building (ſays my French author) that I have ever ſeen, and is ſituated in the higheſt part of the town.

The palace built by Prince JOHN of France, Dnke of Berry, is a magnificent edifice; in one part whereof called the King's Apartment, the governor reſides, and the other is taken up by their courts of juſtice. The great hall in the latter is eſteemed one of the largeſt and fineſt in the kingdom; it hath no pillars to ſupport it. Here the States of the province have their ſeſſions; and here it was CHARLES VII. aſſembled the clergy of France, and eſtabliſhed the Pragmatick Sanction. The town-houſe erected by JAQUES COEUR is one of the moſt elegant buildings that ever was undertaken by a private man, which was purchaſed by the celebrated COLBERT, prime miniſter of France, and given to the corporation of this city.

The ſquare of Bourbon is the largeſt in Bourges, where anciently ſtood a Roman amphitheatre; the publick walks and the malls, without which no great town in France is thought to be compleat, are much admired by the French writers; but a long deſcription of their various beauties is ſcarce conſiſtent with a work of this nature. The great number of religious houſes are another conſiderable ornament to the place. CÆSAR took Bourges by ſtorm, and deſtroyed near forty thouſand of the natives, on account of ſome cruelties they had exerciſed on the Roman ſoldiers that had fallen into their hands. CHARLES VII. of France made this the place of his reſidence, when the Engliſh were maſters of almoſt all the reſt of the kingdom in the fifteenth century; which occaſioned his being called King of Berry in deriſion by the Engliſh. It is at preſent a Biſhop's See and Univerſity, inſtituted chiefly for the ſtudy of the law.

Yſſoudun.

Yſſoudun is ſituated on the little river Theol, eight leagues ſouth-weſt of Bourges. It is a large town, containing the parochial and collegiate church of St. DENNIS and others, ſeveral pariſhes and convents, and about ten thouſand inhabitants. The moſt remarkable thing in it is the caſtle, which commands the town; within the walls whereof are an antique tower, and the abbey of Notredame.

The ancient ſtate of Berry.

At the time when ancient Rome was governed by Kings, Gallia Celtica had theirs, and the citizens of Bourges elected a ſovereign from among themſelves. This form of Government continued till JULIUS CÆSAR ſubdued the Gauls, and took Bourges by ſtorm. The dominions of the Romans laſted till the year 475, and then this city fell into the hands of the Viſigoths, who were afterwards conquered by CLOVIS. Berry was governed by the Franks, as it had been by the Romans and Goths; namely by Counts, who at length obtained an hereditary dominion. Thoſe of this province were ſtiled Counts of Bourges, as thoſe of Landguedoc were Counts of Thoulouſe. BOLLON or OLLON, is the moſt ancient of theſe Counts upon record. To theſe Counts ſucceeded Viſcounts, of whom Berry had one for about an hundred and ſeventy years, reckoning from GEOFREY, who lived about 917, to EUDES, who ſold this province to PHILIP I. of France in 1100, when it was united to the crown. It afterwards became an appenage of ſome of the Princes of the blood, and was not long ſince the title of the Dauphin's third ſon, called Duke of Berry.

Trade and produce of Berry.

The trade of Berry conſiſts chiefly in the ſale of cattle and ſheep; the latter alſo furniſh their manufacture with wool, wherewith they make coarſe cloths, ſerges and ſtockings. They ſell alſo great quantities of hemp that grows in the country; but make no linen. The diſtricts of Chateau-roux and Blanc are as barren as any parts of France, and that of Chatre is no leſs fruitful. In ſome places their wine is not fit to drink; and in others they pretend it equals Burgundy: but in general, I find this country is not conſiderable, either for its commerce or the produce of its ſoil.

Military government.

Berry hath a governor-general, a lieutenant-general, and two lieutenants of the King's. There is not one fortified town in the country.

CHAP. XXXI.

Treats of the general government of Touraine.

CHAP XXXI. Touraine. Situation, &c.

Air and ſoil.

Rivers.

THIS province, which takes its name from an ancient people called Turones, lies upon the Loire, and is bounded by Maine and Beauſſe towards the north; by the Blaſois and Berry on the eaſt; and by Poitou and Anjou on the ſouth and weſt; being about four and twenty leagues in length from north to ſouth, and two and twenty in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The air is temperate, and the country generally pleaſant and fruitful; inſomuch that ſome have given it the title of, The Garden of France. The moſt conſiderable foreſts are thoſe of Amboiſe, Loches and Chinon. It is watered with abundance of rivers; of which, the chief are the Loire, the Cher, the Vienne, the Indre, the Creuſe, the Vendre, the Amaſſe, the Bren, the Choiſille, the Braule, and the Ciſſe; moſt of which run from eaſt to weſt through this country, and have been already deſcribed.

Chief towns.

The chief towns are Tours, Langeai, Chateau-Regnaud, Amboiſe, Mont-Trichard, Loches, Chinon.

Tours.

Tours, *Cæſarodunum, Civitas Turonum*, is ſituated in a plain on the ſouth-ſide of the Loire, between that river and the Cher; thirty-ſix leagues ſouth-weſt of Pans, and fifteen ſouth-weſt of Orleans. It is built of fine white ſtone; the ſtreets ſpacious and extremely clean, occaſioned by ſeveral rivulets, which form ſix publick fountains. The cathedral dedicated to St. GATIEN has nothing remarkable in it; but there is another church dedicated to St. MARTIN, who is the favourite Saint of the place, and by whom they pretend many miracles have been wrought, that is one of the largeſt ſtructures in the kingdom. The key upon the river is the moſt beautiful part of the town, and their mall, which is a thouſand paces in length, paſſes for one of the fineſt in France. There are alſo abundance of handſom convents in the place, and the royal palace built by LEWIS XI. with the park and gardens, are well worth the viewing. One of their gates goes by the name of Hugon, in memory, as it is ſaid, of one HUGON a very wicked Prince, once Earl of Tours, whom the ſuperſtitious will have to walk the ſtreets at midnight to terrify the inhabitants; and that the Proteſtants were firſt called Hugonots, from their walking and aſſembling near this gate in the night-time: though ſome of the French Proteſtants tell us, it was for their adhering to the preſent royal family, who deſcended from HUGH CAPET, that they obtained the name of Hugonots; the other faction ſetting up the Duke of Guiſe, who deſcended from CHARLEMAIN. Tours is the See of an Archbiſhop, as well as the capital of a duchy, and has had the honour of ſeeing the States of the kingdom ſeveral times aſſembled here, particularly by LEWIS XI, anno 1470; by CHARLES VIII, in 1484; and by LEWIS XII, in 1506.

CHAP. XXXI. Amboiſe.

Amboiſe, *Ambacia*, is ſituated at the confluence of the Amaſſe and the Loire five leagues to the eaſtward of Tours. This town is not large, conſiſting only of two pariſhes and two ſtreets; but has a fine caſtle, which is a great ornament to it. Here they pretended to ſhew the horns of a ſtag of a prodigious ſize, which being examined by the preſent King of Spain, and his brothers the Dukes of Burgundy and Berry, in their paſſage to Spain; they diſcovered them to be the work of ſome artiſt, and not natural. LEWIS XI inſtituted the order of St. MICHAEL in this caſtle anno 1469. There is little elſe, that deſerves notice here unleſs the Courſe or publick walks, which the French writers obſerve are very fine, as they do of thoſe of every other town.

Chinon.

Chinon, *Caſtrum Chinonis*, is ſituated on the Vienne, ten leagues ſouth-weſt of Tours. It conſiſts of four pariſhes and fifteen religious houſes, containing about a thouſand families. It was remarkable formerly for the reſidence of CHARLES VII. and the firſt publick appearance of JOAN of Arc, or the Maid of Orleans, before him, which gave ſuch a turn to the affairs of France, when they were looked upon as deſperate. The famous RABELAIS was a native of this town.

The ancient ſtate of it.

Touraine underwent the ſame fate as the reſt of the Gallick provinces, and was, like them, at length governed by its proper Count. In the year 1044, it was conquered by GEOFREY MARTEL Earl of Anjou, and paſſed to his deſcendants Earls of Anjou, and Kings of England, who held it till they loſt their other territories on that ſide the water.

The trade of Touraine and the reſt of France dwindled to nothing through the oppreſſion of the government.

The principal manufactures of this province were thoſe of cloth, leather and ſilk; of which the ſilk, though the laſt eſtabliſhed, is the moſt conſiderable. As to the woollen manufacture, it is at preſent ſcarce followed any where but at Amboiſe, and here they only make ſlight French ſtuffs. That of leather alſo is ſunk to nothing; and the ſilk, which in the time of Cardinal RICHELIEU, employed above twenty thouſand weavers in the city of Tours only, ſcarce employs ſixty at this time: which loſs of their trade the French aſcribe to ſeveral cauſes: as firſt, their ſmall foreign traffick. 2. Their expelling ſuch numbers of workmen out of the kingdom. 3. The obliging the merchants of Tours to buy their Silk at Lyons. And, 4. The wearing calicoes and Indian ſilks. This, ſays my author, has deſtroyed the commerce of Touraine, which anciently brought them in more than ten millions of livres annually.

Military government of Touraine.

This province has a governor-general, a lieutenant-general, and a King's lieutenant. Beſides which have their particular governors, as the towns of Amboiſe, Beaulieu and Chinon.

CHAP. XXXII.

Contains a deſcripttion of the general government of Anjou.

CHAP. XXXII. Anjou. Situation, &c.

THE province of Anjou is bounded by Le Maine on the north; by Touraine on the eaſt; by Poitou on the ſouth; and by Bretagne on the weſt: extending twenty-ſix leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and four and twenty in breadth from north to ſouth.

Air and face of the country.

The air is temperate, and the country agreeably diverſified with hills and plains, but rather level than mountainous, except on the banks of the Loire, and in ſome parts of Mauges; and it is computed there are thirty-three foreſts all of oak and beech in it.

Soil.

The ſoil produces white wines, wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, flax, hemp, nuts, cheſnuts, and all manner of fruits: and their paſtures feed great numbers of cattle and ſheep, which are the greateſt riches of the province. Here are alſo coal-pits, quarries of marble, and ſome iron-mines.

Rivers.

The chief rivers are the Loire, which divides Anjou almoſt in two equal parts; the Vienne, the Toue, which runs from ſouth to north, and falls into the Loire at Saumur, the little Loire, the Sarte and the Maine; all which run from north to ſouth, and unite their ſtreams at Angers, and a little after fall into the Loire. Beſides which, there are abundance of other leſſer ſtreams that render the roads impaſſable ſometimes for want of bridges.

Chief towns.

The chief towns are Angiers, Chateaugontier, La Fleche, Le Pont de Se, Chateau-Ceaus, Dove, Craon, Montforeau, and Montrevil-Bellay.

Angiers.

Angiers, *Inliomagus Andigavorum*, the capital of Anjou, is ſituated a little above the place where the little Loire, and the Sarte fall into the Maine, the laſt of which rivers divides the town into almoſt two equal parts: it lies fifteen leagues almoſt eaſt of Nants, and about fifty-three ſouth-weſt of Paris. It was firſt encloſed with a wall by JOHN King of England, which was demoliſhed by LEWIS VIII. St. LEWIS his ſon rebuilt the wall in the manner we ſee it at this day. The town contains nine thouſand houſes, and about thirty-ſix thouſand inhabitants, which are divided into ſixteen pariſhes, twelve within the walls and four in the ſuburbs. Beſides the pariſh-churches, there are eight collegiate, and a great number of convents. The cathedral church is a noble ſtructure, the roof high and broad, and yet is not ſuſtained by one pillar. The choir is alſo very fine, and its three lofty ſteeples are much admired for their architecture. Part of the town is pleaſantly ſituated on the ſide of a hill, and the reſt in a bottom. The caſtle ſtands on a ſteep rock and commands the whole, being flank'd with antique round towers, which at preſent ſerve rather for ornament than defence. In this town is annually a great proceſſion of all the clergy and inhabitants, to ſhew their deteſtation of the errors of their Archdeacon BERENGENUS, who in the year 1019 preached againſt their doctrine of tranſubſtantiation; which opinion however they ſay he adjured afterwards at Rome before Pope GREGORY VII. They pretend to ſhew here one of the pots which held the water that our Saviour turned into wine at the marriage in Cana. This city is the capital of a dutchy, a Biſhop's See, and a univerſity chiefly for the ſtudy of the law; and LEWIS XIV eſtabliſhed an academy here in 1685, upon the ſame foot with that of the royal academy at Paris. The fathers of the oratory alſo have a college here, wherein they inſtruct their diſciples in divinity and philoſophy, as in other great towns of France.

Chateau-gontier.

Chateaugontier is ſituated on the Maine, ſeven leagues north of Angiers. It is divided into two parts by the river, and conſiſts of three pariſhes, fourteen hundred houſes, and five or ſix thouſand ſouls. Beſides the pariſh-churches it hath a collegiate church and ſeveral monaſteries.

La Fleche.

La Fleche, *Flecchia Caſtrum*, is pleaſantly ſituated in a beautiful plain on the little Loire, eight leagues north-eaſt of Angiers. It conſiſts of one pariſh, but contains however ſix thouſand inhabitants. HENRY IV, who was born here, enlarged and beautified it: he converted his caſtle or palace, which was very ſpacious, into a college for the Jeſuits; and his heart lies buried under the ſteps of the altar. The palace of the late Marquis of Vavenne, a favourite of HENRY IV, is at preſent the greateſt ornament of the town; the garden and water-works are ſuitable to the magnificence of the building. Among the illuſtrious perſons who have been educated in the Jeſuits college at La Fleche, the celebrated DESCARTES is one.

Pont de Se.

Pont de Se ſtands about a league and half to the eaſtward of Angiers upon the river Loire, which having broken its banks looks like a ſea at this place, and is moſt conſiderable for its ſtone bridge, ſaid to be a thouſand paces long, and one of the moſt important paſſes on that river. The town conſiſts of about four hundred houſes, and has a caſtle for its defence, or rather ornament.

Doue.

Doue or Doe, *Theotuadum Caſtellum*, is ſituated half a league to the ſouthward of the Loire, containing about four hundred houſes, moſt remarkable for an amphitheatre cut out of a rock ſixteen hundred feet in circumference, and capable of holding fifteen thouſand people; which ſome are of opinion was the work of the ancient Romans, and others of the French. In this town alſo is one of the fineſt fountains in France.

The ancient ſtate of Anjou.

Anjou, like other parts of Gaul, was conquer'd by CÆSAR; and on the decline of the Roman empire underwent the ſame revolutions as the neighbouring provinces, till it came to be govern'd by Counts of its own, of whom GEOFREY III, ſurnamed PLANTAGENET, married MAUD the Empreſs, daughter and heireſs of HENRY I, King of England, by whom he had iſſue HENRY II, who inherited both England and Anjou. This Prince left three ſons, viz. RICHARD, GEOFREY and JOHN. RICHARD ſucceeded him, who leaving no iſſue, and his ſecond brother GEOFREY being dead and leaving one ſon named ARTHUR, this Prince ought to have inherited both England and Anjou; but his uncle JOHN, his father's younger brother, uſurped his dominions and murdered ARTHUR. Whereupon the French King cited JOHN the uſurper before the Peers of France; and on his not appearing, adjudged him guilty of felony and murder; for which it was pretended all his French dominions were forfeited, and accordingly the French King ſeized Anjou and Normandy, and moſt of the territories the Engliſh had in France about the year 1202, except Guienne and Gaſcony, which the Engliſh remained poſſeſs'd of till (the reign of HENRY VI,) about the middle of the fifteenth century. Anjou was afterwards an appanage of ſome of the blood royal of France, and lately gave a title to the Dauphin's ſecond ſon, the preſent King of Spain.

Trade and produce of Anjou.

The trade and produce of Anjou conſiſts in white wines, cattle, corn, freſh-water fiſh, hemp, flax, thread, linen, ſlight woollen ſtuffs, dried ſweetmeats, game, ſaltpetre, brandy, vinegar, prunes, honey, refined ſugar and white wax.

Military government.

Anjou has a governor-general, a lieutenant-general, and two of the King's lieutenants; beſides which, there are particular governors in La Fleche, Beaufort, Chateaugontier and Bauge.

CHAP. XXXIII.

Contains a deſcription of the government of Saumur.

CHAP. XXXIII.

The government of Saumur

ALthough Saumur be really in Anjou, it is nevertheleſs made a ſeparate government, and comprehends part of Anjou which lies ſouth of the Loire, and a part of the higher Poitou. The chief towns whereof are Saumur, Richelieu and Mirebeau.

Saumur city.

Samur, *Salons Murus*, and *Salmurum*, is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Loire, ſeven or eight leagues to the eaſtward of Angiers. It is ſaid to be called *Murus* from a rock under which it ſtands, that reſembles a wall. The caſtle and fortifications might render it a ſtrong place in the laſt age, but rather ſerve for ornament than defence at preſent. This was one of the cautionary towns given the Proteſtants, and here they had an academy, where JOHN CAMERON the Scot, whoſe diſciples from him were called Cameronians, and many other celebrated ſaints of that claſs receiv'd their education; but being ſuppreſſed by LEWIS XIV, in the year 1684, and a liberty of their religion denied them, moſt of the inhabitants left their country. The three pariſhes do not contain above five or ſix thouſand ſouls, tho' before the perſecution they conſiſted of twice the number. The principal manufactures of Saumur are the refining of ſugar, and thoſe of hard ware and toys.

Military government of Saumur.

This little government has its governor-general, lieutenant-governor, and King's lieutenant, independent of the governor of Anjou. Rhichelieu and Mirebeau have their particular governors, which towns have been already mentioned in Poitou.

French Flanders, Dunkirk, Metz, &c. and Alſace deſcribed elſewhere.

The towns in the government of French Flanders have been already deſcrib'd in treating of the Low Countries: as has the town of Dunkirk, which makes a diſtinct government in the French plan. The towns alſo in the government of Metz, Toul and Verdun, and thoſe of Alſace having been already treated of in the deſcription of Germany, are omitted here.

CHAP. XXXIV.

Contains an abſtract of the ancient hiſtory of France; together with the modern hiſtory of that kingdom.

An abſtract of their ancient hiſtory

THE limits of the ancient Gaul were far more extenſive than thoſe of the preſent kingdom of France; comprehending on one ſide all the north part of Italy, namely, the territories of the King of Sardinia, of the republick of Genoa, and Lombardy: and on the other, the Low Countries, and all that part of Germany which lies to the weſtward of the Rhine. That part of Gaul which lay to the eaſtward of the Alps was by the Romans called *Gallia Ciſalpina*, on acount of its ſituation in reſpect of Rome; and that part of Gaul to the weſtward of the Alps was for the like reaſon denominated *Gallia Tranſalpina*. It is the latter of theſe that is the ſubject of the preſent hiſtory, and even part of this is diſmembered from modern France.

The Gauls

The firſt account we have of the Gauls which can be relied on, is from the Romans: it ſeems they were a brave people, had ſtormed even Rome it ſelf, and were very near putting a period to that aſpiring republick. Nor did the Romans think fit to attempt the conqueſt of them till they had reduced moſt of the other powers in the then known world under their dominion. FULVIUS FLACCUS the conſul, about an hundred and thirty years before our Saviour, firſt invaded the Tranſalpine Gauls, and five years afterwards FABIUS MAXIMUS reduced *Gallia Narbonenſis* into the form of a Roman province. CÆSAR, after a ten years war, brought all the powers of Tranſalpine Gaul under the dominion of the Romans about 48 years before Chriſt. He found the whole country divided into three principal parts, the firſt of which was inhabited by the Celtæ, the ſecond by the Aquitains, and the third by the Belgæ. The Celtæ were the moſt conſiderable, their country extending from the Alps to the Britiſh channel. To the weſt of them lay the Aquitains, bordering on the Ocean and the Pyrenees; and to the north-eaſt the Belgæ, who inhabited Picardy, Champagne, the Low Countries, and that part of Germany which lies to the weſtward of the Rhine. Theſe great nations were again ſubdivided into a multitude of little principalities or ſtates, who frequently united under ſome one head for their common defence againſt the Roman arms; of whom CÆSAR mentions between ſixty and ſeventy: every great town and community he ſpeaks of frequently as a diſtinct nation: as the Allobroges, the people of Savoy and Dauphiné; the Seguſini, the inhabitants of the city of Seguſium and the diſtrict belonging to it; the Datii, the inhabitants of the city of Dax and its territory; the Gabali, the people of Gevaudan; the Sueſſiones, the inhabitants of Soiſſons and its diſtrict, &c.

Conquered by Cæſar.

The three principal nations of them.

Their language.

The learned are not entirely agreed about the language of the Gauls, or their manners; according to CÆSAR, the Celtæ, Aquitani, and Belgæ had very little reſemblance in either: while SIDONIUS is of opinion that their language was the ſame, and they had only different dialects. Their religion alſo is variouſly repreſented by theſe Roman authors: TULLY affirms they had none, while CÆSAR and LIVY ſay they worſhip'd a multitude of Gods; that the chief of them were MERCURY, whom they called Teutates; and JUPITER, whom they named Taranis or the Thunderer. They thought him beſt repreſented by the talleſt oaks, the nobleſt productions of nature; for I don't perceive they had any images, which might occaſion ſome of the Romans to apprehend they had no Gods. Their prieſts were the Druids, and as the myſteries of their religion as well as their morals and hiſtory were taught in ſongs; it was by the Bards, an inferior order of Druids, that their diſciples were inſtructed. Their Vates or Eubages ſacrificed animals, and foretold, or pretended to tell, future events by the diſpoſition of their entrails; and ſome relate that upon extraordinary occaſions they ſacrificed men, to which I do not give entire credit; but if they did, it is no more than their politer neighbours the Romans did before them.

Religion.

The term Druid is ſaid to be derived from the Celtick word Deru, which ſignified an oak: the miſletoe, which grew about the oak, was deemed ſacred as well as the tree, and directions were given as to the time and manner of gathering it. The Druids ſeem to have preſided in civil as well as religious matters; inſomuch that a malefactor could not be executed but by their approbation; and the chief of the Druids, or the high prieſts, had an uncommon veneration paid him. A late French writer has pretended to collect ſome of the ſacred rules and maxims given by the Druids to their diſciples; and as they are agreeable to what we find in other authors, I ſhall take the liberty to recite the principal of them, though I will not vouch for their being genuine.

1. They directed that none ſhould be inſtructed in the myſteries of their religion but in the ſacred groves.

2. That miſletoe be gathered with reverence in the ſixth moon, and cut with a golden bill.

3. That care be taken in the education of children, who are to be taught that every thing is derived from heaven.

4. That the Arcana of their religion and ſciences be not committed to writing, but to memory.

5. They taught that the ſoul is immortal, and after death goes into ſome other body.

6. That the world will be deſtroyed by fire or water.

7. That upon extraordinary emergencies men are to be ſacrificed; and as the body falls, or moves after it is fallen, and as the blood flows from the wound, future events may be foretold.

8. That priſoners of war are to be ſacrificed on their altars.

9. That they who kill themſelves to attend their friends in the next world, will enjoy their converſation there.

10. That the diſobedient be outlawed and excluded the ſociety of men.

11. That the heads of families have ſovereign power in their own houſes, and may put their wives, their children, and ſervants to death.

As to the government of the Gauls, they were divided into a multitude of little principalities and ſtates, as has been obſerved already; every one of which had their captain or leader, who judged their affairs at home, and commanded their armies in the field; which officer or magiſtrate Livy properly enough ſtiles their King, while others are very angry with him for giving him this title; becauſe, ſay they, he was elective, and might be reſtrained in his power by the people, and even depoſed for male-adminiſtration. But what the prerogatives of theſe Princes were, or what the privileges of their people, no one ſure will be ſo arrogant to deſcribe particularly at this day. What ſeems probable is, that in ſome of theſe ſtates, the power of the Prince was more limited than in others; and perhaps in ſome he was under no limitations at all; as we find it is in ſeveral countries at this day, where there are a variety of little kingdoms and ſtates.

Habits.

The cloathing of the Gauls ſeems to differ according to their ſituation: thoſe who lived on the eaſtern ſide the Alps next the Romans were diſtinguiſhed by the term *Togata*, as they wore gowns like the Romans; and next to them the inhabitants of Savoy, Dauphiné, and Languedoc were ſometimes called *Bracata*, from their covering their loins, or wearing ſomething in imitation of breeches. The Celtæ alſo were called *Comata*, from their wearing long hair; but I queſtion whether they were much better cloathed than the Britons, becauſe the reſt of the Gauls who lay nearer the Romans, ſeemed to be diſtinguiſhed from them by their being cloathed.

Houſes.

Fortifications.

Diet.

Their houſes were no better than round huts covered with ſtraw, which they uſually built in the woods, or on the banks of rivers; and their beds were the ſkins of beaſts. Their fortifications conſiſted of little more than trees cut down and formed into a kind of wall with a trench about them. They eat bread and fleſh, chiefly that which was taken in hunting; and thoſe that bordered on Italy drank their wines: but I don't find there was any wine made in France when Julius Cæsar came amongſt them, though in ſome places they had malt liquors.

Gaul divided into provinces.

Augustus Cæsar having reſtored peace to the empire, viſited Gaul, which he divided into four provinces, viz. 1. *Gallia Narbonenſis*, ſo denominated from the city of Narbon in Languedoc, which comprehended Languedoc, Provence, Dauphiné, and part of Savoy. 2. *Aquitanica*, ſo called from it's capital the city of *Aquæ Auguſtæ*, now Acqu's in Guienne. It contained Guienne, Gaſcony, Querci, Xantoigne, Poitou, Perigort, Limouſin, Auvergne, Bourbonois, and Berry; extending from the Pyrenees to the river Loire. 3. *Celtica*, to which he gave the name of *Lugdunenſis*, from it's capital Lugdunum, now Lyons; which comprehended the Lyonois and Orleanois in their largeſt dimenſions, Tournois, Burgundy, part of Champagne, the iſle of France, Britany, and Normandy. 4. *Belgica*, ſo named from the Belgæ, which contained all the north-eaſt part of Gaul, viz. Picardy, the reſidue of Champagne, Franche Comte, the Netherlands, and all that part of Germany which lies to the weſtward of the Rhine. Constantine afterwards divided Gaul into ſeventeen provinces or governments, viz.

Provinces.	Capital cities.
1. *Narbonenſis Prima*	Narbonne in Languedoc.
2. ——— *Secunda*	Aix in Provence.
3. *Viennenſis*	Vienne in Dauphiné
4. *Alpes Graiæ & Peninæ*	Monſtriers in Savoy.
5. *Alpes Maritimæ*	Ambrun in Dauphiné.
6. *Lugdunenſis Prima*	Lyons.
7. ——— *Secunda*	Roan in Normandy.
8. ——— *Tertia*	Tours.
9. ——— *Quarta*	Sens in Champagne.
10. *Sequania*	Beſançon in Franc. Comte
11. *Aquitania Prima*	Bourges in Berry.
12. ——— *Secunda*	Bourdeaux.
13. *Novem Populania*	Aux in Gaſcony.
14. *Germania Prima*	Mentz.
15. ——— *Secunda*	Cologne.
16. *Belgica Prima*	Triers.
17. ——— *Secunda*	Rheims.

The Romans having introduced their laws and cuſtoms, and civilized this people, continued to govern them about five hundred years. But in the reign of the Emperor Honorius, the Goths having firſt ravaged Italy, ſettled themſelves there, and in France and Spain. The Burgundians and ſeveral other northern people followed their ſteps, till at length the Franks, a German nation, ſubdued or drove theſe powers out of Gaul, giving their name to the country, which it has ever ſince retained. This great event the generality of the French hiſtorians compute to have happened about the year of our Lord 420. Since that time the crown of France has been enjoyed by three ſeveral families, *viz.* the Merovignian, the Carolovignian, and the Capetine. Merovee, from whom the firſt line is denominated, according to moſt of their writers, was their third King, and Pharamond the firſt; but the judicious Father Daniel juſtly rejects the hiſtory of their four firſt Kings, and ſeems to me to have made it very evident, that Clovis was the firſt King of the Franks who reigned in France; and that he founded this monarchy about the year 486, which is ſixty-ſix years after the common account. But I ſhall firſt preſent the reader with the ordinary tables of their ſeveral Kings reigns, and then make my remarks on ſuch of them as moſt require our attention.

The firſt line of their Kings.

A Chronological Table of the Kings of France.

The Merovignian line.

Kings.	A. D.
1. Pharamond	418
2. Clodion	428
3. Merovee	448
4. Childerick	458
5. Clovis	481
6. Childebert	511
7. Clotaire	558
8. Charibert	561
9. Chilperick	570
10. Clotaire II.	584
11. Dagobert	629
12. Clovis II.	638
13. Clotaire III.	655
14. Childerick II.	670
15. Thierry	674
16. Clovis III.	691
17. Childebert II.	695
18. Dagobert II.	711
19. Chilperick II.	716
Clotaire disputed.	721
20. Thierry II.	722
An interregnum.	
21. Childerick III.	743

The Carolovignian line.

22. Pepin the Short	751
23. Charlemagne	768
24. Lewis the Pious	814
25. Charles the Bald	840
26. Lewis II.	877
27. Lewis III. Carloman	879
28. Charles III. the Groſs	884
29. Eudes	888
30. Charles IV. the Simple	893
Robert diſputed	922
31. Rodolph	923
32. Lewis IV.	936
33. Lothaire	954
34. Lewis V. the Slothful	986

The Capetine line.

Kings.	A. D.
35. Hugh Capet	987
36. Robert	996
37. Henry I.	1033
38. Philip	1060
39. Lewis VI. the Groſs	1108
40. Lewis VII.	1137
41. Philip II. the Auguſt	1180
42. Lewis VIII. the Lion	1223
43. St Lewis IX.	1226
44. Philip III. the Hardy	1270
45. Philip IV. the Fair	1286
46. Lewis X. Hutin	1314
47. Philip V.	1317
48. Charles IV. the Fair	1322
49. Philip VI. of Valois	1328
50 John the Good	1359
51. Charles V. the Wiſe	1364
52. Charles VI.	1380
53. Charles VII. Victorious	1412
54. Lewis XI.	1461
55. Charles VIII.	1483
56. Lewis XII. the Juſt	1498
57. Francis I. the Great	1515
58. Henry II.	1547
59. Francis II.	1559
60. Charles IX	1560
61. Henry III.	1574
62. Henry IV.	1589
63. Lewis XIII.	1610
64. Lewis XIV.	1643
65. Lewis XV.	1715

Clovis.

This table begins with Pharamond, to whom ſucceeded Clodion, Merovee, and Childerick: but Father Daniel ſhews that theſe Princes only made irruptions into Gaul out of Germany from time to time; that none of them fixed their reſidence in Gaul, but being content with plunder, or beaten back by the Romans, returned to their habitations on the other ſide of the Rhine, till Clovis paſſing this river at the head of a numerous army, laid the foundation of the French monarchy, in the fifth year of his reign, and the twentieth of his age, *anno* 486.

The ſtate of Gaul when the Franks conquered it.

At the time of this expedition of Clovis, Gaul was divided between the Romans, the Viſigoths, and the Burgundians. The Roman territories comprehended almoſt all the provinces which lie between the Rhine, the Ocean, and the Loire. The Burgundians poſſeſſed the countries between the Saone and the Rhone, and ſeveral towns on both ſides thoſe rivers, as Lyons, Vienne, Geneva. The Viſigoths poſſeſſed all the reſt of the country from the Alps to the Pyrenees, which lie to the ſouthward of the Loire. Theodorick, King of the Oſtrogoths, or eaſtern Goths, was at this time King of Italy, and the Viſigoths had the dominion of great part of Spain.

The march of Clovis against the Romans.

While the affairs of Europe were in this ſituation, Clovis paſſed the Rhine with a formidable army, bending his march directly for Soiſſons, the capital of the Roman territories in Gaul, where Siagrius the Roman governor then reſided. Siagrius drew together all the forces he could aſſemble to oppoſe his march; but having the misfortune to be defeated, fled to Alarick King of the Viſigoths, or weſtern Goths, for protection; who delivered him to Clovis, and he was not long after beheaded; whereupon moſt of the towns in the Roman government made their ſubmiſſion to the conqueror.

While Clovis was ſettling his new acquired dominions, the King of Thuringia fell upon his territories in Germany, and obliged him to repaſs the Rhine; but having defeated his enemies on that ſide, he returned to Soiſſons in triumph; after which he endeavoured to ſtrengthen himſelf by alliances, and married Clotilda, the niece of Goudeband King of Burgundy; which Princeſs being a Chriſtian, gave him a favourable opinion of that perſuaſion. However, they tell us, he deferred the declaring himſelf a Chriſtian, till being engaged in a deſperate battle with the Alemanni, who had invaded his country, he vowed he would become a Chriſtian, if Heaven ſhould grant him the victory: which happening to fall on his ſide, he made no delay to perform his vow, but was baptized at Rheims on his return, with three thouſand of his officers and great men. But whatever was the occaſion of his converſion, his profeſſing Chriſtianity procured him the affections of his new ſubjects the Gauls, who were at this time generally Chriſtians: and perhaps the reaſon that none of his predeceſſors could fix their thrones here, was the difference of religion between them and the Gauls; for the Germans were ſtill pagans. As to the tradition of the St Ampouille, or holy bottle of oil uſed at the conſecration of their Kings, being brought him by a dove at his baptiſm, with the royal ſtandard called the Oriſlamme, the reader will give it the weight it deſerves; as well as that other tradition, of his having the gift of healing the King's Evil conferred upon him at the ſame time. But to proceed in his hiſtory; this King it ſeems, whoſe ambition was never ſatisfied, fell firſt upon GOUDEBAND King of Burgundy, and afterwards upon ALARICK King of the Viſigoths; defeated both of them, and killed ALARICK with his own hand; but THEODORICK King of the Oſtrogoths interpoſing, prevented CLOVIS making himſelf entire maſter of their countries. Whereupon, he bent his arms towards Bretagne, and obliged that Prince to lay aſide the royal ſtile. He deprived alſo the Princes of the Alemanni in Germany, of the titles of Kings, appropriating that honour to himſelf; and from that time, it is ſaid, they took upon them no other title than that of Duke. And thoſe of his own family, who had erected themſelves little kingdoms, and would not ſubmit to this rule, he depoſed, or put to death. Inſomuch, that the French hiſtorians, who ſeem to worſhip him on other accounts, acknowledge that he left behind him the character of an ambitious cruel Prince; and ſuggeſt, that his benevolence to the clergy, and his religious foundations, were undertaken by way of atonement for the many barbarities he had committed.

CLOVIS dies, and is ſucceeded by his ſons.

CLOVIS died at Paris in November 511, being the forty-fifth year of his age, and the thirtieth of his reign, leaving four ſons behind him, viz. THIERRY, CLODOMIR, CHILDEBERT, and CLOTAIRE, who divided his dominions between them; CHILDEBERT was King of Paris, CLODOMIR of Orleans, CLOTAIRE of Soiſſons, and THIERRY, the eldeſt, who had the largeſt ſhare, was King of Auſtraſia, or eaſtern France, between the Rhine and the Meuſe, the capital whereof was Metz in Lorrain. He poſſeſſed alſo ſeveral other provinces of France, and all that belonged to the Franks in Germany, to the eaſtward of the Rhine. In the reign of theſe Princes, Gaul obtained the name of France. The Viſigoths were at this time in the poſſeſſion of Spain and South France, and their King ALARICK being a minor, THEODORICK King of the Eaſt Goths in Italy, took upon him the guardianſhip and protection of that Prince, who was the ſon of his daughter and of ALARICK their late King. This re-union of all the Gothick nations under one head, rendered them very formidable to France on the ſouth, as the Danes and Normans now began to be towards the north.

CLODOMIR being killed in a battle againſt the Burgundians, his three brothers ſhared his kingdom of Orleans amongſt them, and murdered his children. Soon afterwards THEODORICK the powerful King of the eaſtern Goths dying, the French Kings began to think of enlarging their dominions: THIERRY King of Auſtraſia entered into an alliance with his brother CLOTAIRE King of Soiſſons, and made a conqueſt of Thuringia, a part of the modern Saxony; while CHILDEBERT King of Paris, invaded the dominions of the Goths, made himſelf maſter of great part of Languedoc, and killed ALARICK their King. The pretence for this laſt war was, that ALARICK having married CLOTILDA, ſiſter to the French Kings, would compel her to become an Arian. And indeed, the hiſtory of the Church at this time informs us, that almoſt all the Chriſtian world were hereticks of one denomination or other, and only the French Princes deemed true Catholicks by Rome. But, notwithſtanding, the pretended concern of theſe Princes for the Catholick Faith, we find them imbruing their hands in the blood of helpleſs orphans, their brother CLODOMIR's children, and dividing their inheritance amongſt them. The holy See therefore, has very little to be proud of, in theſe ſtrenuous defenders of the purity of her ſaith. Another obſervation hiſtorians make is, that theſe French Princes made no ſcruple of having three or four, or half a dozen wives and concubines at a time; and would frequently take to their beds women that were already married to others; and were indulged in all theſe irregularities by the Church of Rome, ſo long as they continued protectors of the holy See. THIERRY, King of Auſtraſia, dying in the year 533, was ſucceeded by his ſon THEODEBERT, who with his two uncles, the Kings of Paris and Soiſſons, attacked Burgundy, and having defeated and killed King GONDENOR, divided that country amongſt them. VITIGES King of the Oſtrogoths, alſo yielded up Provence to the French Kings, in conſideration of their aſſiſting him in his wars againſt the Emperor JUSTINIAN. But theſe treacherous French Princes, inſtead of aſſiſting either VITIGES, or BELISARIUS, the Emperor's General, with whom they were in alliance, marched a great army into Italy, and fell upon thoſe powers, in hopes of wreſting that country from both of them. They were however, ſoon after obliged to retire over the Alps again: and BELISARIUS having reduced great part of Italy to the Emperor's obedience again, carried VITIGES to Conſtantinople, where he was made a patrician, and had a fortune given him capable to ſatisfy the ambition of any private man, in my author's phraſe, who had not been a King. This happened about the year 539.

The Goths ſtill made further efforts for reſtoring their affairs in Italy upon BELISARIUS's retiring to Conſtantinople, and having elected the famous TOTILA for their King, recovered great part of the country from the Romans: among the reſt, Rome itſelf was twice ſtormed and taken. Hereupon, the Emperor ſent his General NARSES into Italy, who defeated TOTILA, and killed him in the field of battle; and after him TELAS, whom the Goths choſe for King in his room: whereby he obliged them to abandon Italy, and promiſe never to return thither again. All the Goths however, did not leave the country, but called in the French to their aſſiſtance, who paſſing the Alps with a vaſt army, laid Italy waſte from one end to the other, till they were met by NARSES the Imperial General, and entirely defeated. The plague happening among their forces at the ſame time, very few of the French lived to return home. In the mean time THEODEBALD King of Auſtraſia died without iſſue, and CLOTAIRE King of Soiſſons, his great uncle, ſeized upon his dominions, without ſuffering his brother CHILDEBERT to ſhare any part of them with him, which occaſioned a war between them:

The French Empire united in one head.

but CHILDEBERT King of Paris dying in the year 558, CLOTAIRE thereby became ſole maſter of the French empire. He enjoyed it about a year, when a fever put an end to his life, in the fifty-firſt year of his reign, leaving four ſons, viz. CHILPERICK, CHARIBERT, GONTRAN, and SIGEBERT.

Divided again into four kingdoms.

CHILPERICK ſucceeded to the kingdom of Soiſſons; CHARIBERT to that of Paris; GONTRAN to Orleans with Burgundy, which thereupon obtained the name of the kingdom of Burgundy again; and SIGEBERT to Auſtraſia.

NARSES having driven both the Goths and the French out of Italy, governed that country in peace, till the death of the Emperor JUSTINIAN, which happened about the year 566, when being recalled by his ſucceſſor the Emperor JUSTIN, and treated with indignity by the Empreſs SOPHIA, NARSES was ſo provoked by this uſage, that in revenge he invited the Lombards, another tribe of the northern people, into Italy. ALBOIN their King, who had formerly ſerved in Italy under NARSES, againſt the Goths, and was acquainted with the beauty and fertility of the country, very readily accepted the propoſal; and being joined by a good body of Saxons, marched into the Milaneſe, making almoſt an entire conqueſt of Italy: after which he marched into Savoy and Dauphiné, and ſtruck a terror into the Kings of France.

CHARIBERT King of Paris dying, his territories were divided amongſt his three ſurviving brothers, but in a very odd manner, according to the cuſtom of thoſe times; for each brother had a ſhare in almoſt every province, and in every city of his dominions; each of them had his ſhare in the capital city of Paris itſelf: which occaſioned frequent diſputes and miſunderſtandings between them, and ſometimes an open war, as it happened in the year 575, when SIGEBERT King of Auſtraſia, having beaten his brother CHILPERICK out of the field, and forced him to ſhut himſelf up in Tournay, was killed by an aſſaſſin as he was carrying on the ſiege of that town. CHILDEBERT, the ſon of SIGEBERT, ſucceeded his father in the kingdom of Auſtraſia, between whom, and his uncle CHILPERICK, King of Soiſſons, there were almoſt continual wars, till CHILPERICK was aſſaſſinated in his turn, and left his kingdom of Soiſſons to his ſon CLOTAIRE, an infant, whom his uncle GONTRAN, King of Burgundy, took under his protection: and clapping up a peace with his other nephew CHILDEBERT, King of Auſtraſia, the French Kings entered into a war with the Viſigoths of Languedoc and Spain on the one hand, and with the Lombards of Italy on the other, with various ſucceſs; tho' in the end, the French hiſtorians relate, that the Burgundians agreed to pay the French an annual tribute in acknowledgment of their dependance on them. Theſe wars being ended, the French Kings lived at peace among themſelves and with their neighbours about four years, when GONTRAN, King of Burgundy, died without iſſue, in March, 593, leaving the greateſt part of his dominions to his nephew CHILDEBERT, King of Auſtraſia: ſo that at this time we find the French dominions divided between CLOTAIRE, King of Soiſſons and Neuſtria, and CHILDEBERT, King of Auſtraſia and Burgundy, the latter of which Princes had large dominions to the eaſtward of the Rhine, in Germany, Hungary, &c. The kingdom of Paris was neither divided or long poſſeſſed by the one or the other, but occaſioned ſeveral wars between theſe Princes and their ſucceſſors, and the towns and territories frequently changed their maſters, as the one or the other met with ſucceſs.

CHILDEBERT King of Auſtraſia died in the year 596, leaving iſſue two ſons, to the eldeſt of whom, named THEODEBERT, he left the kingdom of Auſtraſia, and to THIERRY, the youngeſt, that of Burgundy: the latter reſided at Orleans, making this city the capital of his dominions. Theſe two young Princes confederating together, took from CLOTAIRE, King of Neuſtria, great part of his territories, and afterwards carried their arms into Spain, making the Gaſcons beyond the Pyrenees tributary to them. But falling out among themſelves, THIERRY obtained a deciſive victory over THEODEBERT, took him priſoner with his ſon, and put them to death; uniting thereby the kingdom of Auſtraſia to that of Burgundy: but dying ſoon after, and leaving four ſons infants behind him, and his kingdoms in ſome diſtraction, CLOTAIRE, King of Soiſſons and Neuſtria, took advantage of the opportunity, ſeized upon his dominions, and murdered two of his ſons; another of them eſcaped and was never heard of more; and of MEROVEE the fourth, it is ſaid, he had ſome compaſſion, becauſe he had ſtood godfather to him; and this young Prince lived a conſiderable time as a private man; ſo that now the French dominions were again united under one head. CLOTAIRE had the good fortune to die a natural death, and leave his dominions entire to his ſon DAGOBERT, whom he had before made viceroy, or, as ſome ſay, King of Auſtraſia. He left indeed another ſon named CHARIBERT, to whom his brother aſſigned the kingdom of Aquitain: but he died ſoon after without iſſue, and DAGOBERT remained ſole monarch of the French empire. He reſided for the moſt part at his capital city of Paris, and was a Prince pretty much devoted to pleaſure, having three wives at the ſame time, to whom he gave the title of Queens, and a numerous herd of concubines, who drew him into many extravagancies, and occaſioned his oppreſſing his ſubjects with heavy taxes, tho' at the beginning of his reign, he was eſteemed one of the beſt Princes that had ſat upon the throne. While he was thus diverting himſelf with his women at Paris, his frontiers in Germany were attacked by the northern nations, and his forces defeated in ſeveral battles, with whom he was glad to clap up a peace on ſuch terms as he could obtain. The Duke, or Count of Britany, alſo invaded his territories, but the differences between them were accommodated, and he died in peace in the year 638, leaving two ſons minors, (viz.) CLOVIS II, to whom he gave the kingdoms of Neuſtria and Burgundy; and SIGEBERT II, whom he conſtituted King of Auſtraſia. In the reign of theſe infant Princes it was, that the Mayors of the palace, or prime miniſters of the French, began to aſſume ſovereign power, allowing their Kings little more than the name of Royalty. EGA was now Mayor of the palace to the King of Neuſtria, and PEPIN to the King of Auſtraſia, the grandfather of the famous PEPIN, who ſhewed his poſterity the way to depoſe their ſovereigns, and uſurp their thrones, and from whom the ſecond line of the French Kings deſcended, generally called the Carolovignian line, from CHARLEMAGNE, or CHARLES the Great.

The French empire united again under one head in CLOTAIRE II. DAGOBERT, 628.

The Mayors of the palace aſſume ſovereign power, 638.

Pepin dying two years after Dagobert, his ſon Grimoald ſucceeded him in the office of Mayor of the palace in Auſtraſia. This gentleman had ſo much addreſs, that he prevailed upon the young king to promiſe him that his ſon ſhould ſucceed him in the throne if he had none of his own; and tho' the King lived a conſiderable time afterwards, and had a ſon, yet was he ſo weak as to commit him to the care of this Grimoald, which, in the words of my author, was to deliver him up to the diſcretion of an ambitious wretch, who had already a deſign upon the crown. Sigebert died about the year 655, of whom the French hiſtorians give us no other account than that he was a devout Prince, and founded ſeveral churches and monaſteries, and had variety of women about him; which was ſcarce deemed a vice in thoſe days. Grimoald, it ſeems, had not ſo much cruelty in his nature, as to murder his ſon Dagobert, but privately conveyed the infant into Scotland, where he hoped he never would be heard of more; after which he crowned his own ſon Childebert King of Auſtraſia, under pretence that the late King Sigebert had adopted him his ſucceſſor.

Clovis, whom their hiſtorians alſo make an indolent Prince, did not long ſurvive his brother: he left three ſons behind him, viz. Clotaire III, Childerick, and Thierry; of whom Clotaire the eldeſt ſucceeded him in the kingdoms of Neuſtria and Burgundy; and the grandees in Auſtraſia refuſing to be governed by the uſurper Childebert the ſon of Grimoald, found means to depoſe him and place Childerick the ſecond ſon of Clovis upon the throne. Grimoald was taken and carried to Paris, where he died in priſon. As to Thierry the third ſon of Clovis II, I don't find he had any ſhare aſſigned him in the French territories at firſt.

Ebroin, Mayor of the palace.

Ebroin was conſtituted Mayor of the palace, or prime miniſter, to Clotaire III, King of Neuſtria; of whom the French hiſtorians give the following character, that he equally expoſed to ſale juſtice and injuſtice for a price, that he burthened the people with taxes, abuſed the nobility, and would condemn and baniſh perſons of the higheſt quality for trifles. Of Clotaire the French hiſtorians ſay very little more than that he died about the year 663, without iſſue, and that thereupon his dominions devolved upon Childerick, King of Auſtraſia, and the French Empire became united again under one head. Childerick behaving himſelf in an inſolent tyrannical manner towards the nobility, was aſſaſſinated with his Queen, who was big with child, and one of their ſons: the other eſcaped and ſhut himſelf up in a monaſtery for ſeveral years, tho' he afterwards found means to aſcend the throne of his anceſtors. Upon the death of Childerick, Thierry the third brother was declared King of Neuſtria and Burgundy; but Ebroin, formerly Mayor of the palace, repaired to Auſtraſia and ſet up an impoſtor againſt him, with whom he returned into Neuſtria at the head of a very great army, plundered Paris, and obliged Thierry to make him Mayor of the palace again: whereupon he deſerted the pretended King he had ſet up, and the Dukes Pepin and Martin were conſtituted Dukes or Governors of the kingdom of Auſtraſia. Martin dying ſoon after, Pepin became the ſole Duke of Auſtraſia, being the ſame who in hiſtory is called Pepin the Groſs, on the account of his ſtature, being ſhort and thick.

The French Empire again united under one head in Childerick, anno 663.

Ebroin, Mayor of the palace to Thierry, having tyrannized over the French nobility four or five and twenty years, ſo provoked ſome of them at length, that he was aſſaſſinated; after whoſe death Thierry had ſeveral other Mayors, and particularly one named Gislemar, who made war upon Duke Pepin in Auſtraſia, but not meeting with ſucceſs, Pepin ſoon after returned his viſit, and entring Neuſtria, came before Paris, which city opened her gates to him, delivering up the King and Court into his hands: whereupon the regal power in Neuſtria, Burgundy, and Auſtraſia became veſted in Pepin, who governed them under the title of Mayor of the palace, leaving Thierry no more than the empty name of King, the enſigns of authority, and a ſuitable equipage. Pepin endeavoured to render himſelf popular by his wiſe regulations in Church and State, and defending the frontiers againſt the Spaniards and Saxons, in which he met with ſucceſs beyond his expectations. In the mean time Thierry died, which made little alteration in the ſtate of affairs. He left two ſons behind him, viz. Clovis and Childebert; Pepin cauſed Clovis to be proclaimed King, who dying after a reign of five years, he gave Childebert the title, of whom the French hiſtorians ſay little more than that he lived ſixteen or ſeventeen years after his brother; for neither the one or the other had any ſhare in the adminiſtration, this was left entirely to the Mayor of the palace. Pepin it ſeems had two ſons of his own, Drogon and Grimoald; the firſt he made Duke of Burgundy, and the other Mayor of the palace to the King, reſerving the duchy of Auſtraſia to himſelf, which he governed as an abſolute ſovereign, and not as viceroy to the French King; and in the ſame manner his ſon Drogon governed Burgundy. Childebert being dead, Pepin thought fit to advance his ſon, Dagobert, to the throne, who made the ſame figure his predeceſſors had done. The French hiſtorians obſerve, that we hear no more of this line of their Kings for the laſt hundred years, than their advancement to the throne and their deaths. But theſe Mayors of the palace met with many mortifications before they could eſtabliſh their uſurpation, Pepin ſaw both his ſons, Drogon and Grimoald, murdered by the nobility, who could not bear to be tyrannized over by their fellow-ſubjects. Whereupon Pepin made his grandſon, Theobald, Mayor of the palace and governor of the King, tho' he was but an infant; but he died before he could accompliſh his principal project of ſettling the crown in his family.

Pepin uſurps the ſovereign power, ann. 663 and leaves King only his title.

After the death of Pepin, Theobald his grandſon continued Mayor of the palace for ſome time, under the direction of Plectrude his grandmother, Pepin's relict; but an Empire of this extent could not be governed long by an old woman and an infant, who had neither of them any pretence to the crown. An inſurrection was formed againſt them in Neuſtria, and they were driven from the palace, Rainfroy being made Mayor of the palace in the room of Theobald. In the mean time Charles Martel ſon of Pepin, by a ſecond venter, and who had been impriſoned by Plectrude, made his eſcape into Auſtraſia, where he was joyfully received as their Duke and ſucceſſor of Pepin.

Charles Martel Duke of Auſtraſia 716.

Dagobert III, having borne the name of King for about five years, died, whereupon the Neuſtrians ſet Chilperick II upon the throne. He was one of the ſons of Childerick II, who had

Chilperick II King of Neuſtria, 716.

had eſcaped from the perſons that were to have murdered him, as has been related above, and had been ſhut up in a monaſtery till now. This Prince the Neuſtrians thought fit to prefer to THIERRY the ſon of DAGOBERT, on account of THIERRY's being an infant, and probably they were not unacquainted with his abilities, and hoped he would reſcue both himſelf and them from the tyranny of the Mayors of the palace, and bring things into their antient legal channel; for, ſays my author, the French Lords made RAINFROY the Mayor of the palace yield him the command of the army, where he always behaved himſelf with conduct and bravery becoming a Prince, till adverſe fortune, and the violence of his enemy, deprived him of the liberty of acting: he ought not therefore to be reckoned in the number of their ſlothful indolent Kings. He made an alliance with the Duke of Frize, and invaded Auſtraſia, of which CHARLES MARTEL had aſſumed the government. The war was carried on for ſome time with various ſucceſs, and ſeveral obſtinate battles fought between the contending parties; but fortune did not favour CHILPERICK in the end, he was defeated and made priſoner by CHARLES MARTEL, who thereupon ſet THIERRY the ſon of DAGOBERT II, upon the throne, and conſtituted himſelf Mayor of the palace, in which ſtation he took all occaſions to make himſelf popular. He was now peaceably poſſeſſed of all the French dominions as Duke of Auſtraſia and mayor of the palace to THIERRY, and finding himſelf in this ſituation, he attacked the German nations who had ſhaken off the French yoke, and ſent miſſionaries amongſt them to inſtruct them in the doctrines of Chriſtianity; protecting Biſhop BONIFACE, whom Pope GREGORY II had ſent thither on the ſame deſign. In the mean time EUDES Duke of Aquitain confederating with the Saracens, who had at this time poſſeſſed themſelves of great part of Spain and Languedoc, marched into the heart of France with a prodigious army, threatning deſtruction not only to France, but to all Chriſtendom. Whereupon CHARLES MARTEL aſſembled all the forces he could muſter both in Auſtraſia and Neuſtria, and gave them battle, obtaining a compleat victory over the infidels, killing three hundred thouſand of their men and upwards, according to the French hiſtorians; which made him eſteemed the hero of the age, not only in France, but in all the neighbouring nations. The Pope eſpecially, who had felt the fury of the Saracens in Italy, became his faſt friend upon this great event, and looked upon him as the protector of Chriſtendom. From this victory, 'tis ſaid, he obtained the ſurname of MARTEL, having as it were with a hammer (Marteau) beaten the Saracens to pieces. While his fame was thus at the height, THIERRY, who had borne the name of King for ſome years, happened to die: whereupon CHARLES thinking himſelf eſtabliſhed in his power, and at liberty to erect what ſort of government he ſaw fit, took upon himſelf the title of Duke of All France, without ſupplying the vacant throne even with a nominal King. It appears however, notwithſtanding the great defeat of the Saracens above-mentioned, that they continued in poſſeſſion of part of Languedoc and Provence, and maintained the war againſt CHARLES MARTEL for ſeveral years afterwards, and that he was not able to take Narbonne from them at laſt; which would incline one to believe, that the victory above-mentioned was not ſo compleat as the French writers pretend. Indeed there are frequent inſtances throughout their whole hiſtory, where according to their own accounts they have made an entire conqueſt of their enemies, and ſubdued their territories; and yet immediately after ſuch relations we find them ſtill in the poſſeſſion of thoſe Princes they pretend to have taken them from, even in the very ſame authors. If the French have a great deal of wit, they have certainly very little memory, or they would not write flat contradictions ſo often as they do. Another thing to be obſerved is, that they are very good at working up a novel; where they meet with a chaſm in hiſtory, they never fail to ſupply it out of their own brains, adding and altering circumſtances at their pleaſure. Therefore as the hiſtory of the times we are ſpeaking of, is in general extremely dark and confuſed, I look upon that of France leſs to be depended on than any other: where it is not ſupported by the concurrent teſtimony of other nations, it muſt be read with abundance of caution. But to proceed in our hiſtory.

CHARLES MARTEL makes himſelf Mayor of the palace.

Obtains a great victory over the Saracens, ann. 732.

MARTEL ſtiles himſelf Duke of France, and governs it without a king, an. 734.

The Pope having quarrelled with the Emperor LEO ISAURIUS, on account of his breaking down the images of the Saints in churches, and prohibiting the adoration of them; and LUITPRAND King of the Lombards falling upon his Holineſs at the ſame time, he had no other refuge to fly to but the heroick CHARLES MARTEL, to whom he ſent a ſolemn embaſſy, inviting him into Italy, promiſing to proclaim him Conſul and Sovereign of Rome, and to renounce his allegiance to the Emperor, whom he calls the author of the hereſy of the Iconoclaſts, or Image-breakers, and a perſecutor of the Catholicks. But whilſt CHARLES was preparing to enter Italy with a powerful army, he fell ill of a fever, and died in the fiftieth year of his age, anno 741; and the Pope and the Emperor it ſeems died the ſame year. CHARLES MARTEL uſed no other ſtile in all publick inſtruments, than that of Mayor of the palace, to which he added the epithet Illuſtrious, as the Kings of the firſt family had done. He permitted foreign Princes to ſtile him Viceroy and Lord Lieutenant of the kingdom. Hiſtorians ſometimes call him Duke, and at others, Prince of France; alſo Conſul and Patrician: and in his epitaph he is ſtiled King. He left three ſons, two by his firſt wife, viz. CARLOMAN and PEPIN, and one by his ſecond, called GRIFON; but he divided his territories between the two former. To CARLOMAN the eldeſt, he gave Auſtraſia and his German dominions; and to PEPIN, Neuſtria, Burgundy, and Provence. PEPIN, for what reaſon does not appear, was pleaſed to ſet up another cypher of a King named CHILDERICK, who was of the royal family, but of what branch remains uncertain. He was declared King only of PEPIN's part of the Empire, but not of Auſtraſia, which was governed by CARLOMAN, as Duke, in his own right. The two brothers ſoon found their frontiers attacked both on the ſide of Aquitain and Germany; but uniting their forces, they were every where victorious, and became very terrible to their enemies. In the midſt of this ſucceſs CARLOMAN thought fit to relinquiſh the ſovereignty of Auſtraſia, and retire into a monaſtery at Mount Soracte, whereby his brother PEPIN became poſſeſſed of the whole French Empire; but ſtill he wanted the title of King, which he was ambitious of. To prepare his way to the throne, he courted the clergy, nobility, and people, and omitted nothing that might render him popular;

The Grecian emperor prohibits the worſhip of images.

MARTEL dies, anno 741.

The government divided between CARLOMAN and PEPIN the ſons of MARTEL

CHILDERICK ſet up for King, ann. 741.

popular; but the principal ſtratagem, which removed all obſtacles, was the getting Pope ZACHARY into his meaſures. He conſulted him in all things relating to eccleſiaſtical affairs, and cauſed his determinations to be read in council, and received with the greateſt deference. On the other hand, the Pope being every day harraſſed by the Lombards or Saracens, and deteſted by the Emperor CONSTANTIUS COPRONYMUS, who was as zealous againſt the worſhip of images, as his predeceſſor LEO ISAURIUS, was very glad of PEPIN's frindſhip to ſupport him againſt thoſe powers, and ready to grant whatever he could aſk. In this juncture, PEPIN reſolved to communicate to him his deſign of aſſuming the title of King of France, and to deſire his approbation of it. Nay, 'tis ſaid, he ſent a formal embaſſy to the Pope, and propoſed it as a caſe of conſcience, Whether conſidering the ſituation of affairs then in Europe, it was proper for the title of King to be ſeparated from the royal power in the Empire of France, which alone was in a condition to protect religion? To which the Pope anſwered, That in regard to the ſtate of affairs, he who was in poſſeſſion of the power, might add the title of King to it. Which determination of his Holineſs removed the objections of the moſt ſcrupulous of the French nation. Whereupon they unanimouſly agreed to depoſe King CHILDERICK, and make a Monk of him, and crown their favourite PEPIN. And to make the ceremony more ſolemn and ſignificant, the famous Biſhop BONIFACE, who had been employed in the converſion of the Saxons, and was eſteemed the greateſt Saint of the age, was pitched upon to conſecrate the hero, and ſet the crown upon his head.

The Pope approves of the King's being depoſed, and PEPIN's uſurping the crown. PEPIN crowned anno 751.

Pope ZACHARY dying ſoon after the coronation of PEPIN, was ſucceeded by STEPHEN III. About the ſame time ASTOLPHUS, King of Lombardy, took Ravenna from the Emperor, which was the capital of the Exarchate in Italy, and by virtue of this conqueſt claimed the ſovereignty of Rome itſelf: whereupon the Pope retired into France, and put himſelf under the protection of King PEPIN; where, meeting with a favourable reception, he perſuaded PEPIN to declare war againſt the King of the Lombards. And to encourage him in this enterprize, he again conſecrated him with his own hands, conferring on him the title of, Protector and Defender of the Church. PEPIN hereupon marched with a great army into Italy, and having defeated ASTOLPHUS, and recovered the Exarchate of Ravenna out of his hands, he made a grant of it to the Pope, whereby he became a conſiderable temporal Prince. The reſt of King PEPIN's reign was taken up with ſuppreſſing inſurrections in Germany and France, in both which he was ſucceſsful, and having entirely reduced the duchy of Aquitain, re-united it to the crown of France. Soon after which he was taken ill of a dropſy, and died on the 23d day of September, 768, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. He left behind him two ſons, viz. CHARLES, afterwards called CHARLEMAGNE, or CHARLES the Great, and CARLOMAN. To the firſt he gave the kingdom of Neuſtria, Burgundy, Aquitain, and that part of the kingdom of Auſtraſia, which lay to the weſtward of the Meuſe; and to CARLOMAN the youngeſt, he gave the reſt of Auſtraſia, and all his territories beyond the Rhine.

He conquers the Exarchate of Ravenna, and gives it to the Pope, anno 755.

PEPIN leaves his dominions to his two ſons CHARLES and CARLOMAN.

CHARLES at the beginning of his reign entered into an alliance with the King of Lombardy, and to cement it the ſtronger, married his daughter, tho' he was before married to another woman, and this expreſsly againſt the conſent of the Pope; ſo far was he from ſuing for a licence for it: nor was any thing more common among the French Princes at this time of day, than to put away one wife, and take another, whenever their intereſt or pleaſure prompted them to it, without the ceremony of a formal divorce.

CARLOMAN, King of Auſtraſia, died in the year 771, leaving a widow and two ſons. The Queen being apprehenſive, that her brother CHARLES would ſeize her perſon and her children, and force them into a monaſtery, fled to DIDIER, King of Lombardy, for protection. Hither he purſued them, being encouraged by ADRIAN I, then Pope of Rome, who dreaded nothing more than the King of Lombardy. CHARLES, or CHARLEMAGNE, as I ſhall call him for the future, eaſily defeated DIDIER, and made a conqueſt of two thirds of Italy, leaving the Greek Emperor only in poſſeſſion of Venice, Naples, and Sicily. As to DIDIER, he ſhaved his head and ſhut him up in a monaſtery, adding to his other titles that of King of Lombardy. He viſited the Pope at Rome, where he was received in triumph; and, 'tis ſaid, confirmed the grant of the Exarchate of Ravenna to his Holineſs, which PEPIN had made the Holy See.

CHARLES ſeizes the inheritance of his brother's children, and becomes ſole King of France, anno 771.

Conquers Lombardy.

This Prince having ſettled his Affairs in Italy, was called into Germany by the revolts of the Saxons. According to the French, he gained numberleſs victories over that people, but was no ſooner removed at a diſtance from their frontiers, than they renounced his authority, and had recourſe to arms, defeating his forces in ſeveral encounters; which provoked him to that degree, that beſides the many thouſands he had deſtroyed of them in the field of battle, he ordered four thouſand five hundred of the chief men of the country to be executed in cold blood, which ſerved but to exaſperate that people the more, who maintained the war againſt him for thirty years and upwards. However, by erecting fortreſſes, by deſtroying their country by fire and ſword, and the terrible executions he made of the revolters, he compelled them to be quiet ſometimes for a year or two, when he carried his arms into Bavaria, Hungary, and Sclavonia on the one hand, and into Spain on the other, enlarging the bounds of his Empire on every ſide. He had at this time three ſons, viz. PEPIN by a former Queen, who ſeems to have been in diſgrace with his father; another PEPIN, and LEWIS by his preſent Queen, the firſt of whom he created King of Lombardy, and the laſt King of Aquitain; which ſo provoked the eldeſt PEPIN, that he entered into a conſpiracy againſt his father, who was ſo fortunate however to diſcover it; and having executed his accomplices, impriſoned his ſon PEPIN the elder in a monaſtery. TUSSILON, Duke of Bavaria, alſo being condemned in a council at Franckfort for his revolts, and obliged to make a formal renunciation of that duchy, CHARLEMAGNE united it to his dominions. Still the Saxons gave him freſh diſturbance; he refuſed to pardon them therefore but upon theſe two conditions, 1. That they ſhould receive the Chriſtian prieſts and miſſionaries amongſt them whom they had expelled. And, 2. That one third of them ſhould be tranſplanted to ſome diſtant country: to both which they were obliged to ſubmit.

His wars with the Saxons.

From Saxony CHARLEMAGNE went to Italy, to do juſtice to Pope LEO the third, who had been depoſed by Paſchal and Camnute, two nephews of the preceding Pope, and forced to fly into France; and, if we may credit the French hiſtorians, had his eyes and tongue pulled out. But as it is certain, that this Pope both ſaw and ſpoke afterwards, few people gave entire credit to the latter part of the relation. Charlemagne having examined into the inſults that had been committed on his Holineſs, whoſe enemies charged him with the moſt ſcandalous crimes, in order to juſtify their conduct, he condemned the late Pope's nephews to death, who were the authors of theſe outrages; but at the inſtance of Pope Leo, 'tis ſaid, their puniſhment was turned into baniſhment.

Charlemagne crowned Emperor of the Romans, anno 800.

The Pope, in gratitude to Charlemagne for reſtoring him to his See, determined to confer on him the title of Emperor, and without his knowledge, as the hiſtorians of thoſe times affirm. While Charlemagne was on his knees at maſs in St Peter's church at Rome on Chriſtmas-day, anno 800, he placed a crown upon his head; whereupon the whole chapter and people cryed out, as they had been taught no doubt, God bleſs Charles Auguſtus, crowned by the hand of God, life and victory to the grand and pacifick Emperor of the Romans! After which Charlemagne being placed on a throne, the Pope came and paid his reverences to him, ſaluting him as Emperor of Rome, and preſenting him with the Imperial habit. And tho' Charlemagne pretended he knew nothing of the Pope's deſign of crowning him Emperor, it appears that he was very well pleaſed with the honour afterwards, and expected to be treated accordingly.

The King of Perſia a little before this having made himſelf maſter of Jeruſalem, granted it to Charlemagne; and a prieſt named Zacharias, brought a banner and the keys of the city to that Prince, whereby he was ceremoniouſly put into poſſeſſion of it, which gave occaſion to the fabulous account of Charlemagne's march to the Holy-land, and his conquering Jeruſalem. But to proceed: Charlemagne being now Emperor of the Weſt, began to think of reducing the reſt of Italy to his obedience, which was in the poſſeſſion of the Greeks. This the Empreſs Irene endeavoured to prevent; but deſparing of defending it by force, ſhe ſent an embaſſy to Charlmagne to propoſe a marriage between them, by way of amuſement, as 'tis generally thought.

Irene uſurps the Empire of the Eaſt.

This Empreſs had put out the eyes of her ſon Conſtantine, who dying ſoon after of the wounds, cauſed herſelf to be proclaimed Empreſs. Charlemagne however finding it an advantageous propoſal, and that he might by cloſing with it unite the Empires of the Eaſt and Weſt in his own perſon, received her Embaſſadors with all imaginable honours, and ſent another embaſſy to Conſtantinople, with powers to conclude the match. The Pope, to whom the Emperor communicated the affair, readily came into it, and did all that was in his power to promote it, not doubting but by this means he ſhould have had an opportunity of modelling the Greek Church, and making it conformable to the Latin. But the Grandees of Conſtantinople apprehending they ſhould be looked upon as ſubjects and dependants of the Roman Empire, both in ſpirituals and temporals, depoſed the Empreſs Irene in that very inſtant, and proclamed Nicephorus the Patrician, Emperor. Charlemagne finding the thing was become impracticable, and that the Germans were again in arms, and his preſence required on that ſide, accepted of the propoſals of peace that were made him by Nicephorus, and conſented to ſettle the limits of their reſpective Empires in Italy.

Charlemagne being arrived in Germany, and finding the Saxons were never to be tamed while they remained in a condition to diſturb him, ordered ten thouſand families of them to be tranſplanted to the weſtward of the Rhine, and brought other people to ſupply their places. He decreed alſo, that none of thoſe who continued in Saxony, ſhould for the future inherit the eſtates of their anceſtors, if they were found diſaffected to his government. And by this means, 'tis ſaid, he entirely put an end to the revolts of that people.

Charlemagne divides his Empire between his three ſons, anno 803.

And now finding himſelf peaceably eſtabliſhed in his Empire, he called a general Dyet at Thionville in Luxemburg, where he divided his dominions between his three ſons, Charles, Pepin, and Lewis, reſerving however the ſupreme command in the whole to himſelf. Pepin had Italy, Lewis Aquitain, and Charles, who was generally near his father's perſon, had the ſuperintendency of the reſt. Each of theſe Princes had their hands full for the moſt part. The Greeks and the Saracens attacked Pepin's territories in Italy; the Saracens of Spain were perpetually breaking in upon Aquitain; and the Danes and Normans entered Germany, defeated the Emperor's troops, and recovered great part of the country from him: and had not Godfrey King of Denmark been aſſaſſinated, Charlemagne would have found it very difficult to remove them; but upon the death of this Prince, the Danes reimbarked their troops and returned home.

Pepin, King of Italy, dying in the year 810, left one ſon named Bernard, and five daughters; whereupon the Emperor conſtituted his grandſon Bernard King of Italy: but we are to remember, that his territories conſiſted only of part of Italy; for the Emperor of the Eaſt was ſtill maſter of Venice, Naples, Sicily, and part of Sardinia. In the year 812, the Emperor loſt his eldeſt ſon Charles; and having only Lewis, King of Aquitain left, of all the ſons he deſigned ſhould ſucceed to his dominions, he aſſociated him with him in the Empire, and cauſed him to be crowned at Aix la Chapelle, the place of the Emperor's uſual reſidence. The Emperor had many other ſons, and ſome of them elder than any of thoſe above-mentioned: but the French Sovereigns took the liberty in thoſe days of appointing whom they pleaſed their ſucceſſors. Sometimes they married women of an inferior rank; and this was thought reaſon ſufficient to ſet aſide their children. At others, a ſecond, third, or fourth wife got the aſcendant of the old doating Prince, made him divorce his former wife, and declare all his elder childern incapable of inheriting; got them ſhaved and thruſt into a monaſtery and perhaps aſſaſſinated.

Charlemagne's death and character.

Charlemagne died the latter end of January, 814, in the ſeventy-firſt year of his age, and forty-ſeventh of his reign, (as King) and fourteen after his being crowned Emperor. His piety and virtue are much cryed up by the French hiſtorians, tho' at the ſame time the facts related of him by thoſe very writers muſt give us an indifferent idea of this Prince. Even his planting the Chriſtian religion in Saxony, which is eſteemed ſo very meritorious, if we conſider with what injuſtice and cruelty it was effected, will perfectly efface the merit of it. The Turks may have an equal claim to piety, who plant their religion wherever they come with their ſcymitars, and water it with the blood of the conquered.

LEWIS his ſon ſucceeds him in the Empire, anno 814.

LEWIS, ſurnamed the Godly, ſucceeded his father CHARLEMAGNE in the Empire, and his nephew BERNARD did homage to him for the kingdom of Italy. The Pope alſo made the Romans take an oath of fealty to the Emperor, and came into France to crown him and the Empreſs HERMINGARDE with his own hand. In the year 817 the Emperor aſſociated his eldeſt ſon LOTHAIRE with him in the Empire: his ſecond ſon PEPIN he conſtituted King of Aquitain; and LEWIS the youngeſt, King of Bavaria. At the ſame time his nephew BERNARD, King of Italy, raiſed a rebellion againſt him; but the Emperor took him priſoner and bored out his eyes, of which he died ſoon after, and Italy was re-united to the French Empire. This puniſhment of boring out the eyes of rival or rebellious princes was become very common in France about this time. They are ſuppoſed to have learned it of the Grecian Emperors, with whom they were pretty converſant.

The Saracens ſucceſs againſt Chriſtendom.

The Saracens in the year 828 were very ſucceſsful againſt both the weſtern and eaſtern Emperors dominions. From the French they took ſeveral places in Spain and South France, and from the Greeks the iſland of Sicily; but what diſtracted the affairs of the Emperor LEWIS moſt, was his marriage with a ſecond wife by whom he had children; and as he had parcelled out all his dominions amongſt his ſons by the firſt venter, the preſent Empreſs was ever ſolliciting him to revoke what he had done, and make ſome proviſion for her iſſue. The old Emperor was ready to comply with her; but it coming to the ears of his ſons by the firſt wife, they apprehended they ſhould be diſinherited, and immediately formed a conſpiracy againſt their father, in which they met with ſuch ſucceſs, that they depoſed the Emperor. He had the addreſs however to create a miſunderſtanding among the brothers, and was reſtored to his throne; whereupon he aſſigned his ſon CHARLES by the ſecond venter the kingdom of Neuſtria and the country of the Alemanni beyond the Rhine, and ſoon after the kingdom of Aquitain, upon the death of PEPIN, though he left two ſons, named PEPIN and CHARLES. The old Emperor a little before his death, which happened anno 840, conſtituted the eldeſt ſon LOTHAIRE Emperor, and gave him all the reſt of his territories, but thoſe aſſigned to CHARLES and to LEWIS King of Bavaria, afterwards King of Germany. LEWIS the Godly was no ſooner dead, but LOTHAIRE his ſon formed a deſign of making himſelf univerſal monarch, attacked the territories of his two brothers CHARLES and LEWIS, and made himſelf maſter of great part of them. But theſe Princes entring into a confederacy againſt LOTHAIRE, brought him to terms, and a new diviſion of the dominions of France was agreed on between them.

LOTHAIRE Emperor, anno 840.

The diſtracted condition of France.

During theſe inteſtine diviſions, the enemies of France took an opportunity of attacking it on every ſide. The Normans entered the mouth of the Seine, took Rouen and Paris, and laid all the country waſte on that ſide. The Saracens ravaged Italy with fire and ſword, fixing themſelves there: and the Duke of Bretagne enlarged his territories at the expence of the French, obliging them to give him the title of King, which he had lately aſſumed. The Normans alſo entered the Loire, plundered Nantz and all the fine towns upon that river without oppoſition.

LEWIS II. Emperor.

LOTHAIRE the Emperor died the 29th of September, 855, leaving three ſons, viz. LEWIS, LOTHAIRE, and CHARLES. LEWIS was appointed King of Italy, &c. and Emperor. LOTHAIRE had the countries lying between the Rhine and Meuſe, and ſeveral other provinces to the ſouthward, which from him were called the kingdom of Lotharingia, and afterwards Lorrain; tho' the modern Lorrain takes up but a ſmall part of the country which anciently went under that name. CHARLES the youngeſt ſucceeded to Provence, Dauphiné, and Tranſjuran Burgundy, which diviſion obtained the name of the kingdom of Provence.

The French Empire united in CHARLES the Groſs, anno 884.

I ſhall not trouble the reader with all the diviſions and ſubdiviſions made by the French Princes of their territories the next twenty years, but proceed to the reign of the Emperor CHARLES the Groſs, in whom all their dominions were again united under one head, which happened about the year 884. This Prince, the French obſerve, was one of the moſt powerful of their monarchs, being Emperor and King of Italy, Sovereign of Germany, Pannonia, and all France, with a conſiderable part of Spain as far as the Ebro: he was the ſon of LEWIS of Bavaria King of Germany above mentioned; and though he was not very famous for his good ſenſe, yet he ſhewed himſelf a true deſcendant of the French Kings by his treachery: GODEFROY, a Norman Prince to whom the French had given up Frizia and part of the Low-Countries, being at war with CHARLES the Groſs, he invited the Norman to a treaty, where he procured him to be aſſaſſinated. To revenge which, the Normans poured into France, deſtroyed the country with fire and ſword, and laid ſiege to Paris, which laſted two years, when the Emperor gave them a large ſum of money to remove their quarters. This rendered him very contemptible in the eyes of his ſubjects, who dethroned him in the year 888, whereupon ARNULPH Duke of Carinthia, and baſtard of CARLOMAN late King of Bavaria, procured himſelf to be choſen King of Germany; and EUDES Count of Paris, who had bravely defended that city againſt the Normans, was advanced to the throne of France, Italy, and the reſt of the French territories, which had abundance of pretenders to them, who vaniſhed in a little time.

EUDES King of France, 888.

Abundance of petty ſovereigns here.

The kingdom of France was in a very indifferent ſtate when EUDES had the name of King of it. Every Duke and Count looked upon himſelf as ſovereign of the territories he governed, and made war upon each other without any regard to the French King, filling all places with blood and devaſtation; while the Normans, on the other hand, ravaged the country from one end to the other. The Lords indeed were obliged to aſſiſt the King with a certain number of troops when he demanded them; but if they were in a different intereſt they frequently diſobeyed his ſummons. And this time we find them caballing and confederating againſt EUDES, whom they had but a little before elected their King, and ſetting up againſt him CHARLES the ſon of LEWIS the Stammerer, an infant, who ſhared the kingdom of France with EUDES till he died, which happened in the year 898, when CHARLES, ſurnamed the Simple, ſucceeded to the whole.

CHARLES the Simple, 898.

Part of Neuſtria granted to the Normans, 911.

The firſt remarkable thing in this reign is the ceſſion of that part of Neuſtria now called Normandy, to ROLLO, a Prince or General of the Normans, whom the French ſtile the moſt powerful of all the Norman chiefs who had harraſſed their country. He kept them in perpetual alarms, marching his troops from province to province, till he became ſo formidable, that deputations were ſent to the King from all parts, deſiring him to purchaſe peace of ROLLO on any terms; and a treaty being ſet on foot, a peace was concluded upon the following conditions: 1. That the country now called Normandy ſhould be granted to ROLLO and his heirs; and as it had been pretty much ruined by his troops, Bretagne alſo ſhould be put into his hands till the country had recovered it ſelf. 2. That ROLLO ſhould become a Chriſtian. And, 3. That the French King ſhould give him his daughter GISELA in marriage. Which articles were duly performed in the years 911 and 912.

The German Empire becomes elective, and diſtinct from France.

ARNULPH King of Germany had procured himſelf to be declared Emperor, which title he enjoyed three years; but leaving no legitimate iſſue, the German Princes elected CONRAD Duke of Franconia for their Emperor. From this time therefore we may look upon the Empire of Germany to be elective, and France a diſtinct kingdom. The ſucceeding Emperors may be found in the State of Germany. But to proceed in the hiſtory of France: CHARLES the Simple, it ſeems, was a ſoft good-natured Prince, and ſuffered his nobility to encroach on his prerogative, and impoſe upon him to that degree, that at length they dethroned him, and advanced Duke ROBERT to the crown, brother of the late King EUDES. ROBERT was killed in a pitched battle with CHARLES ſoon after: but HUGH the ſon of ROBERT, afterwards called HUGH the Great, maintained the fight againſt the King, and entirely routed his army. The French Lords hereupon offered the crown to HUGH, who for ſome reaſons declined the honour himſelf, and recommended RODOLPH Duke of Burgundy, his ſiſter's huſband, for their ſovereign, whom they accepted: while HERBERT Count of Vermandois, a treacherous courtier, who had been moſt inſtrumental in this revolution, kept the unfortunate King CHARLES priſoner at Chateau-Thierry.

Robert crown'd.

Rodolph crown'd.

RODOLPH had a reign of perpetual vexation; ſometimes attacked by the Emperor of Germany; at others, by the Dukes of Normandy and Aquitain; and the faithleſs HERBERT, Count of Vermandois, not thinking his treachery ſufficiently rewarded, threatned to reſtore CHARLES to his throne, which gave him abundance of diſquiet, till the death of that unfortunate Prince, which happened in the year 929. RODOLPH dying without iſſue in the year 935, the French Lords ſent for LEWIS the ſon of CHARLES the Simple from England (whither his mother OGIVA, the ſiſter of King ATHELSTAN, fled with him on the dethroning of her huſband) and crowned him at Rheims. He had remained in exile thirteen years, and was about ſixteen years of age at his advancement to the throne. HUGH the Great, already mentioned, took upon him the adminiſtration of affairs; at which the young King ſeemed impatient, diſmiſſed HUGH from his employment, and ſent for his mother OGIVA from England, to aſſiſt him with her advice: HUGH hereupon entered into a conſpiracy with ſome other Lords, and maintained a rebellion for ſeveral years againſt his Sovereign. But theſe troubles were at length accommodated by the mediation of the Duke of Normandy, who happening to die ſoon after he had performed this friendly office, the French King very baſely ſeized upon his ſon, the heir of his dominions, with an intent to have deprived him of them. But the governor of the young Prince had ſome notice of it, and fled with him into Normandy, where he raiſed an army for his defence. The French King marched againſt him, and being drawn into the country under pretence of a treaty, was made priſoner in his turn, but was releaſed from his confinement on confirming Normandy to the Duke, and releaſing him of all future ſervices on account of that duchy. The King was no ſooner ſet at liberty in Normandy, but HUGH the Great made him a priſoner again: nor would he releaſe him till he obliged that Prince to deliver up Laon, which was almoſt the only city he was maſter of. The reſt of his reign he continued to be inſulted by HUGH and his confederates, whom he ſometimes revenged himſelf upon by the aſſiſtance of the Emperor OTHO, but could never entirely ſuppreſs the factions that were formed againſt him. He was killed by a fall from his horſe as he was hunting, in the nineteenth year of his reign, and the thirty-third of his age, anno 954, leaving behind him two ſons, viz. LOTHAIRE and CHARLES, LOTHAIRE ſucceeding to all his dominions: whereas 'tis obſerved, that before this time the French Kings uſed to divide their territories among their ſons.

Lewis IV crown'd, 936.

Lothaire ſucceeds his father Lewis, 954.

LOTHAIRE was crowned, but HUGH the Great, as he was called, had the adminiſtration of the government: nothing was tranſacted at court without him. And tho' he was already Duke of France, Count of Paris and Orleans, and Duke of Burgundy, he would not be contented till he had procured a grant of the duchy of Aquitain, to the prejudice of the Count of Poitiers, which if he had gotten poſſeſſion of, would have made him maſter of the beſt part of France. The Count of Poitiers refuſing to deliver up Aquitain, HUGH obliged the King to make war upon him: but to the great ſatisfaction both of the King and the Count, HUGH died in June 955, whereby they were both delivered from his tyranny. Nor would his ambition have ſtopped here: it is not at all doubted but he had a deſign upon the crown, and only waited a proper opportunity to uſurp it. He left four ſons, the eldeſt of which was HUGH, ſurnamed CAPET, afterwards King, to whom he left the counties of Paris and Orleans. The ſecond was OTHO, who ſucceeded him in the duchy of Burgundy: and the other two, viz. EUDES and HENRY, were ſucceſſively Dukes of Burgundy after the death of OTHO.

It is obſerved of King LOTHAIRE, that he was a Prince without territories: that many of his vaſſals had greater poſſeſſions than himſelf; for Laon was almoſt the only city he had a property in. During moſt of his reign he was but a ſpectator, and ſometimes arbiter of the differences of the petty ſovereigns, who gave him the title of King, while they plundered and pillaged each other's lands, took and retook cities, and ſometimes came to a pitched battle, without any regard to him: and it was well if his own demeſns did not ſometimes ſuffer by their inſults. And what was very unfortunate for the Kings of this ſecond line was, that having very few cities or territories that depended immediately on themſelves, and the royal armies being always compoſed of forces which belonged to the great Lords, the King was often at their diſcretion, and forced to purchaſe their aſſiſtance on ſuch terms as he could.

Lothaire therefore to remedy theſe inconveniencies, conſidered how he might enlarge his territories. The moſt popular way he could think of was by driving the Normans out of the kingdom, and ſeizing the countries they poſſeſſed; which he attempted firſt by way of ſurprize; and that failing, he declared open war with Richard Duke of Normandy, who was ſo provoked at this uſage, that he ravaged the reſt of the kingdom of France in a moſt terrible manner, inſomuch that the nobility and clergy begged of the King to clap up a peace, which the Duke at length yielded to, on condition that the French King would reſtore what he had taken, and confirm the grant of Normandy to him.

Lothaire met with better ſucceſs in another place: for Arnulph, Count of Flanders, ſucceeding to that earldom, and being ſummoned to pay his homage, or, as ſome ſay, to furniſh his quota of troops, and refuſing to obey the ſummons, the King entered Flanders at the head of a powerful army, and ſeized upon the earldom as forfeited. He afterwards governed the kingdom of France in peace for many years, till a diſpute about Lorrain with the Emperor Otho, engaged him in a new war, that was carried on with various ſucceſs, and continued almoſt to his death, that happened in the forty-ſeventh year of his age, and the thirty-ſecond of his reign, anno 986. He had procured his eldeſt ſon Lewis to be recognized King during his life-time, and at his death recommended him to the Lords, and particularly to Hugh Capet, ſo little was he apprized of his ambitious views. Lewis reigned but a year and three months, ſuppoſed by ſome to be poiſoned; and leaving no children, ſhould have been ſucceeded by Charles Duke of Lorrain, his father's brother: but Hugh Capet ſtepped into the throne, and begun the third line of the Kings of France, from whom his preſent majeſty Lewis XV deſcended; of which event the French hiſtorians give the following account. There had been a diſpute between the Emperor and the French about the duchy of Lorrain, as hath been obſerved already; and Prince Charles, brother of Lewis the late King, had accepted it of the Emperor upon condition of becoming his vaſſal; which ſo provoked the French nobility, that they entertained an averſion to him. While, on the other hand, Hugh Capet had ſo diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his courage and prudence in the two laſt reigns, that he was become the darling of the people, and looked upon as the only man that could protect them againſt their enemies. True it is, this family had long been in the adminiſtration, and had the command of their armies, which gave them great opportunities of forming their intereſts, and opening a way to the crown, which they aimed at for ſeveral generations, and now found an opportunity of uſurping, when the heir of the crown was at a diſtance, and ſufficiently blackened, no doubt, by their artifices. But Prince Charles did not eaſily relinquiſh his pretenſions; for he entered France with an army, and beſieged Laon, one of the ſtrongeſt and moſt important towns in the kingdom, and made himſelf maſter of the place. Whereupon Hugh, who had been proclaimed King by his party, came and beſieged him. Charles did not only make a brave defence here, but ſallied out with the beſt of his troops, forced the enemies trenches, and cut their army in pieces; Hugh himſelf eſcaping with great difficulty. He afterwards over-run the Soiſſonois, took Rheims and ſeveral other towns, and probably had found means to aſcend the throne of his anceſtors, if he had not been betrayed by the villainous Biſhop of Laon, who let the enemy into that city when they were not expected to be near it; and thus the unhappy Charles was made a priſoner, and probably ſoon after murdered, for he was never heard of more: whereupon Hugh Capet governed for the future without a competitor. This was the glorious beginning of that houſe which the French ſeem to adore, and from whence the preſent King is deſcended. By the encomiums every where given to this and other uſurpers by hiſtorians, one would be tempted to think, that murder and rebellion were virtues, and that killing or depoſing an innocent Prince, and taking poſſeſſion of his dominions, conſtituted a heroe: for ſuch are moſt of the heroes we meet with on record.

Lewis V, anno 986.

Hugh Capet uſurps the throne 987.

Hugh Capet, 'tis obſerved, begun his reign with greater advantage than many of the former Kings, on account of his having larger demeſns. He was in his own right poſſeſſed of the duchy of France, and the counties of Paris and Orleans; and the duchy of Burgundy he was ſecure of, as being in the hands of his brother: ſo that he could raiſe a conſiderable force without being obliged to his vaſſals, and was in a condition to keep the greateſt of them in awe. Accordingly we are told that he made a greater figure than his predeceſſors, and ſettled his government ſo firmly, that during the ten years he reigned there was not one inſurrection againſt him. But it ſeems he contented himſelf with reſtoring tranquillity to the diſtracted country, keeping the nobility within bounds, and cultivating the acts of peace, for which he is highly applauded by the French; and did not trouble himſelf about extending the bounds of his dominions; making good the old proverb, The worſe title the better King. And true it is, uſurpers are generally obliged to do abundance of popular things to obtain the affections of their new ſubjects; for where the people find themſelves under an equitable and gentle adminiſtration, they don't much trouble themſelves about the title of the Prince. On the other hand, where a uſurper deſpairs of bringing the people into his intereſts, he is obliged to govern them with a rod of iron; by ſtanding armies, grievous taxes, and other oppreſſions, that they may not be in a condition to conteſt his title. Hugh Capet was ſucceeded by his ſon Robert, who in the beginning of his reign met with ſome diſturbance from the Pope. He had married a near relation, and refuſing to part with her, his Holineſs thought fit to excommunicate him. Nor would he be reconciled till he diſmiſſed the lady; whereupon the King married another named Constantia, a turbulent woman, who gave him a great deal of uneaſineſs. The Pope alſo obliged King Robert to ſet the Archbiſhop of Rheims at liberty, whom his father had impriſoned; ſuch an influence had the Pope over Chriſtian Princes in this age. And as he found he ſhould never enjoy his dominions in quiet without keeping in good terms with the Holy See, he proceeded to perſecute, and even to condemn to the flames, a ſet of people whom the Church were pleaſed to denominate hereticks; though I perceive by their own writers, their principles were the ſame with the Albigenſes; of whom the Proteſtant world

Robert ſucceeds his father Hugh Capet, anno 996.

Perſecutes the Albigenſes.

have a very favourable opinion. There was little more remarkable in this reign, unleſs ſome wars between the vaſſal Princes; and a rebellion of two of the King's ſons againſt him, by the inſtigation of their mother CONSTANTIA; which was ſuppreſſed without much blood-ſhed. This Prince died in the ſixty-firſt year of his age, anno 1031. He had three ſons, HUGH, HENRY, and ROBERT, (of whom, HUGH he aſſociated with him in the kingdom, but he died before him) and a daughter named ALIX, or ADELA, married to RICHARD III, Duke of Normandy.

HENRY I, anno 1031.

HENRY I, ſucceeded his father; againſt whom the Queen-mother CONSTANTIA entered into a confederacy with her younger ſon ROBERT, and obliged the King to fly to the Duke of Normandy for protection: but he was ſoon after reſtored to his throne by the aſſiſtance of that Prince; and his mother dying, he took his brother ROBERT into his favour, and either made or confirmed him Duke of Burgundy; and in gratitude to the Duke of Normandy, for the aſſiſtance he had given him in his diſtreſs, he transferred over to him the cities of Giſors, Chaumont, and Pontoiſe, with all the Vexin Norman. And that intimacy there appears to have been between theſe two Princes, that the Duke of Normandy choſe to commit his ſon WILLIAM to the French King's care while he went a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. This was that WILLIAM afterwards ſurnamed the Conqueror, from his conqueſt of England. He was indeed illegitimate, but ſucceeded to Normandy by the donation of his father. The Princes of thoſe times taking the liberty of diſpoſing of their territories to whom they ſaw fit, eſpecially if they had no legitimate iſſue. ROBERT Duke of Normandy happening to die in his return from the Holy Land, we find the French King acting a very odd part; ſometimes in the intereſt of young Duke WILLIAM, and at others in an alliance with thoſe who diſputed his title, on account of their deſcent from former Dukes. However, Duke WILLIAM, having defeated King HENRY and his allies in a deciſive battle, gained a mighty reputation, and enjoyed his dominions in peace till his expedition into England, which he conquered in the year 1066. There is little more remarkable in the reign of HENRY I, unleſs a rebellion formed againſt him by his brother EUDES, which he had the good fortune to ſuppreſs. Finding himſelf very ill, he aſſociated with him his eldeſt ſon PHILIP, in the government in the year 1059, who was then about ſeven years of age, and died the following year, being the thirtieth of his reign.

WILLIAM Duke of Normandy defeats the French King.

PHILIP I, anno 1060.

PHILIP the firſt took all opportunities of leſſening the power of the Duke of Normandy, and inciting the neighbouring Princes againſt him; ſometimes he encouraged the Duke of Bretagne to renounce all dependance on Normandy, (for Bretagne as well as Normandy was granted to ROLLO,) ſometimes he joined his forces with ROBERT the conqueror's ſon, who was in rebellion againſt his father, and after the death of the conqueror he kept up the diviſions and miſunderſtandings among his children: but there happened an occurrence in his own family which had liked to have rendered him incapable of intermeddling with the affairs of his neighbours; PHILIP having fallen in love with BERTRADE the wife of the Earl of Anjou, took the liberty to divorce his firſt wife, by whom he had ſeveral children, and marry BERTRADE; whereupon he was excommunicated by the Pope, and begun to be contemned by his ſubjects; which put him upon aſſociating with him his ſon LEWIS in the government, who being a prudent and active Prince, kept the great Lords within the bounds of their duty, and reſtored the credit of his father's adminiſtration: but BERTRADE, who had children by the King, ſtudied all means to deſtroy this young Prince and advance her own, and when nothing elſe would do fairly, gave him a doſe of poiſon, which being timely diſcovered, his life was preſerved with a great deal of difficulty; but his conſtitution appeared to be broken, and he always looked very pale afterwards. Notwithſtanding this vile attempt, the poor old doting King procured a reconciliation between his ſon LEWIS and this execrable woman, and had a licence of the Pope to retain her for his wife upon the death of his firſt Queen. But the moſt remarkable thing which happened in this reign was the ſetting on foot the cruſado's: ALEXIS the Grecian Emperor had deſired the aſſiſtance of the Pope and the Chriſtian Princes of the weſt againſt the Mahometans, who were become maſters of all the Leſſer Aſia, and advanced even to the ſhores of the Boſphorus over againſt Conſtantinople. The Pope and clergy immediately preached up the merit of defending chriſtendom againſt the infidels, and propoſed the conquering even of Jeruſalem and the Holy Land, and reſcuing the ſepulchre of our bleſſed Saviour out of their impious hands; and this in ſo moving a manner, that all Europe ſeemed impatient to enter upthat holy war.

Cruſado's firſt ſet on foot.

An innumerable multitude of people of all conditions and ſexes immediately took the croſs for their badge: the moſt backward ſeem to have been the Kings of this part of the world, there was not one of this exalted dignity in the firſt expedition; but a great number of Princes and Lords, eſpecially of the French, Flemmings, and Germans: the chief of theſe were HUGH Count of Vermandois, the King's brother, ROBERT Duke of Normandy, ſon of the Conqueror, RAYMOND Count of Thoulouſe, ROBERT Count of Flanders, STEPHEN Count of Blois and Chartres, and the celebrated GODFREY of Bouillon Duke of Lorrain, with EUSTACHIUS and BALDWIN his brothers; and an infinite number of Lords and gentlemen, that drew almoſt whole provinces after them. They began their march in the year 1096. Beſides thoſe who went as ſoldiers, there were old men, women, children, prieſts and monks, engaged in the enterprize, not leſs than ſeven or eight hundred thouſand ſouls of all nations; moſt of whom had very little conſidered the length of the journey, or how they ſhould ſubſiſt till they came into the enemies country; and, in fact, one half of them periſhed before they arrived there; if periſhing be a proper term where the people were infallibly ſure of being received into Paradiſe as ſoon as they left this world.

As they obſerved very little diſcipline, many of them were deſtroyed even in the Chriſtian countries through which they paſſed, by the ſword, ſickneſs, or famine; and thoſe of them that arrived at Conſtantinople, and had procured veſſels to tranſport them to the oppoſite ſhore, were many of them cut to-pieces as ſoon as they landed, for want of conduct; but theſe, 'tis true, were for the moſt part a confuſed multitude, the fore-runners of the army; the Princes and generals, who had been uſed to military exploits, marched with more caution. GODFREY of Bouillon, and other commanders, who obſerved an exact diſcipline, arrived at Conſtantinople with their troops

Nice in Bythinia taken from the Turks.

troops in petty good condition. And indeed they appeared ſo numerous upon their rendezvous, that they put the Grecian Emperor into the utmoſt conſternation. He began to ſtand much more in fear of them than he did of the infidels, and inſtead of joining his arms with theirs, took all opportunities underhand to diſtreſs the forces engaged in the cruſado: he durſt not deny the generals ſhipping to tranſport their troops, 'tis true, leſt they ſhould make him ſenſible of their reſentment; and perhaps he thought this the readieſt way to get rid of them: but notwithſtanding all their loſſes and difficulties, when they came to draw up their troops upon the Aſiatick ſhore, they found they had ſtill near an hundred thouſand horſe, and almoſt twice that number of foot; whereupon they immediately laid ſiege to Nice in Bythinia, almoſt over-againſt Conſtantinople, and the uſual place of Sultan SOLIMAN's reſidence. The Sultan marched to the relief of the town, but was defeated; whereupon the place capitulated, and was put into the Emperor's hands, as had been agreed on when he engaged to furniſh them with ſhipping and proviſions, and to join them with his forces.

Antioch taken.

From Nice, the Chriſtian Princes advanced to beſiege Antioch, and SOLIMAN oppoſing their march with an army of two hundred thouſand men, they gained a compleat victory, and had the plunder of his camp, which was very rich; after which they over-ran great part of the Leſſer Aſia, and having made themſelves maſters of Antioch, ſent to the Emperor to join his forces with them as he had promiſed; inſtead of which he only ſent them complaints, becauſe Antioch was not delivered into his hands. Whereupon they reſolved to have no concern with him, but to act independently of the Greeks for the future.

Jeruſalem taken.

From Antioch theſe heroes marched to Jeruſalem, which they inveſted; though it is ſaid their numbers were ſo diminiſhed, that they did not amount to fifty thouſand men, and that the garriſon in the town was as numerous. But it ſeems, a fleet of Engliſh, Normans, Flemmings, and Genoeſe, luckily arrived at this time with ſupplies, which gave freſh vigour to the Chriſtian army; who making an aſſault upon the outward wall, carried it ſword in hand. At another attack, which had laſted from break of day to noon, when the beſiegers began to faint, and give way, the famous GODFREY of Bouillon encouraged them, with an aſſurance of ſucceſs; pretending he had ſeen an horſeman deſcending from the clouds, and that heaven fought on their ſide: which ſo animated the troops, that they carried all before them, and the town was taken by ſtorm.

The celebrated GODFREY, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his conduct and bravery thro' the whole expedition, was by univerſal conſent crowned King of Jeruſalem, who afterwards made Ptolemais, Ceſarea, Antipatris, Aſkalon, and other cities, tributary to him: but did not live to enjoy his kingdom more than one year. He was ſucceeded by his brother BALDWIN: and freſh detachments of Chriſtians arriving every day, who were encouraged to take the croſs upon them by the news of the taking of Jeruſalem, BALDWIN conquered ſeveral other cities and provinces, making a large addition to his dominions.

But to return to PHILIP King of France; the greateſt advantage he and his ſucceſſors made by theſe cruſado's, ſeems to be the uniting ſome fiefs to the crown; for ſeveral of the great Lords mortgaged or ſold their territories to the King, to enable them to undertake the cruſado; and we find ROBERT Duke of Normandy engaged his duchy to his brother the King of England, with the ſame view.

France enjoyed a perfect tranquillity during the laſt ten years of PHILIP's reign, who died in the 57th year of his age, anno 1108, leaving his dominions to his ſon LEWIS VI, ſirnamed the Groſs.

LEWIS VI, anno 1108.

The beginning of the reign of LEWIS VI, was diſturbed by ſome inſurrections and rebellions promoted by his mother-in-law, and her ſon, but he had the good fortune to ſuppreſs them. HENRY I, King of England, proved a much more formidable enemy; for having aſcended the throne of England while his brother ROBERT was engaged in the cruſado to the Holy-Land; he alſo deprived that Prince of the duchy of Normandy at his return, and made him priſoner: and having formed an alliance with the Duke of Bretagne, and Earl of Anjou, he attacked the frontiers of France, and took Giſors. The war between the Engliſh and French monarchs laſted many years, in which the Engliſh, according to their own writers, were generally victorious; and yet the French pretend, that upon the concluſion of the peace, the King of England ſubmitted to do homage for the duchy of Normandy: which ought to be well proved before it is entirely credited. In theſe diſputes between France and England, King LEWIS made great uſe of WILLIAM CLITO, as he was called, the ſon of ROBERT Duke of Normandy, to draw off the Norman Lords from their allegiance to King HENRY. He gave him the Vexin François upon the frontiers of Normandy, and afterwards the county of Flanders; but this unhappy Prince could never recover the inheritance of his father. He died of a ſlight wound in his hand, which happened to gangreen, according to the French writers.

LEWIS VII, 1137.

LEWIS VI, died in the year 1137, leaving five ſons and one daughter, of whom LEWIS his eldeſt ſon ſucceeded him.

Under-takes a cruſado with the German Emperor.

The crown of England being diſputed by MAUD the Empreſs, and STEPHEN of Bologne, France had time to breathe in the beginning of the reign of LEWIS VII, who found his dominions in a ſtate of ſuch tranquillity, that he thought it a proper ſeaſon to undertake a cruſado in perſon to the Holy-Land; and CONRAD the Emperor of Germany agreed to join with him in the enterprize.

The Chriſtians, who had now been in poſſeſſion of the Holy Land and the adjacent countries for forty years, had formed out of them four conſiderable ſtates, viz. 1. That of Edeſſa, which comprehended the countries on the banks of the Euphrates. 2. The diſtrict of Tripoli, which lay in the neighbourhood of the ſea. 3. The diſtrict of Antioch. And, 4. The kingdom of Jeruſalem. And had the Princes of theſe ſeveral territories been unanimous, they would have been able to have maintained their ground againſt the Mahometans: but falling out among themſelves, SANGUIN, ſultan of Aleppo, and afterwards NORADIN his ſon, made great advantages of their ill-timed diſputes, and recovered moſt of the conqueſts they had made; which occaſioned the King of Jeruſalem and the Prince of Antioch to deſire ſuccours of the European Chriſtians, and gave birth to this ſecond cruſado.

The Emperor Conrad was firſt ready, and began his march in Eaſter, 1147, with an army of an hundred thouſand men, of whom ſeventy thouſand were horſe, armed back and breaſt. When he arrived on the frontiers of the Grecian Empire, he found but a very indifferent reception from the ſubjects of the Emperor Manuel Commenius: they cut off the ſtragglers of the army, and refuſed to furniſh Conrad's troops with proviſions but at exceſſive rates: and in ſome places their diſputes aroſe to ſuch an height, that they were upon the point of coming to a general battle. And it muſt be confeſſed, that the Grecian Emperor, if he was not conſulted in this affair, had reaſon to be upon his guard; and might very well entertain apprehenſions, that theſe mighty preparations were deſigned againſt his dominions. The difference of religion alſo between the Greeks and Latins might contribute to heighten their averſion to each other. Nor was it at all improbable, if the Emperor Conrad had met with ſucceſs in this expedition, but he would have put what terms he pleaſed upon the Greeks; and the Pope and weſtern Churches would have been for forming their Church after the model of their own, and reducing the whole Chriſtian world under one ſpiritual head. We cannot therefore entirely blame the Grecian Emperors for diſcouraging theſe cruſado's; tho' the treacherous part they acted in Aſia afterwards, if the French and German accounts are to be credited, are never to be juſtified. To proceed therefore, the Emperor Manuel having furniſhed Conrad with veſſels to tranſport his army croſs the Helleſpont, ſupplyed him alſo with treacherous guides, who led them into ambuſcades, and in effect delivered up this fine army a prey to the Mahometans; inſomuch that after they had traverſed the greateſt part of the Leſſer Aſia, and undergone inconceivable hardſhips, Conrad found himſelf obliged to return to the Helleſpont again, having loſt more than three parts of his forces; where he had the ſatisfaction indeed of meeting with the French King at the head of much ſuch an army as he had loſt. The Emperor adviſed the French King to continue his march by the ſea-coaſts, to prevent his being ſurrounded by the Mahometans; which precaution he obſerved for ſome time, paſſing by Smyrna and Epheſus: but finding it very troubleſome croſſing the mouths of rivers, he altered his march, and turned off into the inland country, where the Turks being poſſeſſed of all the paſſes, deſtroyed moſt part of his army, and the King with a very few of his Lords eſcaped to Antioch, after which he proceeded to pay his devotions at Jeruſalem, and returned to France. The Emperor Conrad alſo found means to viſit our Saviour's ſepulchre privately, before he returned to Germany: and thus ended all theſe mighty preparations for ſubduing the infidels.

But I muſt not forget an adventure in this expedition, which afterwards had a conſiderable influence on the kingdoms of France and England. Lewis had married Eleanor, the heireſs of Guienne and Gaſcony, frequently called the kingdom of Aquitain, and thereby made a conſiderable addition to his dominions. She was a beautiful princeſs, of whom he was infinitely fond, which induced him to take her along with him to the Holy-Land: but unluckily at Antioch ſhe engaged in an amour with the Prince of that territory, who was her Uncle. So open they were in the matter, that the King ſeemed fully convinced of their criminal correſpondence, and was forced to make uſe of a ſtratagem to bring her away with him. At his return he procured a divorce, tho' he had two children by her, and was forced to return her the territories ſhe brought in marriage. Henry Duke of Normandy, ſon of the Empreſs Maud, finding the lady at liberty, ſtruck up a match with her within ſix weeks after the divorce, by which means he added to his dominions Aquitain, Maine, &c. and became as formidable to Stephen his competitor in England, as he was to Lewis in France, who thereupon entered into a confederacy againſt him. But Henry maintained his ground againſt both of them: and Stephen having buried his ſon Euſtachius, and finding the Engliſh weary of the war, entered into a treaty with Henry, wherein 'twas agreed, that Stephen ſhould enjoy the crown of England during his life, and that Henry ſhould ſucceed him.

Henry II, Duke of Normandy, adds Aquitain to his other dominions, and ſucceeds to the crown of England.

Stephen dying not long after, Henry came with the title and equipage of a King, ſay the French hiſtorians, to do homage to Lewis, who ought to have trembled when he received it, it being for Normandy, Aquitain, Anjou, Touraine, Maine, &c. that is, for the beſt part of the kingdom, which he was in effect abſolute maſter of. Thierry of Alſatia alſo making a journey to the Holy-Land, left the guardianſhip of his ſon Philip, Flanders, and all his other territories, to the care of King Henry; ſo that Lewis was hemmed in by him on every ſide. But the affair of Thomas à Becket, Archbiſhop of Canterbury, happening about the ſame time, gave the King of England ſo much vexation, that he had not an opportunity of making thoſe advantages he might otherwiſe have reaped by the vaſt increaſe of his dominions.

Archbiſhop Becket being aſſaſſinated by ſome who thought to do King Henry good ſervice, he was threatned with an excommunication by the Pope; whereupon the King cauſed his Son Henry to be proclaimed King, to prevent any ill conſequences: but this ſtep had near occaſioned the loſs of his crown, for young Henry having the name of King, and none of the power, was incited by the Queen and the French King to raiſe a rebellion againſt his father, into which his brothers Richard and Geoffrey were alſo drawn, with many of the French and Engliſh nobility. But the conduct and bravery of King Henry was ſuch, that he reduced his rebellious Queen and ſons, defeated his enemies, and preſcribed what terms of peace he ſaw fit to them. The two kingdoms being in full peace, King Lewis, called Lewis the Pious, deſired leave of the King of England to come in pilgrimage to the tomb of Thomas à Becket at Canterbury, to perform his devotions for the health of his ſon Philip, which was complyed with; and heaven, ſay the French hiſtorians, was pleaſed to hear the prayers of the devout King upon this occaſion; his ſon's health was reſtored! ſo meritorious was the interceſſion of Thomas à Becket thought in a very few years. The following year, 1180, King Lewis died at Paris in the ſixtieth year of his age, and the forty-fourth of his reign, being ſucceeded by his ſon Philip, ſurnamed Auguſtus by ſome of their hiſtorians; but this title was never given him during his reign.

Philip Auguſtus, anno 1180.

Philip began his reign with baniſhing the Jews, and perſecuting the Albigenſes, whom the French writers call Hereticks. Next we find him inciting and encouraging Richard and John, the ſons of Henry King of England, in their rebellion againſt their father; and after the death of HENRY, he became no leſs an enemy to his ſon RICHARD, who had been his ally; but the Pope perſuaded them to lay aſide their private quarrels, and join in a cruſado for recovery of the Holy-Land, which was almoſt loſt through the diſſenſions of the Chriſtian Princes on that ſide.

He engages in a cruſado with RICHARD King of England.

The armies did not take the ſame rout as in the preceding wars; but were tranſported to Paleſtine by ſea, and Sicily was appointed by the two Kings for the palace of rendezvous. The French King embarked at Genoa, and RICHARD King of England at Marſeilles; and finding the year pretty far advanced when their forces arrived in Sicily, it was thought convenient to winter there. Here aroſe a miſunderſtanding between the two Kings, which the French aſcribe to King RICHARD's refuſing to marry ALICE the French King's ſiſter according to his engagements; but RICHARD making it appear, that this Princeſs had been faulty in her conduct, King PHILIP ſeemed to be ſatisfied. Some of the French writers go ſo far as to ſay, that this Princeſs had a child by King HENRY II, RICHARD's father; and the Engliſh hiſtorians ſuggeſt ſomething of the ſame nature: but however that matter was, the two Kings were never afterwards heartily reconciled. In the following ſpring, they ſailed to Paleſtine, and aſſiſted in the ſiege of Acon or Ptolemais; where there were perpetual miſunderſtandings between them. They agreed however to attack the place by turns; and when one of them was buſied in carrying on the ſiege, the other defended the lines againſt Sultan SALADIN, who lay within a bow-ſhot of their camp. At length the town being taken, the two Kings divided it between them and had each their governor in it. The ſummer not being half ſpent, it was expected theſe Princes would have entered upon ſome further action; but the French King, who ſeems all along to have had ſome baſe treacherous views with regard to King RICHARD, reſolved to return to Europe, leaving only a ſmall body of troops in Paleſtine, under the command of EUDES of Burgundy. King RICHARD had that precaution indeed before he went, to make King PHILIP ſwear, that he would undertake nothing againſt his dominions in his abſence; but there are not many inſtances in hiſtory, where the French Kings have kept their oaths or promiſes longer with the Engliſh, than they have found their intereſt in obſerving them; at leaſt thus it happened on this occaſion. The King of England remained a year after him in Paleſtine, and made ſome further conqueſts; he had continued there longer, if he had not received intelligence of the practices of King PHILIP and his brother JOHN againſt his dominions; and as he was haſtening home to prevent the conſequences of this confederacy, he was detained by LEOPOLD Duke of Auſtria, and put into the hands of HENRY VI, the German Emperor, with whom he remained a priſoner upwards of a year, by the artifices of PHILIP, who ſpared no treaſure to prevent his returning to his kingdom. In the mean time he incited JOHN to mount the throne of England, and promiſed him his aſſiſtance in it, upon condition he would become his vaſſal. Accordingly JOHN paid his homage to him for his brother's territories in France; and ſome of the French writers affirm, for England alſo. JOHN went over to England, and gave out that his brother RICHARD was dead, demanding to be acknowledged their Sovereign; which ſome of the Lords did, but moſt of them continued unſhaken in their loyalty. PHILIP in the mean time did not only uſe his utmoſt endeavours to get King RICHARD put into his hands, but entered Normandy with an army, and ſeized on ſeveral towns and provinces belonging to the Engliſh. The Emperor having ſqueezed what money he could out of the French King, begun to liſten to the propoſals which were made him by the Engliſh for the ranſom of their Sovereign; and having worked them up to an immenſe ſum, gave that Prince his liberty, without conſulting PHILIP in the matter.

The practices of King PHILIP againſt King RICHARD.

RICHARD being returned to England, and having drawn off his brother JOHN from PHILIP's intereſt, went over into Normandy, to revenge the treachery of his faithleſs ally. He defeated him in ſeveral battles, retook the towns he had loſt, and had probably made him pay very dear for his breach of faith, but was unfortunately killed at the ſiege of the caſtle of Chalons. Indeed, the French writers relate extravagant ſtories of the conduct and bravery of their Prince, as that he gained a victory over the Emperor's troops at Bovines in Flanders, (who was become the King of England's ally,) when the numbers were three to one againſt him. But they all agree, that King RICHARD died in very good time for PHILIP; and that if he had lived much longer, their auguſt Monarch would have run the hazard of being driven from his throne: whereas the ſudden death of this Prince furniſhed him with glorious work, and gave him an opportunity of enlarging and eſtabliſhing the French empire. I muſt confeſs his firſt attempt had a plauſible appearance: he pretended to aſſert the rights of King ARTHUR againſt the uſurpations of his uncle JOHN, who had raviſhed from him both his Engliſh and French dominions. But it appears pretty evident from the event, that PHILIP's real intention was to ſet one againſt the other, that he might enlarge his own territories at the expence of both of them; a game that the French have ever played, when the Engliſh have been divided into factions.

RICHARD was no ſooner dead, but the hero PHILIP, as the French writers call him, had the courage to march into Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and the reſt of the Engliſh provinces, burning and deſtroying the country with fire and ſword, and poſſeſſing himſelf of all the defenceleſs places. JOHN, who had procured himſelf to be proclamed King of England, having a defective title, and ill-beloved by his ſubjects, was not able to reſiſt the torrent. He drew an army together however, defeated the forces of his nephew Prince ARTHUR, and made him priſoner; and if we may credit ſome French writers, he murdered him with own hand: certain it is, that Prince never obtained his liberty afterwards. This gave King PHILIP a handle to ſummon King JOHN before him and the Peers of France, to anſwer to a charge of felony and murder, in ſeizing his nephew Prince ARTHUR's territories, and afterwards taking away his life. And JOHN not appearing, the Peers, by the direction of PHILIP, adjudged him guilty of the charge, and that he had forfeited all his dominions in France. JOHN having his hands full in England, could not prevent the French King's making himſelf maſter of Normandy, and ſeveral other fine provinces, under pretence of that ſentence; but the Engliſh retained however that part of France, which was called

The Engliſh deprived of Normandy, anno 1202.

Aquitain, now Guienne and Gaſcony, with Rochelle, and the country contiguous to it.

A cruſado againſt the Albigenſes, anno 1208.

The next remarkable thing in the reign of King Philip, was the Pope's publiſhing a cruſado againſt the Albigenſes, a people who oppoſed the idolatry and other errors of the Church of Rome. They were poſſeſſed of Languedoc and all South France, extending themſelves into Piedmont in the eaſt, and to Spain on the weſt. The Pope, it ſeems, thought them ſo conſiderable, that nothing leſs than a cruſado could ſuppreſs them. He granted remiſſion of ſins therefore to all that would take up arms againſt them for forty days; ſo that theſe armies conſiſted of voluntiers only, who choſe the celebrated Simon Montfort for their General, and not of troops paid or commanded by the King. And tho' theſe armies conſiſted frequently of three or fourſcore thouſand men, yet was it ſome hundred of years before theſe Hereticks, as the French call them, were entirely ſuppreſſed: for not only the people, but their Princes, the Count de Thoulouſe, the Count de Foix, and other Sovereigns, were, in the Catholick phraſe, infected with it; and we find the Pope depriving them of their territories, and granting them to Catholick Lords by the connivance of Philip.

The French writers in their relations of theſe wars, give incredible accounts of the miraculous victories the Catholicks obtained over the Hereticks, particularly that at the ſiege of Moret, Simon Montfort made a ſally from the town with eight or nine hundred men, and gained a compleat victory over the King of Arragon, and other chiefs of the Albigenſes, who commanded an army of an hundred thouſand forces; only fit to amuſe women and children with. However, they admit, that their hero Simon Montfort, was knocked on the head at laſt, by a ſtone thrown from the walls of one of the towns he beſieged; and the poſterity of the Count de Thoulouſe found means to recover great part of the poſſeſſions of their anceſtors. Nor were the Albigenſes ever entirely ſuppreſſed, tho' the French King's ſon marched in perſon againſt them, exerciſed unheard-of cruelties on theſe poor people, and demoliſhed moſt of the caſtles and fortified places of the country, to prevent their taking ſhelter in them.

The Pope gives England to King Philip, an. 1213.

The French King had no ſooner broke the power of the Albigenſes, but he turned his eyes towards England, endeavouring to pick a new quarrel with King John; but the Pope ſaved him the labour: for King John having inſiſted on his right of nominating the Archbiſhop of Canterbury, his Holineſs, without any regard to the royal prerogative, appointed Stephen Langton to fill that See, whom the King refuſing to acknowledge, the Pope excommunicated him, publiſhed a ſentence of depoſition againſt him, and gave his dominions to King Philip. Whereupon, Philip aſſembled a fleet of ſeventeen hundred ſhips, and a proportionable land-army, in order to invade England; and that he might leave no enemy behind him, firſt fell upon the Earl of Flanders, who was in alliance with King John, and took the beſt part of his country from him. In the mean time, King John and the Earl got together all the ſhipping they could, and attacking the French fleet, while they lay on the coaſt of Flanders, and in the mouth of the Scheld, deſtroyed almoſt every ſhip in the fleet.

During theſe tranſactions, the Pope's Legate Pandulphus came to Dover, where he found King John, and offered him, that if he would conſent to hold his dominions of the Pope, he would oppoſe any further attempts of the French King. He accepted the propoſal, and his Holineſs immediately prohibited Philip to act any more in a hoſtile manner againſt England, for that it was become a fee of the Holy See. The French King, however, permitted his ſon Lewis, to accept the invitation of the diſaffected Lords in England, who actually proclaimed him King in London, and he maintained a war againſt King John till he died; though the Pope excommunicated Lewis and all his adherents.

The French driven out of England, an. 1217.

It was generally expected, that the death of King John would have fixed Lewis upon the throne of England; but it was ſo far from it, that the Engliſh united themſelves upon the death of this Prince, drove out the French, and proclaimed Henry the ſon of John their King; which put an end to the hopes the French had of adding England to their Empire.

The death and character of Philip.

After this the two nations lived in peace till the death of Philip Auguſtus, which happened in the forty-fourth year of his reign, and the fifty-ninth of his age, anno 1223. The French writers make him the greateſt Prince that ever ſat on the throne of France, except Charlemagne; but the principal reaſon is, I find, becauſe he added Normandy, Maine, Anjou, Touraine, and Poitou, to his dominions, which formerly belonged to England. But if theſe ſame writers would conſider the baſe and treacherous artifices he made uſe of againſt the Kings of England in order to effect this, and that when he ſwallowed up theſe provinces there was ſcarce any power in the field to oppoſe him, they would ſurely ceaſe to admire either his virtue or courage. Among common minds, it is true, ſucceſs alone creates the hero; they ſeldom conſider the honour or juſtice of the enterprize.

Lewis VIII. 1223.

Lewis VIII, being advanced to the throne on the death of his father Philip, the court of England demanded of him the reſtitution of Normandy, and the reſt of the provinces in France belonging to the Engliſh, which had been taken from them in the laſt reign, in purſuance of the treaty made at London. (Lewis, as has been intimated already was beſieged in that city, and had no way of eſcaping the fury of the Engliſh, but by promiſing to deliver up thoſe provinces when he ſhould ſucceed to the crown.) Lewis anſwered this demand with a complaint, that King Henry had not attended in perſon at his coronation, as he ought to have done, for the territories he held of him in France, and ſuggeſted, that he had broke the treaty of London firſt, by not reſtoring his ſubjects their ancient privileges, as was promiſed on his part. But ſurely if the French King had been a Prince of any honour, he would not have heſitated to have yielded up thoſe provinces, with which he ranſomed his life and liberty. However, his refuſal occaſioned a war between the two nations, wherein the French made themſelves maſters of Rochelle. We find the Engliſh very backward in aſſiſting either King John, or his ſon Henry, in maintaining their foreign dominions. They were taxed and harraſſed from time to time to carry on theſe wars, without reaping any manner of advantage from them: ſo early had the people of England learned, that foreign dominions and foreign wars were infinitely deſtructive to them. But we were never more ſenſible of this truth than at preſent, when our revenues are mortaged for ages to come; the conſequence of which muſt be eternal poverty and ſlavery, unleſs we are ſaved by a miracle. To proceed: The French writers aſſure us, that we had at this time infallibly loſt Guienne and Gaſcony, as well as Rochelle, if their King had not been diverted from this war by another cruſado, publiſhed by the Pope againſt the Albigenſes; at the head of which King Lewis marched in perſon, took Avignon, and many other cities, and would have extirpated thoſe Hereticks, as they were called at this time, if he had not been unfortunately taken ill in the midſt of his conqueſts. What his diſtemper was, none of them pretend to tell us, tho' they acquaint us with the recipe preſcribed by his phyſicians, which was a very odd one: they let him know, that nothing but a young girl could ſave his life; and when his ſcruples would not ſuffer him to follow their advice, they took an opportunity of puting a virgin to bed to him, when he was a-ſleep: the King waking and diſcovering the lady, called to one of his ſervants to take her away, pronouncing that noble ſentence, ſays the Jeſuit my author, That it was better to die than ſave his life by a mortal ſin. He died therefore, according to the ſame writer, the moſt noble death that a Chriſtian King could wiſh; a martyr to chaſtity, with his ſword drawn in defence of religion againſt hereſy, in the fourth year of his reign, and the fortieth of his age; and was ſucceeded by his ſon Lewis IX, an infant of twelve years of age, the Queen-mother Blanche of Caſtile, being appointed Regent. This Princeſs is highly applauded by the French hiſtorians for her adminiſtration during the minority of her ſon. She ſuppreſſed ſeveral dangerous rebellions of the vaſſal Princes; carried on the war againſt the Albigenſes, till ſhe brought the Count de Thoulouſe to conſent to marry his daughter Jane to Alphonso the King's brother; by which the territories of the Count were in the next generation united to the crown of France.

A cruſado againſt the Albigenſes.

Lewis IX. 1226.

During the civil wars of France, in the King's minority, the Engliſh had a fair opportunity of recovering the provinces they had loſt. The Duke of Britany, and ſeveral other diſaffected Lords, invited the King of England to come over and join them; but he was engaged in a civil war with his Barons himſelf, which found him full employment at home; and the Count of Bretagne, and the reſt of the malecontents, were forced to ſubmit to ſuch terms as the Court of France were pleaſed to impoſe upon them. And it being obſerved, that nothing had occaſioned more diſtraction in France than the vaſſal Princes matching into the families of foreigners, they were prohibited to enter into any treaty of marriage with other powers, without the leave of the French King.

The Queen-mother did not quit the title of Regent of France till the King was full one and twenty years of age; tho', by the preſent conſtitution, the King takes the government upon him at fourteen. His Majeſty alſo continued to be adviſed by her as long as ſhe lived, this Princeſs being eſteemed a perfect miſtreſs in politicks.

The Emperor Frederick depoſed by the Pope.

Pope Gregory IX, taking upon him to excommunicate the Emperor Frederick in this reign, for not ſubmitting to his uſurpations in Italy, and proceeding to publiſh a ſentence of depoſition againſt him, made a preſent of his dominions to Prince Robert, the brother of King Lewis. But as remarkable as the French King was for his reſpect to the Pope, it appears he did not at all approve of the precedent, any more than the other Princes of Europe; and tho' ſeveral ſucceeding Popes gave the Emperor a great deal of trouble, by interdicting his dominions, and abſolving his ſubjects from their allegiance, he remained upon the throne till his death. But to return to France.

Lewis IX, having been taught that the holy war was the ſureſt way to Paradiſe, after three years preparation undertook a cruſado in the year 1248, declaring Queen Blanche, his mother, Regent in his abſence. The Queen-conſort attended the King, with many other ladies of the firſt quality, and the fleet ſailed firſt to the iſland of Cyprus, where the King had many large magazines.

A cruſado to the Holy-Land.

At the undertaking of this cruſado, the affairs of the Chriſtians in Paleſtine were in a very deſperate condition; and had not the Mahometan powers been engaged in civil wars among themſelves, they would infallibly have been driven from thence. There were however ſtill four Chriſtian ſtates remaining here, that had been formed by the Europeans, viz. 1. That of Acon or Ptolemais, which was defended by the Venetians, Genoeſe, and Piſans. 2. Tyre and it's diſtrict. 3. Tripoli. And, 4. Antioch. Jeruſalem had been wreſted from them, and was in the hands of the infidels, who ſurrounded them on every ſide. The moſt formidable of the Mahometan powers at this time was the Sultan of Egypt, who had poſſeſſed himſelf of great part of Paleſtine as well as Jeruſalem. At a council of war therefore that was held before Lewis, in the iſland of Cyprus, it was thought proper firſt to invade Egypt; which, if the Chriſtians could have made themſelves maſters of, Paleſtine would have fallen into their hands of courſe. In purſuance of this reſolution, the King having aſſembled a fleet of eighteen hundred veſſels great and ſmall, embarked his land-forces, amounting to ſixty-thouſand men and upwards; amongſt which were twelve or thirteen thouſand Knights, French, Engliſh, and Cypriots, and ſet ſail with them for Egypt the beginning of June 1249; but a violent ſtorm happening to diſperſe the fleet, the King was forced back to Cyprus with a very ſmall number of his ſhips. He ſet ſail again on Trinity-ſunday, and having joined the beſt part of the ſcattered navy, they arrived in four days within ſight of Damieta, then one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Egypt, and ſituated at the mouth of the moſt eaſtern branch of the Nile. They found a great fleet of the infidels in that river, and a numerous army of them on ſhore ready to oppoſe their landing; but upon the firſt charge, both the one and the other thought fit to quit their ſtations, and ſuffer the Chriſtians to land with very little oppoſition; and a rumour being ſpread in the Mahometain army, that their Sultan was dead, the garriſon retired from Damieta without waiting to be beſieged; whereupon King Lewis immediately poſſeſſed himſelf of that important poſt. Here the French hiſtorians obſerve, that while the King was taken up with acts of piety and devotion, in his army, on the contrary, was ſeen nothing but revelling and lewdneſs. They had ſucceeded at firſt ſo much beyond their expectations, that they thought there was nothing more to do, but to march and poſſeſs themſelves of the capital city of Cairo, and all would fall before them; but the Nile having overflowed the country, as uſual at this time of the

The Chriſtians invade Egypt.

the year, they were obliged to wait in their camp near Damieta, till that river was fallen: where, as it has been obſerved, they ſpent their time in all manner of exceſſes and extravagance; the merit of taking up the croſs they held to be ſufficient to atone for all the crimes they had been, or could be, guilty of.

The Chriſtians defeated, and made priſoners, with the French King their General.

A new ſupply of forces being arrived from France, the King left the Queen with a good garriſon at Damieta, and began his march towards Grand Cairo, with an army of twenty thouſand horſe, and forty thouſand foot; with whom the Infidels did not think fit to come to a general battle; but ſo harraſſed them, and cut off their proviſions, that in three months time, the Chriſtians were ſcarce able to advance forty miles; and the Mahometans taking an advantage of the King's army, when the van was ſeparated at a great diſtance from the rear, and moſt of them in a bad ſtate of health, they fell upon them and entirely routed the Chriſtian army, making the King Priſoner, with all his forces that were not killed in the battle: and one could have expected no leſs from this barbarous people, as they are repreſented, than that they ſhould have murdered every one of them, conſidering the provocations that had been given them. The Chriſtians would certainly have requited the Saracens in this manner, had they confederated together, and invaded their country without any colour; for ſurely the difference of religion can never juſtify murder and rapine in the opinion of any conſidering man; tho' it ſeems, it was the opinion of the Roman Catholicks then, as it is ſtill, that dominion is founded in grace, and that the Pope could authorize the deſtruction of Infidels and Hereticks, who did not believe as the Church believes. Our Engliſh ſectaries and enthuſiaſts therefore were not the authors of theſe accurſed doctrines; they did but borrow them from the Papiſts. But to return to the King and the reſt of the priſoners It was debated, it ſeems, among the Emirs and Saracen Chiefs, whether they ſhould not cut the throats of every one of them, whereby they might deter the Europeans for the future from undertaking theſe romantick expeditions again: but the proſpect of enriching themſelves immediately by the ranſom of ſo many conſiderable men, prevailing above their revenge, or any political conſiderations, they agreed to give the King and his people their liberty, upon their delivering up Damieta, and paying an immenſe treaſure for their ranſom, ſuch as the Sultan and his Emirs could never have expected to be maſters of by any other means; and for the raiſing of which France was ſufficiently fleeced. They had rejoiced indeed for the taking of Damieta, and many other imaginary ſucceſſes, as the conqueſt of Grand Cairo, and Alexandria, and even for dethroning the Sultan: and we may eaſily believe they were ſufficiently mortified, when they underſtood that the King with the Princes and Lords, and the beſt part of the army, lay at the mercy of the Infidels. But to proceed: The King having paid down a fourth part of their ranſom, and left hoſtages for the reſt, and delivered up the town of Damieta, withdrew the garriſon, and embarked with his court for Acon, or Ptolemais, in Paleſtine; where he arrived the beginning of May 1250. The Pope and the Princes of Europe expreſſed abundance of concern for this unfortunate attempt upon Egypt. His Holineſs ſent Miſſionaries into every kingdom in Europe, to preach up the cruſado, in hopes to have ſupplied the French King with ſuch a force, that he might have redeemed the credit of the Chriſtian arms in Paleſtine before his return: but all men were ſo confounded and aſtoniſhed at the diſgrace ſo fine an army had met with, that nothing could induce them to run the like hazard again, while it was freſh in their memories; all that the Pope could do, was to ſend the French King ſuch ſupplies as might enable him to put the places in the Holy-Land, which remained in the poſſeſſion of the Chriſtians, in ſuch a poſture, as they might not become an eaſy prey to the Infidels; which he effected during his ſtay in Paleſtine, where he continued four years; returning to France in July 1254, he found all things in peace and quietneſs at home, nor had there been any diſturbance in his abſence, unleſs what was occaſioned by a parcel of Enthuſiaſts; who, on the news of his defeat in Egypt, immediately took into their heads, that God had on purpoſe confounded the deſigns of the great ones of the earth, to manifeſt his glory in delivering the Holy-Land out of the hands of the Infidels, by the meaneſt of the people. They took upon them the title of ſhepherds, and being encouraged in theſe whimſies by one Jacob an apoſtate Monk, increaſed to a prodigious number, and were joined by all the rogues and vagabonds in the kingdom, inſomuch, that the government ſeemed to be in danger from them: but their leader Jacob, being killed, this mob was ſoon diſperſed by the care of the Regent.

The French were mightily rejoiced on the return of their King; and he entered his capital city amidſt the loud acclamations of his people, but ſeemed little affected with them. He lamented the ill ſtate of the Chriſtian world; aſcribed the ill ſucceſs in his laſt expedition to his ſins; and by the negligence of his dreſs, and mournful aſpect, ſufficiently expreſſed his concern for the brave men he had loſt in that unfortunate attempt. He continued to wear the croſs upon his cloaths alſo, to ſhew that he had not quitted his deſign of returning to the aſſiſtance of the Chriſtians in Paleſtine, which gave his ſubjects but a melancholy proſpect.

Soon after King Lewis's return to France, King Henry III, of England, happening to viſit his territories in Gaſcony, deſired leave to return home thro' France, which the French King did not only agree to, but went to meet him a great way, and entertained him ſplendidly at Paris for eight or ten days. At a conference between the two Kings, Lewis being a Prince of a very ſcrupulous conſcience, propoſed the reſtoring Normandy, &c. to the Engliſh, which had been taken from them in the laſt reign; but acquainted King Henry at the ſame time, that he deſpaired of procuring the conſent of his Peers and Barons to it, without which he could not alienate them. However, ſome time afterwards he prevailed with them to relinquiſh Limouſin, Querci, Perigord, Agenois, and Xaintonge, to the Engliſh, upon condition that King Henry ſhould confirm Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, and Poitou, to France; which was agreed to; and the two Kings lived in perfect amity afterwards.

The pious Lewis alſo proceeded to make ſuch regulations at home, as might conduce to the peace and happineſs of his dominions. He prohibited all wars between the vaſſal Lords, and put an end to that barbarous cuſtom of clearing their innocence by duelling. And as the King of Arragon had pretenſions on ſome cities and territories in France, particularly to Beſiers, Agde, Narbonne, the Gevaudan, Niſmes, Thoulouſe, and other places in Languedoc: and France laid claim to Catalonia, Rouſſillon, the Lampourdan, Cerdagne, &c. in Spain; he propoſed to relinquiſh his right in all the Spaniſh places, upon condition the King of Arragon ſhould give up his right to thoſe abovementioned in France; which was complied with. In the mean time, the civil wars in England threatened the deſtruction of that kingdom. The Barons had gained ſome advantage of their King, and obliged him to ſubmit to certain conditions at Oxford, which had in a maner deprived him of the regal power. Both parties however agreed to refer their differences to this pious Prince LEWIS, whoſe juſtice and wiſdom, ſay the French writers, were acknowledged by all the Powers in Europe. Accordingly the King and Queen of England, with their Court and the Lords of their party; as alſo the confederated Barons, except their chief, the Earl of Leiceſter, reſorted to Amiens in Picardy, the place appointed for deciding this famous cauſe between the King of England and his ſubjects, about the Feaſt of Epiphany 1264: and the French King coming thither ſoon after, and having heard the parties with great deliberation, declared, that the articles obtained by force at Oxford ought to be aboliſhed, as innovations that were injurious to royal majeſty; and that the King's oath, which he had taken to obſerve them, was void. He directed alſo, that the cautionary towns that had been put into the hands of the Barons for the obſervance of them, ſhould be delivered up to the King. That he might diſpoſe of the great offices of the kingdom as formerly; and admit whom he pleaſed into his councils. That in ſhort, he ought to be reſtored to all his juſt rights which his predeceſſors had enjoyed; but that the charters which contained the liberties of the people ſhould be obſerved.

His award between the King of England and his Barons.

The diſaffected Lords refuſed to obey this award, how equitable ſoever. The Earl of Leiceſter drew his troops together again, defeated the King, and took him priſoner, with his eldeſt ſon Prince EDWARD, and his brother RICHARD. Prince EDWARD finding means to eſcape out of priſon, raiſed another army, routed the Earl of Leiceſter, and killed him in the field of battle: whereupon the King was ſet at liberty, and reſtored to the throne. But I ſhall enlarge on this occurrence in the hiſtory of England, and return to France, where we find the Pope offering the kingdom of Naples and Sicily to CHARLES Count of Anjou (his Holineſs having fallen out with MAINFROY, then Sovereign of thoſe countries). But it was on the following conditions he made the propoſal to the Count of Anjou: 1. That he ſhould renounce for himſelf and his ſucceſſors all pretenſions to the city of Benevento in Naples, to Rome, Campania, the duchy of Spoletto, the marquiſate of Ancona, the patrimony of St PETER, and the reſt of the demeſns of the Holy See. 2. That he ſhould take an oath to become the Pope's vaſſal for Naples and Sicily (at that time called the two Sicilies, the one on this ſide, and the other beyond the Pharos). That the Count, or his ſucceſſors, ſhould never accept of the Empire, or the ſovereignty of Lombardy or Tuſcany; and if they did, they ſhould relinquiſh the kingdom of Naples, to the end that no power in Italy might be a match for the Pope; and that Naples being dependent on him, he might give laws to the Italian Princes.

The Pope gives Naples and Sicily to the Earl of Anjou.

A cruſado in his favour.

The Pope, in order to enable the Count to invade the dominions of King MAINFROY, publiſhed a cruſado in his favour, anno 1266, giving remiſſion of ſins to all that would liſt under his colours, and excuſing them from their vows of viſiting the Holy-Land; which brought an incredible number of people together, with whom the Count of Anjou entered the Kingdom of Naples defeated his rival in a general battle, and mounted his throne, MAINFROY happening to be killed in the fight; whereupon all the towns in Naples and Sicily ſubmitted to the conqueror.

A cruſado for the Holy-Land.

The old French King, whoſe heart was always with the Chriſtians in the Holy-Land, receiving advice from time to time of their deplorable circumſtances, could not die with any ſatisfaction till he had undertaken another cruſado. Accordingly he prevailed with the Pope to ſend miſſionaries into his kingdom to preach up the merit of ſuch an undertaking; and by his example and influence, his three eldeſt ſons PHILIP, JOHN, and PETER, and many others of the French nobility, were induced to take the croſs. And having ſpent three years in making the neceſſary preparations, and ſettled a regency during his abſence, he ſet ſail from France the firſt of July 1270; and being arrived at Cagliari in Sardinia, a council of war was held on board the fleet, wherein it was agreed to land at Tunis on the coaſt of Africa, where CHARLES King of Sicily had appointed to join them. The King of Tunis it ſeems had given old LEWIS great hopes of his turning Chriſtian if he had an army to ſupport him, which was the principal reaſon of carrying the war thither; tho' the cunning Muſſulman, as appeared afterwards, had never any intention of altering his religion. Another reaſon given for this expedition againſt Tunis, was, that it would facilitate any future enterprize againſt the Holy-Land, inaſmuch as the Sultan of Egypt was ſupplied with men and horſes from thence. The fleet having weighed anchor, in purſuance of the determination of the council of war, came before Tunis and Carthage on the eighteenth of July. The next day they diſembarked their troops; but in ſuch diſorder, that if the Saracens had not run away before the veſſels approached the land, a very ſmall body of men would have obliged them to retire to their ſhips. They found great difficulties on their firſt coming on ſhore, for want of water; but making themſelves maſters of the old caſtle of Carthage, they found good wells of water there in abundance. The infidels here behaved themſelves in the ſame manner they had done in Egypt: they attacked the Chriſtian army by parties from time to time, cut off their proviſions, and kept them in perpetual alarms; but would never ſtand a charge, or come to a general engagement. As ſoon as they had diſcharged their arrows, they wheeled about and fled; and their motions were ſo very ſwift, that it was in vain for European troops to purſue them. In this condition the army remained, till the exceſſive heats had filled the camp with diſeaſes; deſtroying moſt of the generals, as well as ſoldiers, and among the reſt the King, who died in the cruſado, according to his wiſhes, on the 25th of Auguſt, 1270, in the fifty-ſixth year of his age, and the forty-fourth of his reign. And had not the King of Sicily arrived before Tunis with a freſh ſupply of troops in the very inſtant, the whole army

They make a deſcent near Tunis in Africa.

army had infallibly become a prey to the infidels, it was ſo much weakened by ſickneſs. After this new reinforcement from Sicily, and another from England commanded by Prince Edward, there happened ſome ſmart encounters between the Chriſtians and infidels, in which the Chriſtians met with ſucceſs; whereupon the King of Tunis came to a treaty with them, and it was agreed the captives ſhould be releaſed on both ſides; that the King of Tunis ſhould pay the charges of the expedition, and a tribute to the King of Sicily: but the latter part of the agreement was ill performed. However, the winter coming on, the Chriſtians were glad to accept ſuch terms as they could get, and having embarked their army, arrived at Trapano in Sicily, where great part of their fleet and army which remained were deſtroyed by a ſtorm; ſo unfortunate were theſe cruſades, ſays my author, to the French nation, who were principally concerned in them: they loſt an incredible number of brave men, and an immenſe treaſure. In this laſt, the young King Philip loſt the King his father, the Queen his wife, the Count of Nevers his brother, the King of Navarre his brother-in-law, and his uncle Alphonso, very hardily eſcaping with his own life; which repeated ill ſucceſs had this good effect, that it pretty well weaned the Princes of Chriſtendom from theſe romantick adventures.

Philip III. 1270.

Philip being returned to Paris, celebrated the obſequies of the King his father, and the reſt of the nobility, who periſhed in the late expedition to Africa, with great magnificence. He aſſiſted himſelf, 'tis ſaid, in carrying the corps of St Lewis to the abbey of St Dennis: and my author (Daniel) obſerves, that in his time there were ſeven pyramids in the ſuburb of St Lawrence, which were erected by this Prince in the places where he reſted with the corps.

The next thing he undertook was the humbling of ſome of the vaſſal Lords; particularly the Count de Foix, who preſumed to enter into a war with his neighbours without his leave, and refuſed to be determined by the arbitration of the King. He made the Count priſoner, and kept him in chains a whole year, which ſo terrified the other Lords, that he had no more diſturbances of this kind. But the moſt remarkable event we meet with in the reign of Philip III, was the Sicilian Veſpers, and the war with the King of Arragon, which was the conſequence of them. Charles Earl of Anjou, the French King's uncle, who by the aſſiſtance of the Pope had depoſed Mainfroy the late king, and ſtepped into his throne, having behaved himſelf inſolently in the iſland of Sicily, the people grew uneaſy, and were ever endeavouring to throw off the yoke. They applyed themſelves at length to the King of Arragon, who had married Constantia, the daughter and heireſs of Mainfroy, and to Paleologus the Grecian Emperor, who were both of them enemies to the King of Sicily; and theſe Princes promiſed to ſupport them with all their power. It was thereupon agreed to maſſacre all the French that were in the iſland of Sicily, and at the ſame time the King of Arragon was to appear with a great fleet upon the coaſts, and land Queen Constantia there with a good body of troops, to aſſert her right to that iſland. Eaſter-ſunday in the evening, anno 1282, was appointed for the general maſſacre of the French, and the ſignal was the ringing the bells for veſpers, from whence this tragical occurrence obtained the name of the Sicilian Veſpers. At the time appointed the natives fell upon the French in every part of the iſland, without diſtinction of age, ſex, or condition, and murdered them all by one means or other; ſparing only one ſingle gentleman, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his equity and moderation in the poſt he poſſeſſed. Soon after this, the King of Arragon's fleet defeated that of King Charles's, and made his ſon the Prince of Salernum priſoner; and the ſea being open to them, they landed Queen Constantia with the King of Arragon's troops, and by that means ſecured the iſland againſt any attempts of the French. What is moſt admired is, that tho' this conſpiracy was three years carrying on, and ſeveral foreign Princes concerned in it, the French had not the leaſt intimation of it till it was executed, ſo deteſtable was the tyranny they exerciſed over the poor Sicilians.

The Sicilian Veſpers.

The Pope hereupon thundered out his excommunications againſt the King of Arragon, abſolved his ſubjects from their allegiance, and took upon him to transfer the kingdom of Arragon to Prince Charles, one of the French king's ſons; and even publiſhed a cruſado, promiſing forgiveneſs of ſins to all that would take the croſs upon them, and liſt under the French King's colours. Philip being thus ſupported, and having aſſembled an army of an hundred thouſand men, marched into Spain, where the nobility being terrified by the excommunications of the holy See, durſt not join their Sovereign, or oppoſe the torrent, but for ſome time remained neuter. The King of Arragon, a Prince remarkable in his age for his courage and conduct, aſſembled however a flying army, with which he perpetually harraſſed the French; and Philip ſitting down before Gironne, one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in the kingdom, he cut off his proviſions: and by the continual ſallies from the town, and the attacks which the Spaniſh troops made from time to time on the French camp, their forces weare ſo weakened, that when Gironne ſurrendered, King Philip found himſelf incapable of entring on any further action. A ſickneſs alſo reigned in the camp, which carried off abundance of the French, and among the reſt the King himſelf. In this diſtreſs the Arragonians fell upon the rear of the army as they were retiring through the paſſes of the mountains, ſo that very few of them returned home. Even the ſick and wounded, and the heavy baggage which had been put on board the fleet, were met with by the King of Arragon's fleet, and entirely ruined: and thus ended the reign of Philip III. Charles King of Sicily died about the ſame time, and the King of Arragon ſurvived him but a few months. The deaths of theſe Princes put an end to their quarrels, which were however revived by their poſterity.

Philip IV. 1285.

Philip IV, ſurnamed the Fair, ſucceeded his Father Philip III, and by his marriage with Jane of Navarre added that kingdom to his dominions. He entered into a war with Edward I, King of England, on a trifling pretence, ſurprizing ſeveral of his towns in Guienne, deſigning to have united that province alſo to the crown of France. But King Edward ſeems to have been an over-match for him; he was content to yield up the towns he had taken, to England again on a treaty of peace.

He had another quarred with Pope Boniface VIII, upon much juſter grounds which was drawn out to a great length; but he ſucceeded at laſt. The Pope publiſhed a bull, prohibiting all the clergy in Chriſtendom to grant money to their reſpective Sovereigns, under whom they lived, either by way of loan, ſubſidy, or free gift, without the conſent of the Holy See; which affected the King of France more than any other Prince at this time, as he was in great want of money to maintain the war he was engaged in with England. Whereupon the King made an ordinance, forbidding all his ſubjects to export out of the kingdom, either ſilver, gold, jewels, or any other valuable moveable; which was chiefly levelled at the Holy See, tho' not mentioned in the edict. Whereupon the Pope wrote to the King, charging him with folly, and imprudence, in pretending to lay any reſtraint upon the Eccleſiaſticks, over whom, neither the French King or any temporal Prince, could claim any authority. He told him alſo, that the diſputes between France and England, ought to be determined by the Holy See, and if he refuſed to ſtand to his award, he threatened him with interdicts and excommunications.

The King, on the other hand, ſent circular letters thro' his dominions, containing a proteſtation, that the government of his kingdom, as to temporal concerns, belonged to him alone: that he neither acknowledged, or had any ſuperior in this reſpect; nor ſhould be concerned at the cenſures of the Pope, any farther than they related to purely ſpiritual affairs. This quarrel was made up for a time, but broke out with greater fury than ever, on the Pope's reviving his prohibition to the clergy to grant the King any money. The King thereupon entertained the Lords of the houſe of Colonna, whom the Pope had driven out of Italy. He alſo impriſoned the Biſhop of Paniez, the Pope's legate, who was a ſubject of France, and had threatened the King with an interdict and excommunication; which provoked his Holineſs to ſuch a degree, that he declared in a letter to King PHILIP, that as he was the Vicar of JESUS CHRIST, GOD had given him power over the Kings and kingdoms of the earth; and, in the words of the prophet, to pluck up, deſtroy, and build: and adviſes him therefore not to ſuffer himſelf to be perſuaded that he had no ſuperior upon earth, and that he was not ſubject to the eccleſiaſtical hierarchy; for this was a mad and fooliſh thought, and he who obſtinately perſiſted in that error, ceaſed to be of the number of the faithful.

The Pope aſſerts his power over temporal Princes.

The King thereupon held a great council of eccleſiaſtical and temporal peers, and lawyers, whom he found very ready to aſſert the liberties of the Gallican Church, and gave encouragement to ſome of the nobility, aſſiſted by the Colonna's, to draw up a petition againſt the Pope, wherein they endeavoured to ſhew, that BONIFACE was not legally choſen to the Holy See; that he was guilty of hereſy, ſimony, and the moſt notorious crimes; upon which, they requeſt the King to uſe his endeavours with the Cardinals for calling a general council to elect another.

The Pope alſo called a council at Rome, wherein ſeveral of the French Biſhops aſſiſted, notwithſtanding the King's prohibition; and a bull was publiſhed by this council, declaring, that all men were ſubject to the See of Rome, nor could they be ſaved without believing it. The Pope proceeded to excommunicate the King, and to prohibit the Clergy of France to celebrate Divine Service. But theſe Bulls were either not publiſhed, or not much regarded: however, the King was ſo provoked with this uſage, that he employed the Colonna's and ſome others, to ſeize the Pope's perſon; which they effected when his Holineſs was retired to a country-ſeat. He was reſcued afterwards out of the Colonna's hands, but they uſed him ſo roughly, that he died in a little time; which put an end to the diſputes between France and the Holy See.

King PHILIP ſeizes Flanders.

King PHILIP being now at leiſure to attack Flanders, and having by indirect means got the Count into his hands, with his three eldeſt ſons, made them all priſoners, and ſeized his territories. Whereupon the Flemmings had recourſe to arms; and tho' they were not ſucceſsful in their firſt attempts to throw off the French yoke, the inſurrection became ſo general in the year 1303, that they raiſed an army of threeſcore thouſand men, and gained an entire victory over the French, killing twenty thouſand men, and amongſt them many of the principal nobility. The King afterwards raiſed another army, and engaged the Flemmings, between whom and the French an obſtinate battle was fought again; but neither ſide had much reaſon to boaſt: whereupon, a treaty was ſet on foot, and it was agreed, that ROBERT the ſon of the late Count, who was lately dead, ſhould enjoy all Flanders, except Liſle, Douay, and ſome other inconſiderable places, as the old Count had done; ſo that the French King got little by this war but the curſes of his ſubjects, who were taxed at an extravagant rate to maintain it.

A French Pope removes the See to Avignon.

The King being in peace, applied himſelf to the conclave, who were now buſy in chuſing a Pope; and by his artifices got a French Biſhop elected, on whom he had an influence. The Pontiff reverſed every thing that BONIFACE had done to the prejudice of the King and kingdom; and, to oblige PHILIP, removed the See from Rome to Avignon, where it remained ſeventy years. He took upon him the name of CLEMENT VII.

'Till this time, the city and territory of Lyons, had been an independent ſtate; but the Archbiſhop, the preſent Sovereign, unadviſedly provoking the King, he raiſed an army, and ſet down before it, and compelled the Biſhop to ſurrender the town to him upon his own terms: whereupon, PHILIP re-united it to the crown of France. Lyons once made part of the kingdom of Arles, afterwards of the kingdom of Burgundy; then it was ſubject to the empire; and by inſenſible degrees, the Archbiſhop had poſſeſſed himſelf of the temporal power.

The order of Knights Templars aboliſhed.

The laſt conſiderable event in this reign, was the aboliſhing the order of Knights Templars, not only in France, but in all the kingdoms of Europe. Theſe Knights of the Temple, or Templars, were a religious order, who beſides the uſual vows of celibacy, &c. obliged themſelves to defend ſuch pilgrims as reſorted to the Holy-Land from the inſults of the natives, and to guard the roads leading to Jeruſalem. They were eſtabliſhed about the year 1120, and were called Templars from a houſe that was given them by BALDWIN the ſecond King of Jeruſalem, which ſtood on, or near, the place where SOLOMON's temple did. All people ſeemed fond of entering into this order at firſt, ſo that they became exceeding numerous, and lands were ſettled on them in all countries in Europe, to enable them to perform the vows they had made of protecting pilgrims, &c. Their order in time became immenſely rich, whereupon they grew lazy and indolent, and were as remarkable for their lewdneſs and immoralities, as they were at firſt for their virtue. Nay, the charge againſt them, which was fully proved by witneſſes and their own confeſſion, was ſuch, that it could never have been credited if their convictions did not ſtill remain upon record, and that they were ſo univerſally deteſted as to be extirpated in every Chriſtian nation at one and the ſame inſtant. But notwithſtanding they were grown the moſt impious of human race, the hiſtorians of that time obſerve, that their monſtrous crimes were concealed from the world by the vows of ſecrecy, they impoſed on all that entered into their ſociety; and had it not been that two of the order had been thrown into priſon and dealt very ſeverely with by their ſuperiors, their impieties might have remained a ſecret to the world much longer. Theſe two priſoners made an offer to the French court, of laying open the whole matter, if they might be protected: with which the King being acquainted, he ordered they ſhould be examined. They diſcovered matters of that atrocious nature, that the King thought fit to communicate the examination to the Pope; but finding him not inclined to proſecute them, as believing their crimes had been magnified only with an intention of ſeizing their eſtates, the King determined to act independently, and in one night, ordered all the Knights Templars to be ſeized throughout the kingdom, viz. on the 13th of October, 1307. The grand maſter himſelf was apprehended at the temple in Paris; their eſtates alſo were ſeized, and that the Pope might not take umbrage at it, they were ſequeſtred into the hands of two Cardinals. The Pope afterwards examined ſeventy-two of the Knights himſelf, and was ſurprized to find them confeſs the principal part of the charge. An hundred and forty more of them were examined at Paris, who confeſſed the whole matter alſo.

1. They depoſed, that at their admiſſion into the order, they were obliged to renounce JESUS CHRIST, and the better to expreſs their contempt of him, they were to ſpit three times upon a crucifix.

2. That upon their admiſſion they kiſſed the mouth, the navel, the back, and anus, of the perſon who received them.

3. They promiſed to have no concern with women, but were permitted to commit ſodomy with their brethren.

4. They obliged themſelves to adore a wooden head with a great beard, partly gilded and partly ſilvered; which was expoſed at their general chapters.

5. If any one of the Knights acquainted another of his brethren with any ſin he had committed, and ſuch brother ſhould reveal it to the world, he ſhould ſuffer the puniſhment the perſon deſerved who had committed it.

6. GEOFFREY of Gouneville, who had been admitted in England, declared, that refuſing to deny JESUS CHRIST, the ſuperior ſaid, this need not trouble him, it was a cuſtom introduced by one of their grand maſters, who obtained his deliverance from captivity in Turkey, by ſwearing he would introduce this uſage in his order.

As to their drunkenneſs it was ſo very common, that it was become a proverb, to be as drunk as a Templar.

The Pope being ſatisfied of their guilt, iſſued his Bulls to England, Scotland, Germany, Spain, Italy, &c. for aboliſhing the order, and ſeizing their eſtates; which were readily put in execution by their reſpective Princes, after the ſentence againſt them had been confirmed by the council of Vienne, anno 1312; ſo that this order continued near two hundred years from their firſt inſtitution. In France the lands of the Templars, it is ſaid, were given to the knights of St JOHN of Jeruſalem, now the knights of Malta, as they were in ſome other countries; but in others they were applied to the uſes of the ſtate.

While the King was thus expreſſing his deteſtation at the immoralities of the Templars, there broke out in his own family ſome ſcenes of lewdneſs, which gave him much more uneaſineſs: the wives of every one of the three Princes his ſons were charged with being falſe to their huſbands beds; and upon two of them it was ſufficiently proved, viz. upon MARGARET daughter of ROBERT Duke of Burgundy, and wife of LEWIS King of Navarre, the King's eldeſt ſon; and upon BLANCHE the wife of Prince CHARLES: they were convicted of having been familiar with two gentlemen of the houſhold, who were brothers, viz. PHILIP and GAUTIER LANNAY, who were fleaed alive, and hanged upon a gibbet; and the two Princeſſes were ſhut up in priſon. So true it is, that people in the moſt exalted ſtations are often as unhappy in their families as their inferiors, and that crowned heads are not exempted from horns. Whether this melancholy diſcovery contributed to impair the King's health or not, I ſhall not pretend to ſay; but he was taken ill of a languiſhing diſtemper, that his phyſicians could not find a name for, and died on the 29th of November 1314, being ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon LEWIS X, King of Navarre, who was ſirnamed HUTIN.

LEWIS X.
A prime miniſter ſacrificed to the rage of the people.

LEWIS X, named HUTIN from his haſty paſſionate temper, was hardly crowned when there happened an inſurrection of the Barons againſt him, who had been grievouſly oppreſſed by taxes in the laſt reign; to appeaſe whom, the Count de VALOIS, the King's uncle, propoſed the ſacrificing of EUGUERRAUD MARIGNI, who had been prime miniſter in the laſt reign, and ſuppoſed to be the author of that variety of impoſitions which had been made uſe of to raiſe money: but by deſtroying of this miniſter, he propoſed more the gratifying his own revenge it ſeems, than the ſatisfaction of the nation; for they had not a very good underſtanding. MARIGNI therefore was ſeized and thrown into a dungeon, and articles drawn up againſt him; but he was not permitted to make his defence: his mercenary judges, by the direction of the court, condemned him without hearing him, and though he was a perſon of quality, he was hanged upon a gibbet, without the town, erected for expoſing the bodies of the moſt notorious malefactors. He proteſted his innocence at his death, which was not then much regarded, but the King being convinced of the injuſtice of the ſentence afterwards, conſidered his children in his will; and the Count de VALOIS himſelf, in a dangerous fit of ſickneſs, when he thought he was going to give account of this barbarous proſecution, amongſt his other ſins, ordered a large ſum of money to be diſtributed to the poor of Paris; and when any perſon received this alms, he who gave it was ordered to ſay, pray for the ſoul of my Lord EUGUERRAUD, (who had been executed) and for my Lord CHARLES of Valois, Which abundantly cleared up the reputation of that miniſter.

Lewis being in as great ſtraits for money as his father had been, ſeveral ways and means were propoſed to him, among which he fixed upon two; one was the enfranchiſing the lower ſort of people for a ſum of money, who were yet in a ſtate of villainage, and no better than ſlaves to their reſpective Lords; and the other by introducing the Jews, who had been baniſhed in the laſt reign, for which they paid him a round ſum: and having thus repleniſhed his treaſure, he was about entering into a war with the Count of Flanders, but died before he effected any thing, leaving a daughter by his firſt wife, and his ſecond big with child: whereupon his brother Philip took the regency upon him. The Queen was afterwards brought to bed of a ſon named John, who did not live a month; whereupon Philip changed his title of Regent for that of King: his nephew John, tho' really King, is not reckoned among the number of their monarchs by the generality of the French hiſtorians.

John, 1315. Philip V, 1316.

When Philip V, aſcended the throne, it was objected to his title, that Jane the daughter of the late King Lewis X, was nearer in blood: but the nobility being aſſembled, they declared, that the crown of France could not deſcend to a female. Whereupon they all acquieſced in Philip the brother of Lewis. The King's next care was to ſettle the peace between France and Flanders upon a laſting foot; for no nation had given his predeceſſors more uneaſineſs than that people; whereupon he married his daughter Margaret to Lewis the grandſon of the Count of Flanders; and it was agreed that he ſhould ſucceed to the county of Flanders before his father; alſo that Liſle, Douay, and Orchies, ſhould belong to France. And having ſettled all things at home, he began to make preparations for a cruſado to the Holy-Land, which he had formerly vowed: but the Mahometan Princes hearing of it, we are told, hired the Jews, who had lately been hardly uſed, to poiſon all the wells and ſprings in France, hoping to prevent another invaſion by the death or ſickneſs of that people. The Jews, 'tis ſaid, employed the Lepers in this affair, who were excluded the ſociety of other people, (of whom there were then a great many in France,) and generally diſaffected to the government, who had laid ſuch reſtraints upon them. The wells were accordingly poiſoned in ſome places, and people died with drinking the waters; but it being diſcovered before the calamity became general, ſeveral of the Jews and Lepers were burnt; and the Jews again for ever baniſhed the kingdom: and according to my author, they have never been admitted into the kingdom by legal authority ever ſince, tho' they venture to reſide there. The King however never performed his cruſading vow, being taken ill with an aguiſh diſtemper and a dyſentery, which carried him off in five days, not without ſuſpicion of his being poiſoned. He died in the 29th year of his age, and the ſixth of his reign, anno 1322, leaving only three daughters; whereupon his brother Charles, ſurnamed the Fair, ſucceeded to the crown.

Charles IV, 1322.

Charles IV, wuold never be reconciled to his wife Blanche, who had been falſe to his bed, as has been mentioned already; but on his acceſſion to the crown procured his marrage to be declared null by the Pope, for what cauſe it is not ſaid; and thereupon married Mary the daughter of the late Emperor Henry of Luxemburg, who living with him not much above a year, he married Jane the daughter of the Count of Evreux his uncle.

The Queen of England reſides at Paris with Mortimer.

About this time a war broke out between France and England, but all things were ſettled upon the old foot by the peace which ſucceeded; to conclude which, Isabella Queen of England, who was a daughter of France, came over to Paris with her ſon Prince Edward. The King of England, after they had remained ſome time at the French Court, by the advice of the two Spencers, father and ſon, ſent for them over into England. The Queen anſwered, the Spencers were her enemies, and ſhe could not return in ſafety while they were at the head of his council. But ſhe concealed the true reaſon, ſays my French author, namely, that ſhe might have an opportunity of enjoying her gallant Roger Mortimer with the greater freedom.

Hereupon the Engliſh court applyed to the King of France to ſend her and the Prince over; which King Charles ſeemed averſe to at firſt; but, ſay the French hiſtorians, the Spencers diſtributed ſo much money among King Charles's miniſters that he at length inſiſted on her going, and was determined to ſend her over by force: but the Queen did not think fit to wait till things came to this extremity, and therefore ſet forwards on her journey to England, at leaſt ſhe took the road that led thither, till ſhe found an opportunity of getting to Valenciennes to the Count of Hainault, who had agreed to take her into his protection. To engage him to aſſiſt her the more heartily, ſhe married the Prince of Wales to his ſecond daughter. Here ſhe raiſed a conſiderable body of troops, and the Count, who was Earl of Holland as well as Hainault, providing a fleet of ſhips to tranſport them, ſhe landed at Harwich in England, where the diſaffected Lords having joined her with their troops, ſhe marched to London. The King and the Spencers retired before her till they came to Briſtol, which the elder Spencer pretended to defend, but was taken and hanged without any form of law. The younger Spencer being taken ſoon after, underwent the ſame fate; and the King, who alſo fell into their hands was depoſed by a parliment held in January 1327, and afterwards murdered in priſon, as is ſuppoſed; but I ſhall enlarge upon theſe things when I come to the deſcription of England, and only give ſuch an account of theſe tranſactions at preſent as I meet with in the hiſtories of France. Edward III, having aſcended the throne of England, the court of France demanded that he ſhould come over and do his homage in perſon, for the lands he held on that ſide the water. He firſt only deſired to defer it, as the French hiſtorians tell us, on account of his affairs being unſettled at home: but certain it is, he afterwards abſolutely refuſed it, and ſet up a title to the crown of France, as will appear hereafter. We meet with nothing more remarkable in the reign of Charles IV, unleſs it be an attempt he made to be elected Emperor of Germany, in which he did not ſucceed. He died on the firſt of Feburuary in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the ſeventh of his reign, anno 1327-8, leaving only one daughter by his firſt wife Jane, and his laſt big with child of a daughter, as it appeared afterwards; whereupon Philip of Valois, the ſon of Charles of Valois, couſin-german to the late King, took upon him firſt the regency, and afterwards the title of King.

PHILIP VI. of Valois 1328. EDWARD III. of England claims that crown.

Philip VI, ſurnamed Valois, being of a collateral branch of the Royal family, viz. firſt couſin to the late King, whereas **Edward** King of England was lineally deſcended from **Philip** IV, King of France, by **Isabel** his mother, daughter of the ſaid **Philip**, and ſiſter of the late King **Charles**, the King of England faintly urged his title to the crown of France; and 'tis probable he had never aſſerted it by arms, if he had not met with ſome fooliſh and unneceſſary provocations from this haughty French monarch. **Philip**, at his acceſſion, took that precaution to get the right of ſucceſſion adjudged in him by the nobility of France, for which they were pleaſed to give the following reaſons, 1. That King **Edward** could have no right to the crown, becauſe his mother had none, by whom he claimed. 2. Becauſe the ſons of the daughters of France had never inherited that crown: for it ſeems King **Edward** had inſiſted, that tho' by the Salique Law no female could inherit the crown of France, yet the ſon of a female, lineally deſcended from the King of France, might, and ought, where he was next of blood.

A war with Flanders.

The firſt conſiderable action King **Philip** entered upon, was the humbling the Flemmings, who were never heartily affected to the French, and had compelled their count to fly for refuge into France, chiefly for his attachment to that crown, and ſubmitting to acknowledge himſelf a vaſſal of it; and in this expedition the French relate, that he obtained a ſignal victory over that people, and compelled them to accept the Count for their Sovereign.

The next year **Philip** ſummoned the King of England to do homage in perſon for Guienne and his other territories in France; which King **Edward** thought fit to promiſe, but when it came to the point, refuſed to perform any thing more than a general homage. This, with the ſtate in which he came, out-ſhining the French court itſelf, that pretended to the ſovereignty over him, occaſioned **Philip** to treat him with ſome degree of inſolence; and tho' they parted friends in outward appearance, yet at this interview, it is generally held, they began to entertain that animoſity towards each other which afterwards broke out into a moſt deſtructive war, that with ſome intermiſſions continued upwards of an hundred years, to the utter ruin almoſt of both nations. France was deſtroyed from one end to the other by fire and ſword, and England exhauſted by taxes and ſtanding armies to maintain their romantick conqueſts, which they were at laſt forced to abandon; inſomuch that we never meet with ſuch miſerable complaints from the people as in theſe times, celebrated by ſome Engliſh hiſtorians as next to the golden age, on account of two or three victories they obtained over the French. But to be a little more particular in the hiſtory of this reign:

War between France and England, 1330.

The next year, anno 1330, hoſtilities began between the French and Engliſh in Guienne; which of them were the aggreſſors is much diſputed by their reſpective hiſtorians: but this is not very material; for it is generally agreed, that on either ſide they only waited for ſome plauſible pretence to declare war; which can never be difficult to find, or make, between two powers whoſe territories lie contiguous. However, a peace was again patched up by the mediation of friends, and the places that had been taken were reſtored. This accommodation might have been laſting, in the opinion of the French hiſtorians, if one **Robert** de Artoir, of the blood-royal of France, who was diſguſted on account of a ſuit of law given againſt him, had not left the kingdom in diſguſt, and incited King **Edward** to revive the war. To which may be added the encouragement he received from the Flemmings, from whoſe aſſiſtance the King of England propoſed great advantages. It was however eight or nine years after the treaty above-mentioned, before the parties entered into actual war. In July, 1338, the King of England with a fleet of five hundred ſhips ſailed over to Flanders, from whence he went to Cologne, and had a conference with the Emperor of Germany his ally; after which he entered the French territories, and laid ſiege to Cambray. The French King thereupon marched to the relief of the town, and it was expected every day that they would come to a general battle. The two Kings however contented themſelves with looking at one another, and then retired without coming to blows. The French King, 'tis ſaid, did not care to hazard his crown upon the fortune of one day; and King **Edward** found himſelf much inferior in numbers. One reaſon, it ſeems, of this conduct on the part of the King of England was, that his parliament were weary of the charge of the war, and refuſed to grant him money to carry on the ſiege. 'The Engliſh parliament (in the words of the 'French hiſtorians) preferred the intereſt of the 'people before the glory of their Kings.' But there was another inducement for the King of England to make a drawn game of it this campaign, and that was the backwardneſs of the Flemmings to join him. They had been obliged by the French to ſubmit to their Count, and renew their oaths of allegiance to him; and many of them made a ſcruple of engaging againſt him on this account. King **Edward** therefore the following winter having made **D'Arteville**, the moſt popular man amongſt them, his friend, aſſembled the heads of them, and expoſtulated with them upon their backwardneſs to join his troops: whereupon **D'Arteville** told him, if he would take upon him the ſtile of King of France, and quarter the arms of that kingdom with thoſe of England, ſo that as their Lord paramount he might diſcharge them from their oaths to the Count their immediate Prince, they would unanimouſly declare for him. And tho' (ſay the French hiſtorians) the King of England knew very well that his pretenſions to the crown of France, were chimerical, and that he had authentically renounced them by the homage he had paid the King of France, his lawful Sovereign, for the duchy of Guienne and Ponthieu, and that for this reaſon the thing muſt appear extravagant to all Europe; yet he took the title and arms of the King of France, and received homage from the Flemmings as his vaſſals. He ſigned a treaty with them, by which he promiſed to recover Liſle, Douay, and other places in the hands of the French, and to re-unite them to the county of Flanders: and when he embarked for England, left his Queen at Ghent, and the Earls of Saliſbury and Suffolk at Ypres, to make incurſions into the French territories during the winter.

King EDWARD III. takes the title and arms of France.

King **Edward**, at his return to England, acquainted the parliament with his alliances with the Flemmings, aſſuring them that France would now be an eaſy conqueſt; whereupon they were induced to give him all the ſupplies he aſked. The French King, in revenge for this defection, made incurſions into Flanders in the winter deſtroying the open country with fire and ſword. The French alſo borrowed a great fleet of the Genoeſe and Spaniards, with which they blocked up the mouth of the Scheld, and pretended to prevent the Engliſh joining the Flemmings: but King Edward commanding the royal navy of England in perſon the next year, fell upon the French near Sluys in Flanders; and both fleets having great land-armies on board, he ordered them to throw out their grapplings, and faſten their ſhips to thoſe of the enemies, whereby they ſtood as firmly in the engagement as if they had fought upon land; and after an obſtinate battle, which laſted from morning till night, the Engliſh obtained a compleat victory, deſtroying no leſs than thirty thouſand of the French, according to the Engliſh hiſtorians, and ten thouſand according to the French: however, both agree that King Philip's fleet was entirely deſtroyed; and the reaſon aſſigned for the great ſlaughter that was made, is, that no quarter was given. This was the greateſt ſea-fight which had happened for many ages; tho' this may be called rather a river than ſea-engagement, being fought chiefly on the river Scheld.

The French fleet defeated.

After this victory King Edward landed his forces, and joining the Flemmings and the reſt of his allies, formed an army of an hundred and twenty thouſand men, according to the French accounts, with which he laid ſiege to Tournay, a town at that time extremely well fortified, and defended by a numerous garriſon; where the the French King ſuffering him to throw away the beſt of his troops for ten weeks, came at length to the relief of the place. But when the two armies were upon the point of joining battle, King Philip's ſiſter, Jane de Valois, mother-in-law to the King of England, who had retired into a nunnery, and obtained the reputation of a ſaint, offered her mediation, and obtained a truce for a year between the two nations; which 'tis ſaid the King of England only conſented to, to ſatiſfy his allies, who began to grow weary of the war: after which King Edward and his court returned to England; and Philip, while he was on that ſide the water, found means to draw off both the Emperor and the Flemmings from his alliance. But to make him ſome amends, the Duke of Bretagne dying about the ſame time, the ſucceſſion of that duchy was conteſted by Charles de Blois and John Count of Montfort; and the French court taking part with Charles, the Count of Montfort called in the Engliſh to his aſſiſtance. But before the Engliſh ſuccours could arrive in Bretagne, King Philip ſent his eldeſt ſon, the Duke of Normandy, with a fine army to ſupport the intereſt of Charles de Blois, who beſieged John de Montfort in Nantz, took the town and made him priſoner, after which he was confined in the Louvre at Paris.

A war in Bretagne.

The Counteſs of Montfort, a lady of an heroick courage, nevertheleſs maintained the war againſt Charles de Blois, till reinforcements arrived from England under the command of Robert d'Artois above-mentioned, who laid ſiege to Vannes and took it; but the town was ſoon after ſurprized by the French; and the Count d'Artois being mortally wounded in the diſpute, was carried over to England, where he died. Soon after the King of England arrived in Bretagne with a great army, and beſieged ſeveral towns; the Duke of Normandy was ſent with an equal force to oppoſe him, and great expectations there were of a battle: but the Pope's Nuncio found means to obtain a truce between the two nations again, and King Edward returned to England, glad to have eſcaped ſo well, ſay the French hiſtorians; for his fleet had been diſperſed, and his proviſions cut off, that his army muſt infallibly have periſhed, but for this timely negotiation.

Dauphiné united to the crown of France.

About this time it was, (anno 1344,) that Hubert, Count Dauphin of Vienne, transferred his dominions to Philip of France, the King's ſecond ſon: but afterwards it was agreed they ſhould be ſettled on Charles Duke of Normandy, the King's eldeſt ſon; ever ſince which time Dauphiné has belonged to the crown of France, and it has been the title of the King's eldeſt ſon. The King alſo purchaſed the lordſhip of Montpelier of Philip King of Majorca, which was thereupon united to the crown.

The truce which had been made for a year was but ill obſerved, both in Bretagne and Guienne; but the French King taking upon him to execute ſeveral Bretagne and Norman gentlemen who were in the King of England's intereſt, without aſſigning any reaſon for it, this occaſioned the war to break out a-freſh. The King of England ſent a conſiderable force into Guienne, under the command of the Earl of Derby, a gentleman celebrated for his conduct and generous ſpirit. He made himſelf maſter of ſeveral towns: but what has eſtabliſhed his fame in hiſtory, is his juſtice and contempt of wealth, of both which they give an inſtance in the ſtorming of Bergerac, where he gave every ſoldier the houſe he ſhould ſeize, and all the treaſure in it. One of them having made himſelf maſter of a houſe where the bankers had agreed to depoſit their caſh, and finding an immenſe ſum, acquainted the General with it, not imagining ſo much wealth could be intended for any one private man: but the General told him, the greatneſs of the treaſure ſhould not alter the caſe, let it amount to what it would it was all his own; he had paſſed his word and honour, and he ſcorned to revoke it.

A diſintereſted General.

A tax firſt laid on ſalt.

King Philip to maintain the war laid a tax upon his ſubjects which was never known in France before, namely, that of ſalt. He obliged all people to come and buy it at his magazines at ſuch a price as he was pleaſed to lay upon it; which made King Edward his rival ſay, he did well to ſupport his title by the Salique law. He raiſed the value of money alſo, obliging his ſubjects to take it for more than it was coined, which brought him in a great deal of treaſure, but impoveriſhed his country, and diſpoſed his people for a rebellion, eſpecially in Normandy. The Duke of Normandy being ſent to oppoſe the Earl of Derby in Guienne, retook ſeveral places from the Engliſh. Whereupon the King of England aſſembled a great fleet and army to go to the aſſiſtance of his ſubjects on that ſide; but the wind proving contrary, a diſaffected Norman Lord, named Geofrey of Harcom, who was on board the King's ſhip, propoſed his invading Normandy, aſſuring him there were numbers of malecontents that would join him in that province: which being agreed to in a council of war, the deſcent was made near La Hogue, where he met with little oppoſition, King Philip expecting him in another part of the country. Upon the news of this invaſion, the Duke of Normandy immediately marched his forces out of Guienne, and joining with thoſe King Philip had aſſembled, endeavoured to ſtop the progreſs of the King of England; who in the mean time had made

Normandy invaded by the Engliſh.

himſelf maſter of moſt of the towns in Normandy, and amongſt the reſt of Caen, a rich and populous city, the plunder whereof King Edward gave to his ſoldiers, reſerving only one ſhip-load of the moſt valuable treaſure and effects to be ſent to England, which, ſays the French hiſtorian, was a bait for the Engliſh, and encouraged them to aſſiſt their triumphant Prince with all their might, in hopes of dividing the riches of that fine kingdom with their countrymen. He ſent over alſo three hundred of the moſt wealthy citizens, who were to ranſom their perſons with their eſtates; together with the Conſtable of France, the Earl of Tancarville, and above threeſcore knights that were taken in an engagement under the walls of Caen.

The battle of Creſſi, 1346.

Soon after, King Philip, and his ſon the Duke of Normandy, with the whole power of France, that was aſſembled in defence of their country, appeared in ſight; of whoſe ſtrength it ſeems the King of England was ſo apprehenſive, that he thought of nothing but making his retreat by way of Flanders, where he had ſtill a conſiderable party, which he hoped would join him. His difficulty was to paſs the river Somme in view of ſo formidable an enemy; but by his frequent marches and countermarches having gained about a day's march of the French, and found out a ford that was practicable, he paſſed the river without much loſs; and obſerving an advantageous ſpot of ground to encamp his army upon near the village of Creſſi, he determined here to wait the approach of the French army, which overtook him the next day. King Philip finding his enemy ſo ſtrongly poſted, determined to defer the attack till his people had recovered the fatigue of ſo long a march: however, the van of his army being engaged without his knowledge, according to the French, he found himſelf under a neceſſity of ſupporting them, which brought on a general engagement, to the utter ruin of the French army. This defeat was occaſioned, as 'tis ſaid, by the cowardice of the Genoeſe, who were in the front, and run away upon the firſt diſcharge, which diſordered the main body. Some of the French hiſtorians are ſo ſevere upon the memory of King Philip, as to affirm that it happened for want of conduct, and that King Edward was evidently the more accompliſhed General; for it is agreed that the French were at leaſt double the number of the Engliſh, and that they loſt thirty thouſand common men, beſides a vaſt number of their nobility and knights, and fourſcore banners or colours, carried by as many Lords Bannerets, were taken.

Calais beſieged and taken, 1347.

After this victory, which the Prince of Wales has generally the honour of, the King of England laid ſiege to Calais; and as he found it to be a place of great ſtrength, and defended by a numerous garriſon, he determined to ſtarve the town. Accordingly he blocked it up by his fleet towards the ſea, and ſurrounded it on the land-ſide with his ſoldiers huts, that looked like another town, having ſtreets and market-places, ſhops and taverns, and all manner of merchandizes brought hither from Flanders and England, as to ſome great mart. He continued in this ſituation about a year, when the town was obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion; whereupon King Edward removed all the old inhabitants, and peopled it with Engliſh. The French affairs went no better on the ſide of Guienne, where their enemies took one town after another, and quartered their troops in the fine countries upon the Loire. In Bretagne, Charles de Blois was taken priſoner and ſent to England. The French in the mean time had ſpirited up the Scots, as uſual, to attack the Engliſh borders in the abſence of their King: but they were entirely defeated by the Queen of England's army, and their King brought priſoner to London. The only conſolation the French King had, was the Flemmings changing ſides and coming over to his intereſts: but as the Engliſh were now maſters of Calais, they did not ſtand in ſo much need of them as formerly in their expeditions to France. And now King Edward was content to accept of the truce that had been long mediated, on condition that each party ſhould continue in poſſeſſion of what he was poſſeſſed of. This truce was prolonged at ſeveral times to the year 1350, when King Philip died, leaving two ſons by his firſt wife, viz. John Duke of Normandy, who ſucceeded him; and Philip Duke of Orleans and Count of Valois: and he left his ſecond wife, Blanche of Navarre, big with child of a daughter.

John II. 1350.

The French had great expectations of King John when he was advanced to the throne, being of a mature age, (about forty) educated in the myſteries of ſtate, and having commanded the armies of France for a conſiderable time with ſucceſs; and yet there is no reign wherein the kingdom ſuffered more by foreign enemies and inteſtine diviſions. The King was crowned at Rheims on the 26th of September, 1350, when he made ſeveral knights, and amongſt the reſt Charles his eldeſt ſon the firſt, who bore the title of Dauphin on account of his being heir apparent to the crown. The rejoicings for the coronation were ſcarce over, when Raoul Count d'Eu, Conſtable of France, returned from his impriſonment in England, having been taken at the ſtorming of Caen. He was ſeized by the King's order when he came to court, and beheaded without any trial, being in a conſpiracy with the King of England againſt the ſtate, as was afterwards given out.

About the ſame time there was a battle between the French and Engliſh in Guienne, wherein the latter were victorious; after which a truce was made between the two nations, which the French complain was but ill obſerved, eſpecially in Bretagne, where, among other enterprizes, a duel was fought between thirty knights of Bretagne and as many of England, and the Bretons came off conquerors, which they boaſt of to this day. During this truce alſo the King of England ſurprized Guines, having corrupted the governor: which, when the French complained of, they were anſwered that the ſurprizing of places was not prohibited by the truce, or they would not have attempted Calais; for Charni, governor of St Omers, had attempted to ſeize that city, having firſt bought the governor; but the conſpiracy was diſcovered, and Charni with five or ſix hundred French knights made priſoners, beſides a great many cut to pieces. The truce however was continued to the year 1355.

The King of Navarre puts himſelf under the protection of the Engliſh.

In the mean time the King of Navarre came to court, to whom the French chiefly aſcribe the calamities which afterwards happened in the kingdom. He was the ſon of Philip Count of Evreux, a Prince of the blood, and of Jane of France, daughter of King Lewis Hutin. He had been educated at the French court, and was much admired there, as being a moſt accompliſhed young Prince. The avowed deſign of his waiting on the King at this time, was to deſire his daughter Jane in marriage, whom he obtained: but obſerving the perplexity the ſtate was in on account of the conqueſts of the Engliſh, he took the opportunity of demanding the reſtitution of the counties of Champagne and Brie, and the duchy of Burgundy, of which his anceſtors ſeem to have been unjuſtly deprived. The King however did not think fit to reſtore them, but on the contrary, gave ſome part of his territories in Normandy to his inveterate enemy Charles of Spain, then Conſtable of France; at which the King of Navarre was ſo exaſperated, that he ſurprized the Conſtable and murdered him in his houſe; and expecting the King would reſent the outrage, he put himſelf under the protection of the King of England. Such were the ſituation of King John's affairs however at this time, that he durſt not publickly expreſs his diſpleaſure: but the King of Navarre offering to return to his duty on condition he might obtain his pardon, he thought fit to agree to it. This Prince ſtill renewed his conſpiracies againſt the French court, keeping intelligence with the King of England, who was now come over to Calais upon the expiration of the truce, as the Prince of Wales was to Guienne; and it was expected every day that the King of Navarre would make an inſurrection in Normandy, where he had large demeſns, and join the Engliſh. In this critical juncture King John ordered his ſon the Dauphin to invite the King of Navarre to an entertainment at the caſtle of Rouen, (for there was a particular intimacy between thoſe Princes) and while they were at dinner ſurrounding the caſtle with a detachment of his army, he made the King of Navarre priſoner, and cut off the heads of four of his miniſters who were at dinner with him. Whereupon Philip, brother to the King of Navarre, being at liberty, joined the Duke of Lancaſter, who was lately landed in Normandy, with a good body of troops. The Engliſh however were far from performing what was expected from them in Normandy this year, which we are told was occaſioned by the backwardneſs of the parliament to give ſupplies. The Prince of Wales on the other hand made very rapid conqueſts with a handful of men on the ſide of Guienne, laying Auvergne, Limouſin, and Berry, under contribution, and advancing as far as Bourges; which King John having advice of, and foreſeeing it would be difficult for the young Prince to make his retreat, aſſembled his troops and marched towards Berry with the utmoſt expedition. He came up with the Prince at Maupertuis, about two leagues from Poitiers, who finding his communication cut off from his own garriſons, choſe an advantageous camp, and there reſolved to attend the enemy. But having no proviſions with him, and it being impoſſible almoſt for him to receive any, the French hiſtorians lament the raſhneſs of their King in attacking him in a place almoſt inacceſſible, and not endeavouring rather to ſtarve the Engliſh, as he might have done in two or three days. The King's troops, according to their own writers, conſiſted of forty-eight thouſand men, and the Prince of Wales's of twelve thouſand; but then there was no way of coming at him but by one road, where four troopers could hardly march a-breaſt, and where the Engliſh archers, who had lined the hedges and encloſures, took them off as they advanced, till they lay in heaps at the entrance of their camp. And the French being thus put into confuſion in the front, a body of Engliſh horſe wheeled about, and taking a circumference, fell in upon the rear, which compleated their defeat. The King with his ſon Philip, and ſeveral thouſand more, were taken priſoners, and among the ſlain were no leſs than ſeventeen hundred lords and gentlemen.

The battle of Poitiers.

The French relate, that the Pope's legate endeavoured to accommodate matters before the battle begun: that the Prince of Wales was ſo ſenſible of his diſtreſs, that he offered to relinquiſh all the conqueſts he had made this campaign, if King John would give him leave to retire to Bourdeaux: but the King inſiſting that the Prince and an hundred knights ſhould ſurrender themſelves priſoners at diſcretion, he reſolved to defend himſelf to the laſt extremity; and this reſolution was crowned with ſucceſs, much beyond his hopes. However, his troops were ſo few, and his priſoners ſo many and of ſuch quality, that he did not think fit to enter upon any further action, but returned with them into Guienne, in order to ſecure them, with the rich plunder they were maſters of; for they had not only pillaged a great many good towns, but rifled the French camp, which muſt yield them a conſiderable booty, the French King, the Dauphin, and his three brothers, with a numerous nobility, being in the field.

The Dauphin with his two brothers having retired out of the battle in good time, came to Paris, where the ſtates acknowleded the Dauphin lieutenant of the kingdom during the King's abſence. He was ſcarce twenty years of age at this time, and had a very perverſe people to deal with, beſides a victorious enemy, whom he might reaſonably have expected at the gates of Paris in a ſhort time: but the Engliſh of that age ſeem much better qualified to gain than to improve victories; they entirely loſt the advantages they might have made of the confuſion and ill temper the French were in, and ſuffered them by agreeing to a needleſs truce, to recover from their conſternation, and reunite the ſeveral jarring parties in the kingdom: the reaſon of which conduct is generally aſcribed to the unſeaſonable good huſbandry of the Engliſh parliament, who refuſed to ſupply the King with money to maintain his conqueſts. But ſurely as he was maſter of ſo rich a country as France, it would have been no difficult matter to have ſubſiſted his troops, and maintained them by the contributions he might have raiſed there. This, no doubt, was what the Engliſh parliament expected; they might juſtly be piqued, to ſee the demands of the court increaſe with their conqueſts, and the produce of ſo fine a country ſquandered away upon favourites or faithleſs allies, as was in ſome degree the caſe in a much later war with that nation. But to proceed: The Prince of Wales having brought the King of France and his ſon Philip priſoners to London, made his entry into that city upon a little black pad, while he had taken care to have the King mounted on a large fine horſe with the richeſt furniture, appearing himſelf rather as an attendant on that monarch than his conqueror. This the French hiſtorians obſerve, was carrying his priſoner in triumph in a very different manner from that of the antient Romans, who drew their captive Kings after them chained to their chariots. In this he ſhewed a much more elegant taſte of glory, and which will ever be admired by the judicious beyond the moſt ſplendid of the Roman triumphs.

The Prince of Wales's entry into London with his priſoner the French King.

France in a diſtracted ſtate.

The Dauphin in the mean time found a faction in Paris, which rendered him very uneaſy: they inſiſted on his having a council of citizens about him, without whoſe direction they would ſuffer him to tranſact nothing. They took upon them to diſplace ſeveral miniſters, and ſupply their rooms with their own creatures; to which the Dauphin was obliged to ſubmit: all the ſatisfaction he had was to obſerve the nobility well inclined to his perſon, who were exaſperated at the commons for the inſults they daily received at Paris, and in moſt of the cities of the kingdom, after their return from the battle of Poitiers, the people upbraiding them with cowardice and deſerting of their King. Paris, ſays my author, was now become a garriſon town, the tradeſmen having formed themſelves into troops and regiments; the nobility and peaſants in the country had entred into a kind of war, in which thouſands were ſlaughtered; armies of robbers were got together, who fell upon both parties without diſtinction, plundering all the open towns, and none durſt ſtir out of the greater cities for fear of meeting them. In the mean time the common people continued their inſults on the Dauphin at Paris; they let the King of Navarre out of priſon, and placed him at their head, requiring the Dauphin to do him juſtice for the wrongs he had ſuffered, particularly to reſtore the places that had been taken from him in Normandy, and to repeal the attainder of thoſe gentlemen who were taken priſoners with him at Rouen and had been executed; all which the Dauphin was obliged to grant. The Provoſt or Mayor of Paris, who was the head of the factious party, endeavoured to diſtinguiſh his people by ordering them to wear caps half red and half blue; but this ſoon ceaſed to be a diſtinction, for the reſt of the people finding themſelves in danger of being knocked on the head for want of ſuch caps, immediately furniſhed themſelves with them. At length the Mayor carried his inſolence ſo far, that he came to the palace with ſeveral thouſand armed men, to whom the Dauphin coming out and demanding what they wanted, he ordered ſome of his followers to ſeize upon two of the Marſhals of France that attended the Dauphin, and murder them, which was executed before the Dauphin's face; and the Mayor made no other excuſe for this outrage, but that he thought it for the publick good. Hereupon the reſt of the courtiers fled, leaving the Dauphin alone. He aſked the Mayor, whether they had any deſign upon his perſon. He ſaid, no, my Lord; but that you may be ſafe, take my cap. The Prince took it, and gave him his own, which this fellow had the impudence to wear afterwards. And now he thought it a proper time to put his grand project in execution, which was to get the King of Navarre declared King of France; but tho' that Prince had ambition enough to aſpire to the crown of France, and had a prior right to the King of England, if females were admitted into the ſucceſſion, yet the fear of being abandoned by King EDWARD, who was his greateſt ſupport, made him very cautious of taking the title upon him. However, according to the French hiſtorians, meaſures were concerted between him and the Mayor of Paris, to let in a body of the King of Navarre's troops on a certain night, and to murder or expel all the Dauphin's party in the city; but the thing happening to take air, and ſome popular men in the Dauphin's intereſt, giving the citizens to underſtand, that the city was upon the point of being betrayed to the Engliſh, things took a new turn; the Mayor was cut in pieces, and the town appeared now entirely in the Dauphin's intereſt. The French writers do indeed ſuggeſt, that the party of the King of England and the King of Navarre was the ſame, and that notwithſtanding the truce, the Engliſh were at the bottom of theſe attempts and conſpiracies againſt the Dauphin; which, if true, may in ſome meaſure account for King EDWARD's conſenting to a truce when he was victorious. He might hope to effect his deſigns by the King of Navarre's party and their civil diſſenſions, ſooner than by an open war; tho' by the treaty he made with King JOHN afterwards, he does not ſeem to have any deſign upon the crown of France, but only to get the dominions which belonged to England on that ſide the water reſtored.

The faction at Paris propoſe to proclaim the King of Navarre King of France.

The truce being expired, hoſtilities were renewed, or rather continued, ſay the French writers; for they were the ſame troops which ravaged France before under the name of the King of Navarre, that now plundered it under the King of England's colours: but they were ſuſpended for a while, by the coming over of the Archbiſhop of Sens, the Earl of Tancarville, and other Lords, who had been taken priſoners at the battle of Poitiers, with a treaty of peace concluded between the two Kings; wherein it was agreed, that Normandy, Poitou, Anjou, and all the dominions which formerly belonged to England, together with Calais, the counties of Bologne, Guines, Ponthieu, and Montrevil, ſhould be yielded up to England, to be held independently, without paying any homage or acknowledgment to the crown of France; and that the Duke of Bretagne ſhould hold his duchy of the King of England, and do homage to him for it; and laſtly, that four millions of crowns (ſome make them livres) ſhould be paid for the ranſom of the French King and the Lords that were priſoners with him: in conſideration whereof the King of England renounced all right to the crown of France. But this, ſay the French, was putting King EDWARD in poſſeſſion of that crown he pretended to renounce: it was inveſting that part of France which was left to the King on all ſides, and putting the King of England in a condition of taking it whenever he ſhould alledge there was an infraction of the treaty. The Dauphin and the States therefore declared, they would never ſubmit to it. Whereupon King EDWARD raiſed a great army and came over into France, deſtroying the open country with fire and ſword to the very gates of Paris, where the Dauphin had ſhut himſelf up with a numerous garriſon, but did not pretend to make any oppoſition in the field. At length heaven, in the language of the French writers, was pleaſed to put an end to this deſtructive war by a miracle; they tell us, that as the King of England lay encamped with his army near Chartres, a ſtorm of rain and hail, attended by thunder and lightning, ſuch as had never been known in the memory of man, fell upon the camp, and put the King and his army in the greateſt conſternation; inſomuch, that the King in that inſtant vowed to give peace to France. Accordingly he immediately ſent to the deputies of the States to come and treat with him, and was contented to relinquiſh Normandy, Touraine, Anjou, and Maine, which he had inſiſted on in the treaty of London. He agreed alſo to moderate the King's ranſom to three millions of crowns. The French King was to be releaſed forthwith, and forty hoſtages; among whom, LEWIS Duke of Anjou, and JOHN Count of Poitiers, the King's ſons, were to be ſent in his room, for ſecuring the execution of the treaty, in which the King of Navarre

A treaty peace between the two Kings.

Rejected by the States of France, and the war renewed.

A treaty concluded with the States.

Navarre was included. The King of England being returned to Calais, met King JOHN there; and both of them having confirmed the treaty by their oaths, the King of France was left at liberty to return to Paris, after having delivered up the principal hoſtages.

King JOHN dies at London.

LEWIS Duke of Anjou, the King's ſecond ſon, not being guarded very ſtrictly in England, made his eſcape over into France; which his father looked upon as ſo diſhonourable an action, that he determined to return to London, and ſurrender himſelf priſoner again, if he could not ſettle the terms of the treaty: which, when the Dauphin and his Miniſters repreſented the ill conſequences of, he anſwered, that if good faith was baniſhed from the reſt of the world, it always ought to be found among Princes: and that as he obtained his liberty from the King of England only upon condition of executing the late treaty, he would procure the performance of it whatever it coſt him. Some malicious people indeed inſinuate, that all theſe fine pretences were only to cover his paſſion for a lady he had left in England, which deſerves but little credit. He went to London about Chriſtmas 1363, where he was taken ill, and died on the eighth of April following, at the palace of the Savoy, in the fifty-ſixth year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign.

King JOHN left four ſons, viz. 1. CHARLES, who ſucceeded him. 2. LEWIS, Duke of Anjou. 3. JOHN, Duke of Berry. And, 4. PHILIP, Duke of Burgundy. His daughters were, 1. JANE, married to CHARLES I, King of Navarre. 2. MARY, married to the Duke of Bar. 3. ISABELLA, married to JOHN GALEAS, Duke of Milan. And, 4. MARGARET, who choſe the life of a nun.

CHARLES V, 1364.

It is obſerved of CHARLES V, ſirnamed the Wiſe, that he never took the field in perſon, or marched at the head of his armies, as his predeceſſors had done; which the French hiſtorians look upon as one ſignal inſtance of his wiſdom: and it is very true, that the kingdom ſuffered extremely by the impriſonment of his father, which had been prevented, if he had committed the conduct of the army to his Generals. But it may be as prudent for a Prince to lead his troops into the field, and expoſe his perſon at one time, as it may be to keep out of danger at another. There can be no general rule therefore laid down in theſe caſes; and Princes at laſt will act according to their reſpective complections and inclinations; nor will they ever want people to applaud their wiſdom, whether they are daring or timorous.

A war with the King of Navarre.

With the Duke of Britany.

France harraſſed by the diſbanded ſoldiers.

The firſt enterprize that was undertaken in this reign, was the driving the King of Navarre out of the ſeveral towns he poſſeſſed near the Seine, which interrupted the communication between Paris and Rouen, and this occaſioned a battle between the French King's troops and thoſe of the King of Navarre in Normandy, in which the latter were defeated. On the other hand, the Engliſh, who aſſiſted the Duke of Montfort in Bretagne, obtained a compleat victory over CHARLES de BLOIS, his rival, who was ſupported by the French. CHARLES was killed in the field of battle; and MONTFORT was acknowledged Duke of Bretagne, even by the King of France. Soon after a peace was made been France and Navarre; and there only remained thoſe bodies called the Companies, which gave any diſturbance to the kingdom. Theſe were compoſed of deſerters from the ſeveral armies, or ſuch as had been diſbanded, joined with robbers and vagrants, amounting in the whole to thirty thouſand men, commanded by experienced officers, inſomuch, that it was not eaſy to ſuppreſs them: but there happening a civil war in Caſtile, the King prevailed with them to accept an invitation, which one of the parties gave them to enter into the Spaniſh ſervice, and by that means cleared the kingdom of them. And here it will be neceſſary to give ſome account of the wars in Caſtile, becauſe both the French and the Engliſh at length became parties in them. The French account is briefly this:

A war in Spain.

PETER, King of Caſtile, uſually called the Cruel, from the many barbarities he committed, impriſoned his wife BLANCHE, ſiſter to the Queen of France, and finding there was a general conſpiracy of his ſubjects againſt him, who were ſupported by the French King, he proceeded to poiſon her; and it was upon this occaſion, that the Companies above-mentioned were ſent into Caſtile, to ſerve under HENRY, the baſtard brother of PETER the Cruel, who was at the head of the male-contents in that kingdom. Upon the approach of theſe troops, PETER's ſubjects univerſally abandoned him, and proclaimed his brother HENRY King; whereupon PETER fled to the Prince of Wales, who was then at Bourdeaux, and implored his aſſiſtance againſt his rebellious ſubjects; which the Prince promiſed him. And as the Companies who had been inſtrumental in depoſing PETER, conſiſted moſt of them of Engliſh, or Gaſcons, the ſubjects of England, he prevailed on them to quit the ſervice of HENRY the Baſtard, and liſt themſelves under his colours. The Prince alſo having received a great reinforcement from England about the ſame time, which were brought him by his brother the Duke of Lancaſter, he marched over the Pyrenees into Spain, with a gallant army, where he found the enemy however far more numerous, conſiſting of French, Arragonian, and Caſtilian troops, who were confederated together to oppoſe PETER, and maintain HENRY his baſtard-brother, on the throne. After ſome ſkirmiſhes, in which the Caſtilians were ſucceſsful, the two armies came to a general battle on the third of April 1367; and the Prince of Wales having obtained a compleat victory, reſtored the depoſed King PETER; who, if we may credit the French hiſtorians, ſatiated his blood-thirſty humour, by the death and torments he inflicted on the great Lords, and the reſt of his ſubjects, who had contributed to depoſe him. But however that matter be, certain it is, there was ſome miſunderſtanding between the Prince of Wales and King PETER; and the Prince withdrawing his troops ſoon after, there happened another inſurrection in favour of his brother HENRY, wherein PETER was killed, and HENRY advanced to the crown again; and what was an inconceivable diſadvantage to England, the Prince of Wales contracted a diſtemper in this expedition, which he never recovered. His army alſo, great part of it, was deſtroyed by the heat of the climate, which gave the French an opportunity of inſultin the Engliſh territories in France; a thing they never durſt attempt till this misfortune happened. But the wiſe King CHARLES, as the French hiſtorians call him, before he thought fit to declare war againſt England, took care to form ſuch alliances, as might enable him to act with ſucceſs againſt that potent nation; and particularly he ſecured the Earl of Flanders in his intereſts, who having one only daughter, the heireſs of his dominions, he procured her to be married to his brother PHILIP, Duke of Burgundy, and thereby prevented her being given to EDMUND, Earl of Cambridge, ſon to the King of England; which proved of great advantage to CHARLES V, but brought a multitude of misfortunes on his ſucceſſors, as will appear in the courſe of this hiſtory. But the great art or wiſdom of CHARLES V, it ſeems, conſiſted in ſetting the neighbouring Princes together by the ears, and fomenting diſcontents among their ſubjects. We find him creating diſputes between the Spaniards and the Engliſh; and at the ſame time inciting the ſubjects of Guienne to revolt againſt their Sovereign, under pretence of a capitation-tax, that the Prince of Wales had impoſed, to diſcharge the arrears due to his army. He was alſo ſo wiſe as to defer his attempts againſt the Engliſh, till the Prince of Wales was in a declining ſtate of health, and old King EDWARD had left the adminiſtration of his affairs to a concubine in the years of his dotage.

A war between France and England.

In theſe circumſtances, he had the courage to ſummon the Prince of Wales before him as his ſupreme Lord; and for his pretended contumacy in not appearing, to declare the Engliſh territories on that ſide of the water, forfeited to the crown of France, and immediately ſeized upon ſuch places as were in a defenceleſs condition: but King EDWARD tranſporting an army to Calais, under the command of General KNOLLS, they deſtroyed France with fire and ſword to the very gates of Paris, and afterwards marched towards Guienne, ravaging that part of the country as they had done the other; the wiſe King of France ſhutting himſelf up in his capital all the while, and never attempting to oppoſe their march; for which their hiſtorians applaud his conduct, and the more, for that he was ſucceſsful in beating up the Engliſh quarters the following winter. But what proved of the moſt fatal conſequence to the Engliſh in this war, was, the deſtruction of their fleet on the coaſt of Guienne by the Spaniards, who were in a confederacy with the French, in the year 1372; whereupon Rochelle, Poitiers, and moſt of the towns belonging to the Engliſh, except Bourdeaux, and Bayonne, ſurrendered to the enemy. A ſecond fleet alſo, which ſailed from England with a great body of land-forces on board, was diſperſed and driven back by a ſtorm; ſo that had the wiſe King CHARLES been poſſeſſed of a grain of courage, he had now a fair opportunity of driving the Engliſh from the continent. But notwithſtanding all theſe advantages, we find an army commanded by the Duke of Lancaſter, marching the next year, 1373, from Calais to Guienne, that is, from one end of France to the other, plundering the country at their pleaſure; and the French ſtill applaud the wiſdom of their Monarch in not fighting them, comforting themſelves, that the Engliſh loſt a great many men by ſickneſs in this expedition; as if the loſs of part of the Engliſh army were a ſufficient equivalent for the deſtruction of a fine country of that extent.

A truce made.

In the year 1374, a truce was concluded between the two nations, by the mediation of the Pope's Legate.

The Prince of Wales and the King of England die.

Soon after which the Prince of Wales died, who had been long a terror to France; and the King of England himſelf did not live above two years after his ſon; whereupon RICHARD II, ſon of the Prince of Wales, and grandſon of King EDWARD, ſucceeded to that crown, who being an infant, the French King took advantage of his minority, and made himſelf maſter of no leſs than an hundred and thirty fortreſſes belonging to the Engliſh in France, if we may credit the French writers, who a very little before tell us, that the Engliſh were not poſſeſſed of five places in that kingdom; both which accounts can never be true, unleſs the places the French had taken were reſtored to the Engliſh by the laſt truce. They boaſt alſo mightily of plundering the Iſle of Wight, and ſeveral towns upon the Engliſh coaſt, about the time of King EDWARD's death, being aſſiſted by the Spaniſh fleet; but they were not ſo hardy, it ſeems, as to attempt to keep the poſſeſſion of any one place they ſurprized on this ſide the water, but fled to their ſhips as ſoon as the ordinary militia of the country appeared.

The King of Navarre, it is ſaid, about this time, employed his agents to take off the French King by poiſon, as he had attempted once before in the beginning of his reign, and two perſons were executed for it. Whether there was any ſuch deſign or not, is not eaſy to determine at this diſtance of time; but certain it is, that the French made this a pretence for putting very hard conditions upon the King of Navarre.

The reduction of Bretagne attempted in vain.

The next thing King CHARLES attempted, was the uniting Britany to the crown of France, which he looked upon as no difficult matter, moſt of the nobility and gentry of that duchy being already in his intereſt, and many of them in his ſervice; nor did he want a plauſible pretence for this proceeding, that Duke being declared a rebel, and an enemy to the kingdom. He cited him therefore before the Court of Peers; and on his not appearing, declared that duchy to be forfeited. But the Lords of Bretagne apprehending, that they ſhould be deprived of all their privileges by ſuch an union, immediately left the King's ſervice, and entered into an aſſociation to ſtand by their Duke, and receiving a reinforcement of troops from England, drove the French out of their country, and ſo put an end to the project of an union for this time. Soon after King CHARLES died, viz. on the ſixteenth of September 1380, being the forty-fourth year of his age, and the ſeventeenth of his reign. He left behind him two ſons, namely CHARLES, who ſucceeded him; and LEWIS, Duke of Orleans; and one daughter named CATHERINE.

CHARLES VI, 1380.

The late King CHARLES V, did not conſtitute a Regent of the kingdom during the minority of his ſon CHARLES VI, who was about eleven years old when his father died, but recommended him to the care of his three uncles, the Dukes of Anjou, Berry, and Burgundy, and the Duke of Bourbon; who ſeemed to act at firſt with great unanimity, calling to their aſſiſtance the prime nobility, without whoſe advice nothing of moment was entered upon.

The Princes of the blood diſagree about the Regency.

But the Duke of Anjou looking upon himſelf to be entitled to the regency, as he was the eldeſt of the three brothers, it was reſolved to advance the King's majority, and perform the ſolemnity of his coronation in a few months, and to permit the Duke of Anjou to enjoy the title of Regent in the mean time; after which, it was agreed the kingdom ſhould be governed in the King's name by the counſel and advice of the Lords his uncles. This ſcheme the Duke of Anjou would never have come into, if the reſt had not ſuffered him to ingroſs moſt of the late King's treaſure and jewels. But it was obſerved of this Prince, that tho' he had a great deal of ambition, avarice had ſtill the aſcendant of him: as ſhort as his Regency was, he oppreſſed the people with taxes to that degree, that it occaſioned an inſurrection. They were a little pacified however when they ſaw the Princes making preparations for the coronation of his Majeſty, when the Duke of Anjou's adminiſtration was to be at an end; but finding the ſame taxes continued afterwards as before, the people roſe again, plundered the houſes of the collectors of the taxes, and committed other outrages, not only in Paris, but all over the kingdom. Nor were the diſtractions leſs in the court itſelf, for the Dukes of Anjou and Burgundy conſtantly oppoſed each other; and the Duke of Berry, who was a weak indolent Prince, was however diſcontented at his having ſcarce any ſhare in the adminiſtration. The Duke of Burgundy, tho' he was the youngeſt of the three brothers, yet as he was a Prince of a ſuperior genius, and poſſeſſed of large territories in his own right, and heir apparent to Flanders, made much the moſt ſhining figure in the French court; and the Duke of Bourbon adhered to him. To ſatisfy the Duke of Berry, they gave him the government of Languedoc; and the Duke of Anjou, who was adopted by JOAN Queen of Naples, and declared her ſucceſſor, going to take poſſeſſion of that kingdom (in which expedition he loſt his life) the adminiſtration remained ſolely in the hands of the Duke of Burgundy, who having quieted the diſaffected at home, and made peace with the Duke of Britany, marched to the aſſiſtance of his father-in-law the Earl of Flanders, againſt whom the Flemings had revolted.

The Duke Burgundy prevails.

1381. Reduces the rebellious Flemings.

He defeated them in a deciſive battle, and reſtored the Earl to his government, returning with the young King in a triumphant manner to Paris; where he diſarmed the inhabitants, cauſed all the chains of their ſtreets to be taken away, and executed many of thoſe who had been the authors of the late tumults. This city and Rouen alſo were obliged to pay very great ſums for their former inſolent behaviour, and ſubmit to pay thoſe taxes they had procured to be ſuſpended by the late inſurrections. In the mean time the war was faintly carried on between the French and Engliſh, both courts being inclined to pacifick meaſures.

1383. Two Popes at once.

The ſchiſm that was in the Church at this time, ſeems to have been the principal occaſion of that war. England, and moſt of the powers of Europe, had acknowledged URBAN for Pope, while the French alone adhered to CLEMENT, who had been elected by the Cardinals at Avignon.

One publiſhes a cruſado againſt the other.

Whereupon URBAN the Italian Pope, ſent a bull into England to SPENCER Biſhop of Norwich, directing him to publiſh a cruſado againſt the French or Clementines. The Biſhop having raiſed twenty or thirty thouſand men, tranſported them to Flanders, which was then dependant on France, and made himſelf maſter of ſeveral towns: but the Biſhop not being ſupported in this expedition by the King or Nobility, the French ſoon retook the Flemiſh towns; and the Biſhop was obliged to return to England, where he fell under the diſpleaſure of the court, and had his temporalities ſequeſtered.

1384. The following year the Earl of Flanders died; by whoſe death the Duke of Burgundy, who had married his only daughter MARGARET, became poſſeſſed of that fine country.

1385. The French King being in the ſeventeenth year of his age, his uncles married him to the Princeſs ISABELLA, daughter of the Duke of Bavaria.

Preparations for the invaſion of England.

After which, it was propoſed in the French court to invade England, and great preparations were made for it; but the King of England having procured another revolt in the Netherlands, the troops that were deſigned for that enterprize, were employed in reducing the Flemings; only fifteen hundred of the French joined the Scots, and made an incurſion into England. They were ſoon repulſed, and Edinburgh itſelf burnt and plundered by the Engliſh in return.

The King of Navarre having been diſpoſſeſſed of the towns and territories he held in France, and not being able to recover them by open force, about this time formed a deſign of poiſoning the King and the moſt conſiderable Lords about the court; and, according to the French writers, the agent he employed was actually taken in the King's kitchen with the poiſon upon him: whereupon a proceſs was formed againſt the King of Navarre, as a vaſſal to the crown of France for the county of Evreux, and by ſentence of the Peers he was adjuged guilty of high treaſon: but the Prince kept cloſe in Navarre, and did not come within their reach; and only the agent he employed ſuffered for it.

It is obſerved by the French hiſtorians, that the Kings of England and France were much in the ſame condition at this time, both of them young, and in a manner under the direction of their uncles, who took the adminiſtration of the government into their own hands. The Duke of Lancaſter was almoſt abſolute in England, as the Duke of Burgundy was in France, and both the one and the other had their private intereſts in view; but in this the King of France had the advantage, that however his uncles might contend for the miniſtry, none of them aſpired to the crown, as the Duke of Lancaſter and his brothers evidently did in England.

In the year 1386, the French again made preparations to invade England, as the moſt effectual way to oblige the Engliſh to abandon the countries they were poſſeſſed of in France. But the Duke of Berry, who found he was conſulted in this enterprize only for form ſake, determined to make it miſcarry, and did not bring the troops he was to raiſe to the general rendezvous till September. Had the French made a deſcent in England at this time, they had all the reaſon in the world to hope for ſucceſs; for that court was not only divided into factions, but the Duke of Lancaſter had carried the flower of their forces into Portugal, in order to aſſert his title to the crown of Caſtile, having married the daughter and heireſs of PETER the Cruel; but the heats of that country having deſtroyed the beſt part of his army, he was obliged to abandon that enterprize 1386.

The French renewed their deſign upon England a third time in the year 1387, and becauſe that kingdom was actually engaged in a civil war, fourteen thouſand men were thought ſufficient for this expedition, who were to have been commanded by DE CLISSON the Conſtable; but juſt as they were ready to embark in Britany, the Duke of Britany cauſed the Conſtable to be ſeized and detained priſoner, either becauſe he ſuſpected him of ſome deſign upon this duchy, or to make good his engagements with the court of England, under whoſe protection Britany uſually was, and muſt have been united to the crown of France long before this, if the Engliſh had not from time to time 1387.

prevented it. The French King was highly provoked with the Duke of Bretagne for ſeizing the Conſtable, the firſt officer of the crown, and poſſibly would have made him ſenſible of it, if the Dukes of Burgandy and Berry had not interpoſed, who prevailed with the King to paſs by the affront on his ſetting the Conſtable at liberty. His Majeſty being now weary of the tuition of his uncles, declared he would take the reins of government into his own hands; whereupon the Duke of Burgundy retired to his dominions, and the Duke of Berry to his government of Languedoc; but the Duke of Bourbon, of whom the King had a more favourable opinion, he kept near him. All the reſt of the great officers were changed.

1388. The King takes the government into his own hands.

The new miniſtry, to ingratiate themſelves with the people, ſtruck off abundance of penſions which the Dukes of Burgundy and Berry had procured for their creatures, and eaſed the people in their taxes. About the ſame time, LEWIS, the eldeſt ſon of the Duke of Anjou, raiſed an army and reduced the kingdom of Naples, which he looked upon as his inheritance, tho' at preſent it was poſſeſſed by LADISLAUS the ſon of CHARLES DURAS, his father's competitor. He was not long after however driven out of Naples again, and forced to content himſelf with the county of Provence, which was part of the territories left his father by Queen JOAN. The Duke of Bourbon either not approving the preſent adminiſtration, or weary of a court-life, deſired leave of the King to raiſe a body of troops, and aſſiſt the Genoeſe in an expedition they were entering upon againſt Tunis, near which city the Chriſtians landed, and obtained a victory over the Turks; but were forced to raiſe the ſiege of Carthage they had undertaken, and re-imbark their troops, the King of Tunis conſenting firſt to releaſe the Chriſtian captives, and pay them part of their charges of the enterprize.

1389. Duke of Anjou's expedition againſt Naples.

1390.

While the Duke of Bourbon was engaged in this undertaken againſt Tunis, there happened an accident at Paris, that very much alarmed the court. The Conſtable CLISSON, who was in a manner Prime Miniſter, was attacked in the ſtreets in the night-time by one CRAON, a perſon of figure, whom he had diſplaced, and twenty other armed men, who wounded him, and left him for dead, tho' he had the good fortune to recover. CRAON made his eſcape with his followers into Britany, and that Duke refuſed to deliver him up when the King ſent to demand him; which made it ſuſpected, that he was not altogether a ſtranger to the attempt upon the Conſtable. And the King being diſſatisfied with the Duke upon many other accounts, and particularly for not delivering up the places in Britany to the Conſtable which belonged to him, (for the Conſtable was a native of Britany) his Majeſty raiſed an army, and begun his march againſt the Duke, ſummoning the Dukes of Berry and Burgundy to attend him, which they obeyed very willingly. But while the King was about to revenge himſelf on the Duke of Britany, his Majeſty was taken with a moſt unaccountable frenzy, which occaſioned infinite miſeries to France. An eye-witneſs who was then in the army relates, ‘That on the firſt Auguſt, 1392, they obſerved a diſorder in his Majeſty's geſture and diſcourſe; that ſometimes he appeared quite ſtupified, and at others let fall extravagant expreſſions, and then would be compoſed again, and converſe as at other times. This continued by fits for four days. On the fifth, he gave orders for drawing up his troops, as if he deſigned to take a review of them; and placing himſelf at the head of them compleatly armed, he led them to an hoſpital a little diſtance from the town of Mans. While he was there, a beggar of a very mean aſpect having broke thro' the croud, ruſhed into his preſence, and cried aloud, My Prince, where is it you are going? They are about to betray you, and give you up into your enemies hands. Whereupon the King ſtarted back in a fright. In that very inſtant, a ſoldier who was near him dropt his ſword from his ſcabbard, and taking it up, the ſight of a naked ſword, with what he had heard before, gave ſuch a turn to his mind, that he became perfectly diſtracted; and apprehending there was a deſign upon his life, drew his ſword and killed the ſoldier that had juſt taken up his, and three others, one of whom was a gentleman of quality. As he continued fighting with every thing that ſtood before him, at laſt his ſword broke, and they carried him back to Mans, where he fell down in a kind of lethargy, almoſt motionleſs, inſomuch, that ſome thought him dead. The third day after he came to himſelf, and was acquainted with what had happened; whereupon he begged pardon for the miſchief he had done, was confeſſed, and made a vow to viſit the churches of our Lady of Chartres and St DENNIS.’

1391. An attempt to aſſaſſinate the Conſtable.

The French King falls mad. 1392.

This misfortune occaſioned the laying aſide the expedition to Britany; and on his return to Paris, the Dukes of Burgundy and Berry made their court to the King with that addreſs, that he placed them again at the head of affairs; whereupon the Conſtable was diſgraced, and an entire change made in the miniſtry. The Duke of Orleans however, the King's brother, conſtantly oppoſed the Dukes of Burgundy and Berry, on account of their refuſing to let him have any ſhare in the adminiſtratian.

Not long after another accident happened, which was near proving as fatal to his Majeſty as the former. At the marriage of a lady of the Queen's houſhold in January 1393, there being a ball and maſquerade after ſupper, the King entered the hall diſguiſed like a ſatyr, with four young Lords of the court in the ſame dreſs. The better to repreſent theſe ſilvan Deities, their habits were made cloſe to their bodies, and the hair, or materials which were to reſemble it, was ſtuck on with roſin. The Duke of Orleans not foreſeeing the conſequence, wantonly ſet fire to one of theſe maſks; whereupon the roſin was immediately in a flame, and the whole habit took fire; and as the chains prevented their being ſeperated, the fire took hold of them all. They cryed out moſt diſmally, but no body durſt come near to help them: the Ducheſs of Berry only had the preſence of mind to pull off her gown and wrap the King up in it, whereby ſhe extinguiſhed the flame and ſaved his life; the other four were burnt to death. It was expected, that this would have occaſioned a return of the King's diſtemper again, but he was not ſeized with his frenzy till ſummer following, when it having continued on him ſeveral months, he appeared perfectly well again: people were however perpetually apprehenſive of a relapſe. In his lucid intervals, his Majeſty was generally employed in endeavouring to put an end to the ſchiſm which had ſo long continued in the church, as indeed were moſt of the Princes in Europe, who propoſed, that both the Italian Pope, and the French

1393. The King in danger of being burnt at a maſquerade.

1394. The ſchiſm continues in the church.

Pope ſhould reſign, and ſubmit to a new election. But theſe angry old gentlemen, inſtead of conforming to this reaſonable propoſal, excommunicated each other for ſeveral ſucceſſions, and made themſelves the jeſt of all mankind, till the temporal Princes called a General Council, which depoſed them both, and ſet up a third perſon: but this happened ſome time after.

1396. Peace between France and England.

In the year 1396 a treaty of peace was ſet on foot between France and England, and the two Kings had an interview near Calais, when a marriage was concluded between RICHARD King of England and ISABELLA the daughter of CHARLES VI of France, a Princeſs of about ſeven years of age. At this treaty the French writers relate, that the King of England reſtored Breſt to the Duke of Britany, and Cherbourg to the King of Navarre. About the ſame time the Genoeſe put themſelves under the protection of France, and received a French governor; though it was not many years after that they diſmiſſed him, and expelled all the French out of their territories.

An expedition againſt the Turks.

1401.

Richard II, of England depoſed.

The young nobility of France having now no enemy to employ their arms againſt at home, were invited by SIGISMOND King of Hungary, ſon of the Emperor CHARLES IV, to come to his aſſiſtance againſt BAJAZET, Emperor of the Turks; whereupon PHILIP of Artois, Count of Eu, Conſtable of France, the Admiral, and two thouſand noblemen and gentlemen more with their ſervants and dependants, making a very conſiderable body, and commanded by the Count de Nevers, eldeſt ſon of the Duke of Burgundy, marched to join the King of Hungary. Soon after their arrival there happened a general battle between the Chriſtians and Turks, wherein the French behaved themſelves very gallantly at firſt, but purſuing the flying enemy too far, and breaking their order, they were ſurrounded by a body of BAJAZET's army which had not yet engaged, and moſt of them cut to pieces, among whom was the Conſtable. The Count of Nevers their General, with ſome few of the principal nobility, were made priſoners, and forced to pay very extravagant ranſoms for their liberty. The Emperor afterwards obtained freſh ſupplies of France and England and other powers; but all had been too little to ſave him, if in that very inſtant the celebrated TAMERLANE had not invaded the territories of BAJAZET with an innumerable army, defeated him and made him priſoner, whereby Conſtantinople was for this time delivered from the terror of the Turks. But there was another Prince that the King of France would more gladly have aſſiſted, if he could have done it with that expedition the caſe required; and that was RICHARD King of England his ſon-in-law, who having ſeized the inheritance of HENRY Earl of Derby upon the death of his father the Duke of Lancaſter, and baniſhed him into France, the diſaffected Engliſh invited the Earl into England again, advanced him to the throne within ten days after his arrival, and ſoon after impriſoned the depoſed King RICHARD in the tower of London, where it is uſually ſaid he was put to death after a renunciation of the crown had been extorted from him in parliament.

The Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy oppoſe each other.

This revolution was like to have produced a war between France and England. The French attacked the Engliſh territories in Guienne and Gaſcony, gave the Dauphin the title of Duke of Guienne, which belonged to the King of England, and treated HENRY Earl of Derby as an uſurper. On the other hand, King HENRY ſent a reinforcement into Gaſcony to oppoſe the French, detained the Princeſs ISABEL, who had been contracted to King RICHARD, and appeared to be in a condition to defend himſelf againſt his enemies on all ſides: but being more concerned to eſtabliſh himſelf at home than to engage in foreign wars, he agreed at length to ſend back the Princeſs ISABEL, and to renew the truce between the two kingdoms for ſix and twenty years. France, according to their hiſtorians, would have made greater advantage of theſe diſtractions in England, if the King's diſtemper had not ſo frequently returned upon him. He relapſed, ſay they, ſeven times in the year 1399, and all ſorts of remedies, both natural and ſupernatural, were made uſe of to cure him. [What they mean by ſupernatural remedies I muſt confeſs I am at a loſs to diſcover, unleſs they were charms and witchcraft, for the common people generally ſuppoſed he was bewitched.] While the King was thus indiſpoſed, the government was lodged in the Dukes of Berry and Burgundy, but with this difference, that the Duke of Burgundy, tho' the younger, being ſuperior in point of capacity as well as in wealth and territories, took upon himſelf much the greateſt ſhare in the regency. The Duke of Orleans, as hath been obſerved already, was diſguſted to ſee his uncles in the poſſeſſion of that power which he apprehended belonged to him as the King's brother. Formerly indeed he was excluded on account of his youth, but being now near thirty years of age, that pretence was at an end; and from hence aroſe that violent antipathy between the Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy, which deſcended to their poſterity, and ſet that kingdom in a flame. The miſunderſtanding between the Ducheſſes of Orleans and Burgundy was at leaſt equal to that of their huſbands. The Ducheſs of Burgundy took place of the Ducheſs of Orleans, as her huſband was the King's uncle, according to the cuſtom of thoſe times. The Ducheſs of Burgundy alſo had the advantage in point of birth, as Counteſs of Flanders. On the other hand, the Ducheſs of Orleans was ſuperior in beauty, and had moſt of the King's favour, which could never be forgiven. Thus were theſe Princes at the greateſt diſtance that can be conceived; whatever the one advanced, the other oppoſed with all his might.

1403.

1404.

The Duke of Burgundy being obliged to take a journey into his own territories to ſolemnize the marriage of his ſecond ſon, the Duke of Orleans laid hold of this opportunity to repreſent to the King the injuſtice that was done him in preferring his two uncles before him in the government of the ſtate; and being ſeconded by his Ducheſs, whom the King tenderly loved, he obtained an ordinance for declaring him lieutenant-general and governor of the kingdom, while the King's diſtemper would not permit him to attend the adminiſtration of affairs in perſon. The Duke of Burgundy however on his return reſumed his office, revoked the ordinance, and was reſtored to the poſt the Duke of Orleans had poſſeſſed himſelf of in his abſence. The Duke of Burgundy dying ſoon after, the adminiſtration became veſted in the Duke of Orleans and the Queen, who at this time agreed perfectly well; but JOHN the ſon of the late Duke of Burgundy having taken poſſeſſion of the large provinces which deſcended to him, and coming to court afterwards, appeared to be animated with the ſame reſentment againſt the Duke of Orleans as his father had been, and made it his buſineſs to form parties againſt him: and finding him too well eſtabliſhed in the King's favour to be eaſily removed, he retired again into his own territories, where he raiſed a body of ſix or ſeven thouſand men, at the head of whom he marched towards Paris, under pretence of doing homage to his Majeſty for the provinces he held of him. The Queen and the Duke of Orleans receiving advice of his approach in this hoſtile manner, retired to Melun in order to raiſe forces to oppoſe him. The Duke of Burgundy at his arrival, in order to gain the favour of the Pariſians, prevailed with the King to reſtore them their arms, which had been taken from them on the late inſurrections, and that the chains might be again replaced in the ſtreets for their defence, which rendered him extremely popular; and being in poſſeſſion of the King and Dauphin, and the latter contracted to his daughter, he ſeemed now to have a great advantage of his competitor. He invited the Queen and the Duke however to return to Paris, and to aſſiſt in the adminiſtration: 1405. but the Duke of Orleans abſolutely refuſed to ſhare the adminiſtration with him at firſt, and took upon himſelf the title of lieutenant-general and governor of the kingdom under his Majeſty. By the mediation of friends however the two Dukes were at laſt reconciled in appearance, and the Queen and Duke of Orleans returned to Paris. After which the Dukes of Burgundy and Orleans agreed to march with their reſpective troops 1406. againſt the territories of the Engliſh. The Duke of Orleans was to attack Guienne, while Burgundy beſieged Calais: but both enterprizes miſcarried, and they returned to court much chagrined, and their old animoſities were revived: they took every occaſion to diſoblige each other, and frequently without any regard to diſcretion or good manners, till at length the Duke of Burgundy was worked up to that degree of rage, that nothing leſs than the life of his competitor would ſatisfy him.

1407. The Duke of Burgundy procures the Duke of Orleans to be aſſaſſinated.

The Duke of Orleans going to pay a viſit to the Queen one evening, a page of the King's, who held a correſpondence with the Duke of Burgundy, came to him and told him his Majeſty required his preſence upon an affair of moment. His Royal Highneſs immediately mounted, attended only by two gentlemen and three pages who carried torches before him (tho' ſince his quarrel with the Duke of Burgundy he had never ſtirred abroad till then without a guard): he had not rode the length of a ſtreet before he found himſelf ſurrounded by eighteen aſſaſſins, with a Norman gentleman at their head, whom he had lately diſcharged from an employment he held about the King: 'twas he who gave him the firſt blow, and cut off his hand with an ax which he had laid upon the ſaddle. His Royal Highneſs cryed out, I am the Duke of Orleans. 'Tis he whom we want, ſaid the aſſaſſins; when the ſame hand gave him a ſecond blow on the forehead and diſmounted him, and with a third he cleft his ſkull; after which, the murderers made their eſcape.

None of the aſſaſſins being diſcovered, the author of this outrage was concealed for two or three days, when the Duke of Burgundy acknowledged to the Duke of Berry he was concerned in the fact; and retired to his own dominions that he might put himſelf into a condition to juſ- 1408. tify it. Accordingly he ſoon after returned to Paris with an armed force, where he was received by the people, to whom he was very dear, with the higheſt acclamations of joy. Having demanded audience of the King, who was not in a condition to deny it, he ordered one of his creatures to charge the deceaſed Duke with tyranny, and a multitude of other crimes, affirming that the whole kingdom was indebted to him for delivering them from a man of the Duke of Orleans's temper. But the diſcontent of the court appeared by the retreat of the Queen and the Dauphin to Melun again, who were ſoon followed by the Dukes of Berry and Britany; leaving the King in the Duke of Burgundy's power, who extorted a juſtification of the fact from him, and put his own creatures into all the conſiderable places about his Majeſty. This was ſo reſented by the reſt of the Princes of the blood, that the Duke of Berry, and the young Duke of Orleans, with the Dukes of Britany and Bourbon, and the Counts of Alençon, Clermont, and Armagnac, entered into a confederacy againſt him, and wrote a letter to the King, wherein they lamented the ſervitude in which his Majeſty and the Dauphin were detained by the Duke of Burgundy; and begged of him that he would not take it amiſs if they uſed force to deliver him.

1409. A civil war breaks out.

1410. They wrote circular letters to the prelates and nobility, as alſo to the great towns in the kingdom, to engage them in the ſame deſign. The Duke of Burgundy however had ſeveral advantages of his enemies, being maſter of the King's perſon and the Dauphin's, and all his orders ſent abroad in their names and under their ſeals: whereas his adverſaries wanting the colour of authority, were looked upon as a rebellious faction. 1411. The war was vigorouſly carried on by both parties for ſome years; and the Duke of Burgundy was at one time ſo hard preſſed, that he was forced to call in two thouſand of the Engliſh to his aſſiſtance, which gave great offence to the French nobility. 1412. However, in the courſe of the war the Dukes of Berry and Orleans having the diſadvantage, made propoſals alſo to the King of England, offering to deliver up to him Normandy and all the countries he claimed in France, on condition he would ſend them a reinforcement of troops. But the wiſeſt among the French on both ſides conſidering that the introducing an Engliſh army into their bowels would probably be attended with the ruin of their country, a peace was on a ſudden clapt up between the contending parties; and the Engliſh, who were already landed in Normandy, were paid the charges they had been at in this expedi- 1413. tion, and prevailed on to return home. The next year the civil wars in France were revived, the Duke of Burgundy made himſelf maſter of the King's perſon again, and executed ſeveral of the adherents of the Duke of Orleans: but his Royal Highneſs getting into the adminiſtration in his turn, compelled the Duke of Burgundy to leave Paris, and retire to his Flemiſh territories. At this time the Duke of York came over to France from HENRY V King of England, to demand the Princeſs CATHERINE, daughter of the French King, in marriage; but nothing was concluded on that ſubject. However, the truce was renewed for ſome months between the two nations.

1414. The Dauphin and the Duke of Orleans, upon the retreat of the Duke of Burgundy, procured him to be declared an enemy to his country; whereupon the civil war was carried on with more fierceneſs than ever, towns taken and retaken, the country ravaged and plundered on all ſides, till at length the Flemings declaring for France againſt

the Duke; and his brother the Duke of Nevers deſerting him, he found himſelf under a neceſſity of treating with his enemies. The Duke of Orleans, who had ſtill the murder of his father freſh in his memory, was for puſhing things to the laſt extremity; but another embaſſy arriving from England, and demanding the reſtitution of Normandy, and the Dauphin apprehending that the Duke of Burgundy would throw himſelf into the hands of the Engliſh if he was driven to deſpair, thought fit to cloſe with the offers the Duke made, that they might be in a condition with their united forces to oppoſe the invaſion they were threatened with, by the King of England; and a peace was
1415. accordingly concluded and ſworn to by the contending parties with the greateſt ſolemnity on the 14th of May, 1415.

Henry V, of England invades France.

The battle of Agincourt, 1415.

King Henry, notwithſtanding this reconciliation, proceeded in his enterprize againſt France, and having aſſembled a fleet of fifteen hundred ſail of ſhips, on which he embarked ſix thouſand men at arms, and four and twenty thouſand archers, (for muſkets were not yet brought into common uſe) he landed near Harfleur in the mouth of the Seine about the middle of Auguſt, and laying ſiege to that town, which was bravely defended, the place did not capitulate till about ſix weeks after he ſat down before it: and now the ſeaſon was ſo far advanced, it being the latter end of September, and ſo many of his men were fallen ſick, that he did not think it proper to enter upon any further action this campaign, but determined to march his army croſs Picardy, and take winter quarters in the neighbourhood of Calais. The Engliſh muſt certainly have a very mean opinion of the French troops at this time, or they would not have attempted ſuch a march thro' an enemy's country in the face of an army of three or fourſcore thouſand men, when according to their own hiſtorians King Henry had not above fifteen or twenty thouſand at moſt; eſpecially when that Prince might have tranſported his army by ſea to Calais, if he had apprehended any hazard in marching by land. The French it ſeems did give him ſome diſturbance in paſſing the river Somme, but he found a ford at laſt where he got over with very little bloodſhed. And now, when he had conquered the greateſt difficulty, the French writers tell us he was ſo diſcouraged on a ſudden, that he offered their Generals to deliver up Harfleur, and pay the charges of the war, if they would permit him to march to Calais. But if he ever had made ſuch an offer, it is much more rational to ſuppoſe he ſhould have done it before he paſſed the river. But let that be as it will, it is evident the French did not accept the offer if he made it; and having got between the Engliſh army and Calais, King Henry found himſelf under a neceſſity of fighting. They permitted him however to make choice of a very advantageous ſpot of ground to draw up his army upon, where each wing was flanked with a wood, and the French could not extend their front beyond that of the Engliſh, who had planted ſharp ſtakes before them much in the nature of the modern Chevaux de Frize, I preſume, which defended them againſt the attack of the French horſe. Their writers ſeem to inſinuate, that their Generals were not apprized of this barrier of ſtakes (though they tell us the Engliſh made uſe of them in almoſt every engagement). Certain it is, this precaution of the Engliſh contributed very much to the victory they afterwards obtained; for the ſquadrons of horſe which were ordered to charge and break the archers, falling upon the ſtakes, and being at the ſame time overwhelmed with a ſhower of arrows from thoſe bowmen, (who according to the French were a body that had not their equal in the world in this kind of fight) the horſe immediately fled, broke through the lines that were drawn up in the rear, and put them into confuſion. Another occaſion of their defeat, as the French relate, is to be aſcribed to the heavy armour of their men at arms; for it ſeems it was the cuſtom of that time for the horſe to diſmount and fight on foot, and except the firſt two thouſand that charged the archers, all the reſt of the French horſe were diſmounted; and the ground being at that time very wet and miry, the Engliſh, who had no armour on, and conſequently were much lighter, when they had delivered their arrows, and came to attack the French gend'armes with their axes and clubs, had a great advantage of them. The King of England obſerving the enemies confuſion, ordered a body of horſe he had in reſerve to wheel about and attack them in the rear, which occaſioned a general rout, ſeveral bodies that were entire quitting the field without ſtriking a ſtroke. The French writers, from whence I take this relation, ſay, that there was very little blood ſhed on the ſide of the Engliſh, and no perſons of diſtinction killed unleſs the Duke of York the King's uncle, and the Earl of Suffolk: but on the ſide of France there were ten thouſand men killed in the field of battle, of whom eight thouſand were gentlemen, and fourteen thouſand made priſoners. Among the ſlain were the Count of Nevers and the Duke of Brabant, two of the Duke of Burgundy's brothers; the Duke of Alençon, and the Conſtable the Count d'Albret, and three other French Princes, as they call them: and among the priſoners the Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon, the Counts of Eu, Vendome, and Richmont, and the Mareſchal de Boucicaut. It is related of the Duke of Alençon, that ſeeing all was loſt, he determined to die gloriouſly, and with a troop of young gentlemen who attended him, broke through the Engliſh archers and the horſe that were about King Henry, and ſtruck the Duke of York off his horſe at one blow, and afterwards killed him; and the King ſtooping down to aſſiſt his uncle, the Duke of Alençon cleft the crown that was wrought in his Majeſty's helmet in form of a creſt, and if Alençon had not been killed in that very inſtant, his Majeſty had run a great hazard of his life. But to proceed: After the battle King Henry continued his march to Calais without interruption, and the French King, who was then at Rouen, having put the remainder of his army into the garriſon-towns, retired to Paris, appointing the Count d'Armagnac, uncle to the Duke of Orleans, and the greateſt enemy the Duke of Burgundy had, Conſtable of France, and Governor of Paris; ſoon after which, Lewis the Dauphin fell ſick of a dyſentery, and died the 18th of December, being ſucceeded by his brother John, Duke of Touraine.

The Emperor Sigiſmond coming over into 1416.
England in 1416, and mediating a peace between the two nations, there was no conſiderable action happened in France that year. The two factions therefore being delivered at preſent from the terror of the Engliſh arms, renewed the civil war. The preſent Dauphin being in the Duke of Burgundy's intereſt, he propoſed great advantages from it: but this Prince alſo dying, his brother Charles became Dauphin, who was about

ſeventeen

1417.

The Queen and the Duke of Burgundy unite againſt the Orleans faction.

The Dauphin keeps a diſtinct court.

ſeventeen years of age, and entirely governed by the Count d'Armagnac. The Count being informed that the Queen had heaped up a conſiderable treaſure, and a vaſt quantity of jewels, put the Dauphin upon procuring an order from the King to ſeize them for the ſervice of the war, which was immediately put in execution. This exaſperated the Queen to the laſt degree, who retiring to Vincennes, the Count and the Dauphin accuſed her of criminal converſation with one of her houſhold, and proceeded to execute the Lord they had charged with this piece of gallantry. As they were ſenſible that the Queen would infallibly retaliate this uſuage if ever it was in her power, they ſet a guard upon her, and made her in a manner their priſoner. Whereupon ſhe applied herſelf to the Duke of Burgundy, propoſing a reconcilation with him, and to unite their Intereſts againſt the Dauphin and the Orleans faction, who were generally called Armagnaces, from the Count of Armagnac, who was governor of Paris, and the ſoul of that party. The Duke received this intimation from the Queen with joy, and marching immediately with a ſelect body of troops to Tours, where her Majeſty was confined, he brought her off before the Conſtable Armagnac had any notice of the deſign. The Queen now took upon her the title of Regent by virtue of a former edict, and in confederacy with the Duke of Burgundy carried on the war againſt the Armagnac faction with more vigour than ever; of which the King of England having advice, made a ſecond deſcent in Normandy, in the year 1417, where he made himſelf maſter of Caen, Cherbourg, and ſeveral other towns. In the mean time the Duke of Burgundy ſurprized Paris, and put to death the Count d'Armagnac, and moſt of the heads of that party; but the Dauphin with ſome of his followers had the good fortune to eſcape to Bourges, And now the Queen and Duke having the King and the capital city in their power, ſeemed to act by royal authority, while the Dauphin and his friends conſtituted a diſtinct court, poſſeſſed themſelves of Berry and part of Languedoc, and became pretty formidable in that part of the kingdom.

1418. The King of England conquers Normandy.

1419.

The Duke of Burgundy murdered at an interview with the Dauphin.

The King of England proceeded in his conqueſts in Normandy, reducing Rouen the capital, and indeed almoſt every other town in that duchy, in the year 1418. The Engliſh carried on the war in a much more prudent manner than they had done in the reign of EDWARD III, who made large conqueſts indeed, and over-run France ſeveral times from one end to the other, but did not make himſelf maſter of the ſtrong towns and fortreſſes as he went along; ſo that he uſually loſt in the latter end of a campaign, or the following winter, all he had gained in the ſummer. HENRY V, ſeems to have been better verſed in the art of war, ſecuring his conqueſts as he advanced: and had he lived a little longer, or not left an infant upon his throne, 'tis highly probable the Engliſh had remained Sovereigns of France to this day. Tho' perhaps we need not much lament the loſs; for as the leſſer kingdom is uſually dependent on the larger, we might probably have become a province to the nation we conquered; or have been in the condition Scotland is in reſpect to this kingdom, who have had the honour of giving us a King indeed, but have now neither King or Parliament amongſt them. The progreſs of the Engliſh arms ſo alarmed both the Dauphin and the Duke of Burgundy, that notwithſtanding that implacable animoſity they ſeemed to entertain for each other, they thought fit to ſtifle their reſentments for the preſent, and clap up a truce, and the Dauphin conſented to an interview with the Duke, in order to provide for their common defence. But the dependants of the late Duke of Orleans ſuggeſting to the Dauphin that the kingdom would never long remain united unleſs the Duke of Burgundy was taken off, a ſecond interview was treacherouſly appointed, at which the Duke of Burgundy was cut in pieces by the Dauphin's attendants, the firſt blow being given by a ſervant of the late Duke of Orleans, whom the Duke of Burgundy had cauſed to be aſſaſſinated in the ſtreets of Paris about twelve years before. And tho' ſome people looked upon this proceeding as a piece of juſtice on that account, yet moſt men were ſtruck with aſtoniſhment and indignation at the Dauphin's treachery. He pretended indeed in his apologies and memorials on this ſubject, that it was a pure accident, and was occaſioned by ſome inſult of the Duke's at that conference; which did not obtain much credit. But however that was, none expreſſed a greater reſentment at the fact than the Queen, tho' the Dauphin was her only ſon then living: and indeed ſhe was ſufficiently exaſperated againſt him before, for ſeizing her treaſure, impriſoning her, and charging her with being falſe to the King's bed. Theſe were ſuch provocations as ſcarce any lady would have borne: and tho' the French writers are very ſevere upon her character on account of the oppoſition ſhe made to the Dauphin, it muſt be acknowledged he had firſt thrown off all regard for her as a mother, before ſhe abandoned his intereſts. She no ſooner heard of the Duke's death, but ſhe diſpatched a courier to his ſon PHILIP, to aſſure him that the King, herſelf, and the city of Paris, would all join with him to revenge the murder: and the King of England being now maſter of great part of France, ſhe propoſed to him the marriage of her daughter the Princeſs CATHERINE, and that he ſhould ſucceed to the crown upon the demiſe of the preſent King, to the excluſion of the Dauphin, and in the mean time be declared regent of the kingdom; which propoſal the King of England readily came into, and the treaty was ſigned at Troyes in Champagne upon the 21ſt of May, 1419, being ratified afterwards by the parliament of Paris. In purſuance of this treaty the Princeſs CATHERINE was twelve days afterwards married to King HENRY, and the Dauphin declared a publick enemy. He was alſo ſummoned to the marble table to anſwer for the murder of the Duke of Burgundy, and on his not appearing, convicted of contumacy, and baniſhed the kingdom for ever. But he continued ſtill in the province of Berry, waiting for a favourable opportunity to reſtore his affairs.

Treaty of Troyes, where the King of England is declared Regent and Succeſſor to the crown of France.

The King of England's publick entry into Paris.

The Engliſh having taken Melun, the two Kings, with the Queen and the Duke of Burgundy, came to Paris the firſt Sunday in Advent, and the Duke of Clarence, the King of England's brother, was made governor of the city. From that time, the French writers obſerve, the courts of the two Kings made a very different appearance. The court of the King of England was ſplendid and magnificent, and crowded with a numerous retinue, whilſt that of the King of France was deſerted; which gave occaſion to many of the French to lament the fate of their country in private, ſay their hiſtorians. And what ſtill gave them greater uneaſineſs, was, that King HENRY made the people

The States of France grant King HENRY a ſubſidy.

ple he had conquered contribute to the eſtabliſhment of his government; for having aſſembled the States, he required a ſubſidy of them, which they were not in a condition to refuſe, but granted without one diſſenting voice, expreſſing at leaſt a ſeeming readineſs in granting that which they knew was in the conqueror's power to levy in an inſtant by a military force; and which, if it had been denied, might have furniſhed him with a pretence of demanding a great deal more. But this prudent Prince choſe to let every thing run in the ſame channel, and to make as few alterations as poſſible, that he might reconcile that people to his government. He might reaſonably expect that what was given by the States would be levied with leſs murmuring than what he ſhould raiſe by a deſpotick power. We cannot but obſerve at this day, that this Prince was equally verſed in the arts of war and peace. We ſee how he made his advances gradually in the enemy's country, and ſecured what he made himſelf maſter of as he went along; and that afterwards he made the conquered country in a great meaſure maintain itſelf, that he might not be too burthenſome to his Engliſh ſubjects. Nor do we find him guilty of any acts of tyranny and oppreſſion when he was at the height of his glory, and in a manner maſter of both kingdoms. But to proceed in our hiſtory: The King of England returning home in order to re-inforce his army, (for it was too ſoon to put much confidence in his new ſubjects) ſix or ſeven thouſand Scots came over into France in the mean time to the Dauphin's aſſiſtance, and joining with his troops near Beauge in Anjou, defeated a conſiderable body of the Engliſh, commanded by the Duke of Clarence the King's brother, who was killed in the field of battle, and ſeveral others of the Engliſh nobility were killed or taken priſoners, which gave ſome life to the Dauphin's affairs, and occaſioned ſeveral places to declare for him. And indeed next to the untimely death of King HENRY, which happened not long after, the Dauphin was obliged to the Scots for his re-eſtabliſhment. The diverſion they made in England, and the re-inforcements they ſent him from time to time when his fortunes were at the loweſt ebb, kept his head above water, and enabled him to wait for a favourable juncture to reſtore his affairs.

1421. The Engliſh defeated at Beauge, and the Duke of Clarence killed.

The Dauphin was encouraged by his late ſucceſs to lay ſiege to Chartres; but the King of England returning into France ſoon after with a great re-inforcement, he was glad to quit the ſiege, and retire to Bourges the capital of Berry, which being the only province he was entirely maſter of, occaſioned his being called by the Engliſh in deriſion the King of Berry. King HENRY in the mean time laid ſiege to Meaux, the capital of the country of Brie, and a place of great ſtrength, which held out a ſiege of ſeven or eight months, when they were forced to ſurrender at diſcretion. The King ordered the head of VANRUS the governor to be cut off, and his body hanged upon a tree near the town, called VANRUS's Tree, from the numbers of Engliſh he had hanged upon it; for he was an implacable enemy to that nation.

1422.

King HENRY dies.

The Queen of England, who had the year before been delivered of a ſon at Windſor, coming over to France with another re-inforcement of troops, rejoicings were made at Paris for the birth of that Prince, equal to thoſe that had been made at London on the ſame occaſion. But the King of England being ſoon after taken dangerouſly ill as he was upon the march to find out the Dauphin, all their mirth was damped. He expired on the laſt of Auguſt 1422, declaring his brother HUMPHREY, Duke of Glouceſter, regent of England during the minority of his ſon. He adviſed his council to offer the regency of France to the Duke of Burgundy, and on his refuſal he nominated his other brother, the Duke of Bedford, to take upon him the regency of that kingdom. The Duke of Burgundy receiving advice of the King of England's illneſs, immediately ſet forward to viſit him, but found him dead on his arrival; and having conſulted with the Engliſh council, agreed with them that the Duke of Bedford ſhould undertake the regency. The old King of France did not long ſurvive King HENRY, for he died at Paris on the twenty-firſt of October following. There was no Prince of the blood, the French hiſtorians obſerve, to aſſiſt at his interment, ſome of them having been killed at the battle of Agincourt, others priſoners in England, and the reſt abſent, they ſuppoſe, as not approving the preſent adminiſtration; or becauſe they would not ſeem to authorize by their preſence the proclaiming HENRY VI as King of France. The Duke of Bedford therefore only attended the obſequies of the French King in mourning; and the corps was no ſooner interred, than a herald having exhorted the people to pray for the ſoul of CHARLES the Sixth, added, Long live HENRY of Lancaſter, King of France and England. The deceaſed King had had ſix ſons and as many daughters, and of all his ſons only CHARLES the Dauphin ſurvived him, who is from this time ſtiled King of France by the French hiſtorians; tho' HENRY VI was actually proclaimed King of France at Paris, and in poſſeſſion of the greateſt part of that kingdom for a conſiderable time afterwards.

Duke of Glouceſter regent of England.

Duke of Bedford regent of France.

King of France dies.

HENRY VI, proclaimed King of France.

CHARLES VII, 1422.

In conformity to the French hiſtorians, I begin the reign of CHARLES the Seventh here, tho' to me HENRY VI appears to be King of France at this time, *de jure* as well as *de facto*; for the crown of France devolved upon him by virtue of the treaty of Troyes, which was afterwards confirmed by the aſſembly of the Eſtates: and if treaties made between ſovereign Princes, or acts of ſettlement made by the legiſlature of any kingdom are of any force to bind the ſucceſſion, I cannot ſee what pretence the French have to exclude Henry VI from the number of their Kings, eſpecially when he was actually crowned and recognized there: we may as well ſtrike him out of the catalogue of the Kings of England, becauſe he was afterwards deprived of that part of his dominions alſo. Though perhaps we have been as much in the other extreme in ſtiling our Monarchs Kings of France ever ſince, when we have by innumerable treaties, virtually at leaſt, acknowledged the French King's title to that kingdom. But to proceed:

CHARLES cauſes himſelf to be proclaimed and crowned King of France.

1423. Battle of Crevant.

The Dauphin upon advice of his father's death, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed King of France, and ſoon after crowned at Poitiers, which gave ſome encouragement to his party, and brought ſome to declare for him who had hitherto ſtood neuter. On the other hand, the Duke of Bedford the regent, to ſtrengthen the hands of the Engliſh, renewed the alliances between them and the Dukes of Burgundy and Britany. The provinces all the while were divided into different parties and intereſts, and ſcarce a day paſſed without a ſkirmiſh: but the moſt conſiderable action happened near the town of Crevant in Burgundy, where

1424. The French routed at Yory.

A quarrel between the Engliſh and Burgundians prevents the entire conqueſt of France.

where the Dauphinois having been joined by a body of Scots, were entirely defeated; and the Dauphin's troops having the worſt in many other encounters this year, he found himſelf under a neceſſity of retiring to the ſouthward of the Loire. Here he ſollicited his friends in Spain and Italy to ſend ſome troops to his aſſiſtance. From Spain he received a ſmall detachment, and the Duke of Milan furniſhed him with a thouſand foot, and about ſix hundred horſe; but his principal ſupplies arrived from Scotland, amounting to five or ſix thouſand Scots, under the command of Earl DOUGLAS. The Duke of Bedford, on the other ſide, having received freſh recruits from England, and being joined by the Duke of Burgundy's forces, took ſeveral conſiderable towns from the Dauphinois, and being ſet down before Yory on the confines of Normandy, the Earl of Buchan, a Scot whom the Dauphin had honoured with the title of Conſtable of France, came to it's relief, which occaſioned a general battle, wherein the Dauphin's party was defeated, four or five thouſand men killed, among whom was the Conſtable Earl DOUGLAS, and ſeveral other perſons of diſtinction; which victory was attended with the ſurrender of Mans, Mayenne, and many other conſiderable places, to the Engliſh. And now it was expected every day that the Duke of Bedford would paſs the Loire, and reduce the reſt of France to the obedience of King HENRY; but it muſt be acknowledged that the Dauphin had abundance of good fortune on his ſide, if he had neither money, troops, or courage, for in this very inſtant, when, in all probability, he would have been obliged to abandon the kingdom, an unforeſeen quarrel happened between the Engliſh and Burgundians, which gave his friends time to recover from their conſternation, and provide for their defence; otherwiſe, in the opinion of MEZERAY, one of their moſt celebrated hiſtorians, the Engliſh had made an entire conqueſt of France.

The occaſion of this miſunderſtanding between the Engliſh and Burgundians, was an unfortunate amour of the Duke of Glouceſter's, regent of England, with JAQUELINE Counteſs of Hainault and Holland; ſhe was already married to the Duke of Brabant, a Prince remarkably weak both in body and mind, and being no longer able to endure him, ſhe pretended the marriage was null, and ſent to Rome for his Holineſs's opinion upon it, and in the mean time made an offer of her perſon to the Duke of Glouceſter, who, as ſhe was heireſs of ſeveral fine countries, immediately married her, without waiting for the reſolution of the Pontiff. He proceeded ſoon after to tranſport a conſiderable force to Calais, in order to take poſſeſſion of Hainault his wife's inheritance; but the Duke of Burgundy ſending a body of troops to the aſſiſtance of his couſin the Duke of Brabant, he met with a vigorous reſiſtance. And what rendered this occurrence the more unfortunate to the Engliſh affairs, was, that the troops both on the ſide of the Duke of Glouceſter and Burgundy were deſigned to reinforce the Duke of Bedford if this adventure had not happened, and he was obliged to remain perfectly inactive for a year or two for want of thoſe forces. However, the Pope's determination arriving, that the Duke of Glouceſter's marriage with the Counteſs of Hainault was null, he deſiſted from his pretenſions, and married the Lady ELEANOR, daughter of the Lord COBHAM, who, according to common fame, had long been his miſs. And thus the occaſion of the quarrel being removed, the Duke of Burgundy was reconciled to the Engliſh, and ſent his troops again to join the Duke of Bedford. During this long interval of inaction, the Dauphin had not only very much increaſed his party, but formed ſome advantageous alliances, eſpecially with the Duke of Britany, whom he had drawn off from the Engliſh. The Duke of Bedford however, marching into Britany, ſoon compelled their Duke to quit the Dauphin's party, and ſign the treaty of Troyes, whereby the King of England was declared ſucceſſor to the late King of France. And now the Duke of Bedford determined to put the deſign in execution he had ſo long ſuſpended on account of the miſunderſtandings between the courts of England and Burgundy, namely, to paſs the Loire, and make himſelf maſter of the countries to the ſouthward of it; and in order to this, he detached a part of his army to inveſt, or rather block up the city of Orleans, for it was of too large an extent to be entirely ſurrounded by ſuch a handful of men as this army conſiſted of; and it is ſurprizing to think that the Engliſh, who ſcarce ever exceeded five and twenty thouſand men in the field, ſhould be able to undertake a ſiege of that conſequence, and keep ſuch a large populous kingdom in awe at the ſame time. The perſon the Duke of Bedford pitched upon to carry on this ſiege was THOMAS MONTACUTE, Earl of Saliſbury, eſteemed one of the moſt accompliſhed Generals in the Engliſh Service; he ſat down before the town on the ſide of Sologne on the twelfth of October 1427. Thus the place was inveſted but on one ſide, and the Dauphin left at liberty to throw in ſupplies of men and proviſion, as he did from time to time during the ſiege. The Engliſh however ſtormed a great baſtion at the foot of the bridge, and a ſmall caſtle called the Torelles, and carried them, and had great hopes of ſucceeding in the enterprize, till their General the Earl of Saliſbury was unfortunately killed by a muſket-ſhot as he was viewing the breach in order to make a general aſſault. Their courage was however revived by the approach of the Duke of Burgundy's troops in the month of December 1428; they took poſt on that ſide of the town towards la Beauſſe, but ſtill not having forces enough entirely to encompaſs the city, they built forts and redoubts at certain diſtances round the town, not ſo near however but there were yet ſome intervals, by which relief might be put into the place; and this occaſioned ſeveral ſmart actions between the beſiegers and the Dauphinois, as proviſion was ſending to the city or the camp; the moſt remarkable of which happened on the 12th of February, 1429, between the Count de Clermont and the celebrated Sir JOHN FALSTAFF; the latter was convoying a ſupply from Paris to the Engliſh camp, and being attacked by the French, defeated them. This was called the battle of Herrings, there being great quantities of them among the proviſions.

1427.

The ſiege of Orleans.

1428.

1429. The battle of Herrings.

Notwithſtanding the frequent opportunities the Dauphin had of throwing ſupplies of men and proviſions into the town, the ſiege was carried on with ſuch vigour, that it was evident it muſt ſurrender in a ſhort time: whereupon the beſieged cunningly offered to put the city into the hands of the Duke of Burgundy; to which the Duke of Bedford anſwered, he hoped they did not think to make a tool of him; that he ſhould beat the buſh, and leave others to catch the birds: intimating, that as the Engliſh had been chiefly inſtrumental in carrying on the ſiege, it was not fit the Burgundians ſhould run away with all the advantage;

The Duke of Burgundy deſerts the Engliſh at the ſiege.

tage; for it muſt be remembered that the Duke of Burgundy's troops did not join the Engliſh before Orleans till half a year after they were ſet down before it. But however rational the anſwer was which the Regent gave on this occaſion, the beſieged gained their point by it, creating ſuch a difference between the Engliſh and the Duke of Burgundy, that he immediately withdrew his troops from before the place.

The Maid of Orleans.

The Engliſh ſtill carried on their attacks; but as moſt part of the town was now open to the Dauphinois, it could not be a very difficult matter to bring them relief, eſpecially when the army of the beſiegers did not conſiſt of ten thouſand men, and the garriſon was at leaſt as numerous: but the French were at this time ſo diſpirited, that notwithſtanding the diſadvantages the beſiegers laboured under, their ſoldiers could hardly be prevailed with to march to the relief of the place. The Dauphin and his Generals therefore finding they had apparently a great ſuperiority in the field in point of numbers, and the country unanimouſly in their intereſt, conſidered that if they could find any expedient to animate their men, their affairs muſt ſoon put on a new face: having met with a young maid therefore of a maſculine courage on the confines of Lorrain, they brought her to the Dauphin's court, pretending that ſhe was ſent from Heaven to deliver Orleans from the Engliſh. They had taught her the exerciſe of arms, and inſtructed her in all manner of military operations before ſhe was brought upon the ſtage, ſo that ſhe knew how to behave at the head of a company or ſquadron as well as moſt of the officers of the army; and this was all to paſs for inſpiration. The gracefulneſs of her perſon and addreſs, and the uncommonneſs of finding one of that ſoft ſex ſo daring and well ſkilled in martial affairs, ſufficiently prejudiced the vulgar in her favour. There was no great difficulty in bringing them to believe ſhe was raiſed up by Heaven for their deliverance; and in this perſuaſion they crouded to march under her colours to the relief of Orleans, by which the Generals of the Dauphinois gained their point: for nothing but an unaccountable dread of the enemy could have prevented their throwing ſupplies into Orleans as often as they pleaſed, if we conſider the ſmall number of the Engliſh before it, and the great extent of the place. The Dauphin therefore having aſſembled an army of fourteen or fifteen thouſand men, commanded by his moſt celebrated Generals, with the Maid of Orleans (as the impoſtor was afterwards called) at their head, ſent them to re-inforce the beſieged, and found but little difficulty in entering the town on that ſide which was open to them. This was cried up as one of the moſt daring enterprizes that ever was undertaken, and the ſucceſs looked upon even as miraculous by all the Dauphin's party through the kingdom. And now the garriſon conſiſting of about three times the number of the beſiegers, they ventured to attack the forts and redoubts which the Engliſh had built about the place, ſome of which they carried. This was aſcribed to the conduct of the holy Maid, and the people thereby induced to believe, that they ſhould always be victorious while this heroick virgin remained at their head. Certain it is, the Engliſh finding the garriſon ſo very numerous, and being deſerted by the Burgundians, had now no hopes of taking the place: they raiſed the ſiege therefore, and marched off in good order with about eight or nine thouſand men, being all the forces they had there. And though their number was ſo very ſmall, the courage of the French was not yet ſo much raiſed as to venture to give them any diſturbance in their retreat. The Dauphin's Generals would by no means however have this conduct to be thought the effect of their fears, but pretended it was the expreſs order of Heaven, by the mouth of the Maid of Orleans, that they ſhould not purſue the enemy. The truth is, they found their affairs upon the mending hand, and they had no mind to attack a body of nine thouſand veteran troops, and put the fate of their country upon the iſſue of a battle, when a little time and patience would probably produce the ſame effects they could hope for by a victory.

The ſiege of Orleans raiſed, May 28.

The battle of Patay.

The raiſing the ſiege of Orleans was attended with the ſurrender of ſeveral places to the French, and the Duke of Alençon not long after ſurprized part of the Engliſh army at Patay, where they killed about fifteen hundred of them, and took the Lords TALBOT and SEALE priſoners; and tho' the reſt of the detachment made a regular retreat, it was eſteemed a great victory, and aſcribed alſo to the conduct of the Maid of Orleans. This defeat was imputed to the negligence or cowardice of FALSTAFF, though it appears from our hiſtories that he had formerly behaved himſelf like a man of honour. He was not only ſufficiently lampooned however upon this occaſion, as appears by ſome ballads ſtill in being, but degraded from the order of the Garter, which he had been formerly admitted to upon his good ſucceſs in ſome former expeditions. Though the defeat of Patay was not very conſiderable in itſelf, yet it was of great conſequence to the French; it ſhewed them that the Engliſh they ſo much dreaded were but men like themſelves, and encouraged many people to come over to the Dauphin's party who had taken oaths of allegiance to the Engliſh. They pretended they were abſolved from their oaths by Heaven itſelf, who had ſent the Maid of Orleans to aſſert the right of their natural Sovereign: ſuch excellent uſe we find may be made of an impoſtor artfully managed. This train of ſucceſs ſo exalted the Dauphin, that he left his faſtneſſes beyond the Loire, and ventured to march croſs the country as far as Rheims, and having ſurprized that city, cauſed himſelf to be crowned there a ſecond time, which gave ſtill greater credit to their heroine, who they pretend had foretold that he ſhould ſhortly be crowned at Rheims, when there appeared ſcarce any poſſibility of it's being effected. But however that be, it is not to be conceived what a turn this coronation in the city where his anceſtors had been conſecrated gave to King CHARLES's affairs: many great cities immediately ſubmitted to him, and it was with the utmoſt difficulty that the Regent prevented the revolt of Paris itſelf.

King CHARLES crowned at Rheims.

The Maid of Orleans burnt.

But after all theſe ſucceſſes, which had been aſcribed to the divine aid brought them by the Maid of Orleans, ſhe was taken priſoner in the year 1430, and burnt for an impoſtor in the city of Rouen, at the time King HENRY arrived there in his way to Paris, whither he was going to his coronation; the Regent apprehending that the performing this ceremony in the capital city of the kingdom might prove advantageous to his cauſe. The King of England, as the French ſtile him, made a very magnificent entry into Paris on the ſecond of December 1431, being conſecrated and crowned on the ſeventeenth of the ſame month by the Cardinal of Wincheſter; this was performed rather according to the ceremonial of England, than the cuſtoms of France, ſay the French writers;

The King of England crowned at Paris. 1431.

writers; from whence I preſume they would infer ſome defect in the ceremony. He returned to Rouen the day after Chriſtmas, the regent apprehending he would be more ſecure there than in Paris, which was almoſt ſurrounded by the enemy; but he ſeems to have been in equal danger in that city, the caſtle of Rouen being ſurprized at the very time the King was there, tho' it was retaken by the Engliſh indeed the next moment, and the city ſecured, which happened, as the French relate, through ſome miſunderſtandings among their Generals, otherwiſe they had made King HENRY priſoner, and put a final end to the war. This Prince was crowned King of France when he was about nine years of age.

Miſunderſtandings between the Engliſh and Burgundians, 1433.

As the Duke of Bedford had married the Duke of Burgundy's ſiſter, this Princeſs had found means to reconcile her brother and her huſband, and the war was again carried on againſt the French with tolerable ſucceſs; but the Ducheſs of Bedford happening to die in the year 1433, and the Duke marrying a perſon that the Duke of Burgundy did not approve of, the latter was pleaſed to reſent it, or rather took this opportunity of expreſſing that averſion to him and the Engliſh cauſe, which he had entertained ſome time before: however, he propoſed a congreſs to all the parties concerned in the war, in order to adjuſt their ſeveral differences, and Arras was appointed for the place of conference. The plenipotentiaries of England and France ſoon diſcovered that it was not poſſible to come to any agreement, both their maſters inſiſting on their title to the crown of France; whereupon the Engliſh miniſters withdrew, and left the French and the Burgundians to treat by themſelves: where the Duke of Burgundy obtained whatever he aſked, for the French were determined to gain him over to their party at any price, and granted him ſuch terms, as, in the words of the French hiſtorians, nothing but the neceſſity of their affairs could juſtify; it was, ſay they, a very ſhameful peace, but a very uſeful one: among other things, it was ſtipulated, that King CHARLES ſhould diſavow the murder of JOHN the preſent Duke's father, that he ſhould beg of him to forget the injury, and be reconciled to him, and that all perſons ſhould be brought to juſtice who were concerned in the murder; that the King ſhould erect a church where the murder was committed, the preſentation to which ſhould be in the Duke and his ſucceſſors.

Treaty at Arras between France and Burgundy.

That the King ſhould grant the county of Burgundy, as well as the duchy, with many conſiderable cities ſpecified in the articles, to him and his heirs; that he ſhould tranſfer over to him all the towns and fortreſſes on both ſides the Somme in Picardy, the county of Ponthieu, Dourlans, Bologne, &c. and that the Duke ſhould not be obliged to do fealty, homage or ſervice to the King for any of the countries or places he poſſeſſed. Which were ſuch conditions, as ſcarce ever any vaſſal obtained from his Sovereign before.

King CHARLES having ſtrengthened himſelf by this alliance with the Duke of Burgundy, many of the French Lords were induced to deſert the Engliſh ſervice, and make their court to him: the Duke of Bedford however continued the war, and took St Dennis, and ſeveral other conſiderable towns, as the French on their ſide did others from the Engliſh; and ſo equal were their forces at this time, that there appeared very little hopes of putting a period to the diſtractions of the kingdom, till the death of the Regent, which happened on the fifteenth of December, 1435, to whoſe conduct, according to the French, the Engliſh were indebted for the greateſt part of their conqueſts, and ſtanding their ground ſo long, when they received ſcarce any ſupplies from England. He was ſucceeded in the government of France by RICHARD Duke of York.

Duke of Bedford Regent of France dies, 1435.

The Engliſh, to ſhew their reſentment for the Duke of Burgundy's deſerting them, plundered his country, and took ſeveral of his towns, whereby they rendered him their moſt inveterate enemy, which certainly was an error in politicks, when he was willing to have ſtood neuter. In the condition the Engliſh were at this time from their diviſions at home, and ſo large a country abroad to defend with a handful of men, they had no occaſion to have made themſelves new enemies. The year after the Duke of Bedford's death, the Pariſians entered into a conſpiracy againſt the Engliſh, and let the Conſtable of France into that city with a detachment of King CHARLES's army; the Governor WILLOUGHBY had juſt time enough to retire into the Baſtile with his garriſon, and upon articles of capitulation, was permitted to retire to Rouen with his garriſon, arms, and baggage: and thus the capital of the kingdom was loſt without ſtriking a ſtroke. And it is to be wondered how the Engliſh ſo long maintained themſelves in ſuch a vaſt populous city, with a garriſon which ſeldom ever exceeded two thouſand men, and at this time not twelve hundred. The Duke of Burgundy at the ſame time laid ſiege to Calais, but did not meet with the like ſucceſs; he was forced to riſe from before it; and the Duke of Glouceſter ſoon after tranſporting thither ten thouſand men, returned his viſit, burning and deſtroying his country of Artois with fire and ſword. Pontoiſe and ſeveral other places alſo were taken from the French this year, and the war ſeemed yet to be vigorouſly carried on, on all ſides. The weight of it however fell chiefly on the Duke of Burgundy, the Engliſh being determined to make him ſenſible of the diſhonourable and imprudent part he had acted. And indeed, during all the time he had been in alliance with England, his Flemiſh territories never ſuffered ſo much as they did at preſent. But it was the happineſs of France, their hiſtorians obſerve, that he was much more provoked at theſe ravages than inclined to change ſides by them. Nor were the French much diſpleaſed when they heard of his miſfortunes: for however they might have put on a fair outſide to bring him over to their party, his haughty behaviour and over-bearing manner at the treaty of Arras, with the hard conditions he had extorted from the French King, were not forgotten. Beſides, ſince the reduction of Paris, and the revolt of the nobility from the Engliſh, the Duke was become leſs neceſſary than formerly. And now King CHARLES thought it a proper time to make his public entry into the capital city of Paris, which he performed with the utmoſt ſplendor on the twelfth of November 1437, having been driven from it near twenty years, during moſt of which time it had been in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh. It is natural to ſuppoſe the French were mightily rejoiced on this occaſion; for how mild or equitable ſoever the Engliſh adminiſtration might have been, the people will ever be fonder of a native than a foreigner; and there is a great deal of reaſon for it: foreigners will have foreign favourites, and oblige them at the coſt of the natives, whatever ſtipu-

Paris ſurprized by the French, 1436.

King CHARLES's publick entry into Paris, 1437.

ſtipulations are made to prevent it; but here the government had been avowedly in the hands of the Engliſh Nobility and Generals, and the French totally excluded from it. It is no wonder if after this therefore there were great rejoicings, when they ſaw a Prince of their own nation making his publick entry into his capital city: we ſhould have believed as much if their hiſtorians had not left it upon record. But their joy was very ſhort-lived it ſeems: the King had not been here many weeks, before Paris and France in general ſuffered as much by plague and famine as they had before by the war, converting it into a perfect deſart. The King was obliged to leave the city on the third of December, and the very ſoldiers abandoned it; ſo that the Engliſh might have returned and poſſeſſed themſelves of it again, if they had not dreaded the peſtilence more than the enemy. What added to the miſery of the country was, that the nobility who had left the Engliſh ſervice, and had now nothing to ſubſiſt on, under pretence of making incurſions on their own eſtates which were in the power of the Engliſh, plundered friends and foes alike, and maintained themſelves by theſe kind of robberies, which it was not in the power of King CHARLES to prevent, having no other means of ſubſiſting theſe gentlemen, who had in a literal ſenſe left all to follow him, and were frequently of ſervice to him by the incurſions they made into the enemies quarters.

France afflicted with plague and famine.

1438. Diſputes between the council of Baſil and the Pope.

There being great diſputes at this time between the council that was held at Baſil and Pope EUGENIUS IV, King CHARLES in ſome things adhered to his Holineſs, and in others ſeemed to be governed by the Council, receiving neither of their regulations abſolutely, but with ſuch additional modifications formed by the French clergy, as the uſages of the Gallican Church it was ſaid required; and from theſe determinations of the Eccleſiaſticks in France was compoſed what has ſince obtained the name of the Pragmatick Sanction; whereby it was declared, That the Council was ſuperior to the Pope; the ancient form of ordaining Biſhops was revived; and many things retrenched, from whence the Holy See formerly reaped great advantage: with which the Pope was extremely offended, but could not procure the decree to be aboliſhed till the reign of FRANCIS I, who, with the conſent of LEO X, eſtabliſhed the Concordat in it's room.

The Pragmatick Sanction.

1440. A conſpiracy againſt King CHARLES

The French court was at this time pretty much divided; and the diſaffected Lords, the chief of whom were the Dukes of Bourbon and Alençon, and the Counts of Vendome, Dunois, and La Trimouille, had inſinuated themſelves ſo far into the Dauphin (King CHARLES's ſon) that he agreed to appear at their head. He was now about eighteen years of age, weary of being under the tuition of a governor, and of leading a private inactive life, and conſequently the eaſier wrought upon. At a time appointed between them, they ſurprized his governor, took him out of his hands, and marched with the Prince to Blois before the King had any notice of their deſign: but the King purſued them ſo briſkly, that within a few months they were obliged to ſubmit to mercy, which they obtained by the mediation of the Duke of Burgundy. The King afterwards changed all the officers of the Dauphin's houſhold, and put thoſe about him he could rely on.

About this time CHARLES Duke of Orleans, who had remained priſoner in England ever ſince the battle of Agincourt, being five and twenty years, obtained his liberty on agreeing to pay a ranſom of three hundred thouſand crowns; of which he raiſed one himſelf, and the Duke of Burgundy advanced the other two for him; theſe two families being now perfectly reconciled, whoſe former differences had in a great meaſure occaſioned the civil wars of France.

1441.

The King, who was ſo very cautious of hazarding his perſon in his juvenile years, determined now, according to the French hiſtorians, to lead his army in perſon, and ſoon found the happy effects of it. The firſt enterprize he undertook was the ſiege of Creil, and afterwards ventured on that of Pontoiſe, an important poſt near the confluence of the Seine and the Oyſe, and well defended by the Engliſh; in both which however he was ſucceſsful. The following winter, he was exerciſed again with the diſcontents of ſeveral of the Princes of the Blood, who thought themſelves too little concerned in the adminiſtration; particularly the Dukes of Orleans, Alençon, and Bourbon; and he had ſome intelligence of their caballing with the Dukes of Burgundy and Britany: but they did not break out into actual rebellion; the King found means to pacify them without having recourſe to arms. The Duke of Orleans he invited to court, and returned him great part of the money his ranſom had coſt him, knowing that the uneaſineſs of his circumſtances was the principal reaſon of his diſcontent. The Duke of Burgundy alſo, whoſe diſſatisfaction aroſe principally from the neglect that had been ſhewn the Duke of Orleans, had no further quarrel with the court: and theſe two Princes being thus taken off, the other Lords thought it moſt prudent to be quiet and reconcile themſelves to his Majeſty.

The King being at liberty from civil diſſenſions, carried the war into Guienne and Gaſcony, where he took ſeveral places from the Engliſh; but while he was at this diſtance, the French loſt ſome towns in Normandy: and thus the war continued with various ſucceſs between the two nations till the year 1443, when a truce was concluded between them, which being renewed from time to time, was continued till the year 1448. King CHARLES therefore having now no occaſion for his troops, ſent them to SIGISMOND, Duke of Auſtria, to be employed againſt the Switzers; in which ſervice, 'tis ſaid, they gained a great deal of honour.

1443.

1448. The Engliſh beat out of Normandy.

1449.

The truce being at an end in the year 1448, the war with the Engliſh was renewed; and before the end of the year 1449, the French recovered Rouen, and all the towns in Normandy and North France, except Calais; for the court of England was at this time diſtracted with civil diſſenſions, and perfectly abandoned their late conqueſts. The French hiſtorians, ſome of them, applaud the courage and conduct of their Monarch upon this occaſion, who led his troops in perſon; but there needed very little courage or conduct to reduce a country which had no regular forces to defend it, and the natives entirely in their intereſt. The laſt place the Engliſh loſt in Normandy was Cherbourg, which ſurrendered on the twelfth of Auguſt 1450; and tho' it was then a port of great conſequence, which the Engliſh might have ſupplyed every day by ſea with forces and proviſions, they never attempted to relieve it. And the French annually obſerved a thankſgiving at Rouen for the reduction of Normandy on the twelfth of Auguſt very lately, if they do not ſtill.

12 Auguſt, 1450.

The Engliſh loſe Guienne and Gaſcony. 1451.

1452. Earl Talbot killed.

1453.

The latter end of the year King CHARLES marched his army towards Guienne and Gaſcony, where he took Bergerac, and ſeveral other towns from the Engliſh; but the ſeaſon not permitting him to keep the field any longer, he put his army into winter quarters. The following year, 1451, the Engliſh having no army in the field, Bourdeaux ſurrendered, with many other towns, and the reſt made but a feeble defence; ſo that he was maſter of the whole country within leſs than ſix months. General TALBOT arriving in Guienne with a fleet of fourſcore ſail, and four thouſand land-forces on board, the following year 1452, Bourdeaux, and moſt part of the country of Guienne, ſubmitted to the Engliſh again; but Earl TALBOT being unfortunately killed, with his ſon the Lord Liſle, in an engagement near Caſtillon, on the ſeventeenth of July, 1453, Bourdeaux, and the reſt of Guienne were again reduced to the obedience of the French before the end of the campaign.

The Dauphin leaves his father's court.

In the mean time the Dauphin, who was very uneaſy at the reſtraints put upon him by his father, and having no body about him he could confide in, deſired leave of the King to viſit his principality of Dauphiné, which the King did not at all approve of; but however permitted him to go, upon condition he would return within four months. The Prince no ſooner found himſelf at liberty, than he took a reſolution never to put himſelf in the King's power again. He had conceived a moſt inveterate hatred againſt all thoſe who were concerned in the adminiſtration, as he apprehended them to have occaſioned his Majeſty's coldneſs towards him; but the moſt ſpecious pretence he had for reſiding at a diſtance from court, was the King's ill uſage of his mother, his father always keeping wenches in the very palace where ſhe reſided: but ſhe that had the greateſt influence on him, was one AGNES SORREL, a celebrated wit, who for that reaſon was the principal object of his averſion.

1455.

The Dauphin flies to the Duke of Burgundy.

1457.

The French plunder Sandwich.

The Prince having remained in Dauphiné ſeveral years, and refuſed all his Majeſty's invitations to come to court, the King was determined to take a journey thither, and bring him away with him by force; but the Dauphin had intelligence of it, and fled with ſome few of his friends to Flanders to the Duke of Burgundy, who took great pains to reconcile him to the King, to no purpoſe: the Prince choſe to reſide at Genep on the frontiers of Hainault, rather than return to court. The Duke of Alençon alſo became a malecontent again about this time; and 'tis ſaid, made an offer to the Engliſh court to introduce their forces into Normandy: but he was betrayed by his Almoner, who inſtead of carrying his diſpatches into England, preſented them to the French King; and the Duke being apprehended, was convicted of high-treaſon in conſpiring againſt the government, ſentenced to be degraded from his Peerage, to have his head cut off, and his eſtate confiſcated; but the King pardoned him his life, confining him priſoner to the caſtle of Loches. The ſame year PETER LE BRESSE, Seneſchal of Normandy, was ordered to make a deſcent on the coaſt of England with four thouſand men, which he performed near Sandwich, and having plundered the town, he returned to France; though we are told the intention of King CHARLES in this enterprize, was to make himſelf maſter of ſome conſiderable town in England, which he might exchange for Calais.

The Genoeſe put themſelves under the protection of the French again.

The Genoeſe again put themſelves under the protection of the French in the year 1459; but revolted ſoon after, and eſtabliſhed a form of government of their own: however, this has given the French occaſion frequently to revive their claim to that city.

Notwithſtanding this King had been ſo fortunate to ſee his kingdom from a moſt diſtracted condition reſtored to perfect tranquillity, the Dauphin's diſobedience rendered him extremely unhappy: it was the continual ſubject of his thoughts, and diſturbed his reſt every night. He was once upon the point of diſinheriting him, and declaring his younger ſon CHARLES heir to the crown. Amidſt theſe uneaſy reflections, a favourite of the King's, in whom he very much confided, acquainted him with a rumour that went about of certain perſons being dealt with to poiſon his Majeſty: whereupon he immediately fell into a deep melancholy, refuſing to take any nouriſhment, leſt it ſhould be poiſoned. In this humour he remained ſeven or eight days, till his phyſicians repreſented to him that this unaccountable caution would as certainly diſpatch him, as a doſe of poiſon. Whereupon he was prevailed on to eat; but his ſtomach and bowels were now ſo diſordered by his long faſting, that nothing would paſs thro' him. He fell ill of a fever, of which he died the twenty-ſecond of July, 1461, in the ſixtieth year of his age, and the thirty-ninth of his reign, according to the French account; tho' the Engliſh can look upon him to be no better than a uſurper, the crown being ſettled upon HENRY King of England, by CHARLES VI, and the Three Eſtates. But what are acts of ſettlement any longer than there is power to ſupport them?

Lewis XI. 1461.

LEWIS XI being at Genep, when he received advice of his father's death, went immediately to Rheims, and was crowned. After which, he turned out almoſt every one of his father's miniſters, and introduced a new ſet of men into the adminiſtration, cunning crafty Stateſmen, like himſelf, ſay the French hiſtorians. Having made his brother CHARLES Duke of Berry, his next ſtep was to leſſen the power of the other Princes of the Blood and great vaſſals of the crown, particularly that of the Dukes of Burgundy and Britany, whom he had obſerved in the laſt reign frequently to have given laws to their Sovereign.

He aſſiſts the Kings of England and Arragon.

He endeavours to reduce the power of the Nobility.

HENRY VI King of England, being driven from his throne about this time, MARGARET of Anjou his Queen, applied her ſelf to LEWIS for aſſiſtance; but ſhe could obtain only a loan of twenty thouſand crowns, for which ſhe undertook that King HENRY ſhould ſurrender Calais into his hands, if he was reſtored; but EDWARD IV, who afterwards aſcended the throne of England, prevented the execution of this bargain. The French King alſo ſent troops to the aſſiſtance of the King of Arragon againſt Caſtile, upon the ſame view that he ſupplyed the Queen of England; namely, upon condition that he would mortgage part of his territories to him; by which means he got poſſeſſion of Rouſſillon and Cerdagne for 300000 crowns. At his return from this war, he redeemed the towns in Picardy, which had been given to the Duke of Burgundy, and proceeded in his deſign of reducing the power of the Grandees and Vaſſals; to effect which, he ſent an officer and fifty bold fellows into Holland to ſurprize Count CHAROLOIS, eldeſt ſon of the Duke of Burgundy, from whom he apprehended the greateſt oppoſition: but the Count received intelligence

A conſpiracy of the Princes of the Blood againſt him.

of his deſign, and made the party priſoners. This treacherous attempt of the French King rendered him very odious both at home and abroad, and increaſed the confederacy that was already forming againſt him by the Nobility and diſcarded Miniſters. The conſpirators, of whom the principal were the Dukes of Britany and Bourbon, prevailed with the Duke of Berry, the King's brother, to appear at their head. This Prince was about ſeventeen or eighteen years of age, and engaged in the deſign, in hopes of getting a more conſiderable appenage or territory aſſigned him than he had at preſent.

1465. The diſaffected Lords having recourſe to arms in every part of the kingdom, the King made the beſt proviſion againſt them he could, and marched in perſon againſt the Dukes of Bourbon and Nevers, and the Count of Armagnac, with 80000 men, ſo ſuddenly, that they were forced to quit the field, and ſhut themſelves up in the town of Riom; and had not the King been called from thence by the march of Count Charolois towards Paris, they muſt have ſubmitted to his mercy; but his affairs obliging him to return to Paris, he allowed the Lords to march out with the garriſon and their baggage, on condition they ſhould not bear arms againſt him again, and ſhould uſe their endeavours to perſuade the reſt of the malecontents to return to their duty. Count Charolois in the mean time being come before Paris, the King haſtened back to prevent the revolt of his capital, and gave him battle at Monteleri; the advantage being rather on the Count's ſide, the King retired into Paris; where underſtanding that the Lords had ſince joined their forces with the Count, notwithſtanding their promiſe not to bear arms againſt him, and having little hopes now of prevailing by force, he propoſed a perſonal conference with the chiefs of the malecontents, in hopes of gaining his point that way. He truſted himſelf even in the Burgundian camp to treat with them. Their principal demand was, that the King ſhould grant the duchy of Normandy to the Duke of Berry; imagining, that if they could carry this article, it would ſecure all the reſt, becauſe the Dukes of Burgundy, Normandy, and Britany, would always be a match for their Sovereign. The King ſaw their drift, but conſidering that if he could once prevail with them to lay down their arms, it would not be a difficult matter to divide them, as it afterwards happened; he conſented to every thing they aſked, and the treaty was ſigned at Conflans, on the 15th of October 1465. Count Charolois hereupon retired into his own country, and moſt of the French Lords into Normandy with that Duke, not daring to truſt themſelves in the King's power. They all made their court to the young Duke of Normandy, and every one expected to have the direction of his affairs, which occaſioned a quarrel among them, and gave the King an opportunity of drawing over the Duke of Bourbon to his intereſt; by whoſe aſſiſtance he eaſily poſſeſſed himſelf of Normandy again, and the young Prince fled into Britany, dreading nothing more than falling into his brother's hands. 1467 During theſe tranſactions, the Duke of Burgundy died; and Count Charolois his ſon ſucceeded him, who being engaged in a war with the Liegois, the King took an occaſion while he was on that ſide, to fall upon his friend the Duke of Britany, and compelled him to renounce all alliances with the enemies of France. After this he deſired a perſonal conference with the Duke of Burgundy; and tho' he knew him to be his moſt implacable enemy, truſted himſelf again in his territories, which raſhneſs he had like to have had ſufficient cauſe to repent; for it ſeems the Duke, upon diſcovering ſome of the King's practices againſt him while he was at Peronne, was in ſuſpence, whether he ſhould not ſeize his Majeſty's perſon, and was with difficulty diſſuaded from it by one of his Miniſters, who acquainted the King with the deſign; and it is amazing, that Lewis XI, who was naturally jealous and ſuſpicious of every body, ſhould more than once put himſelf into the hands of a perſon, whom he knew both hated and feared him. However, after he had ſuffered a great deal in apprehenſion, and concluded a treaty with the Duke, whereby he again yielded the duchy of Normandy to his brother the Prince, he had the good fortune to be diſmiſſed by the Duke of Burgundy, and returned ſafe to Paris. 1469. Not long after, he prevailed with his brother to accept of the duchy of Guienne, inſtead of Normandy, which diſconcerted all the Duke of Burgundy's meaſures; for they could not now give each other any aſſiſtance, if the King ſhould for the future put hard terms upon them, Guienne being one of the moſt diſtant provinces in France from the Duke of Burgundy's territories. Thus the King had made a conſiderable progreſs in diſuniting the Princes who were in a confederacy againſt him; what he moſt feared was, that Edward the fourth, who had been advanced to the crown of England, and was his enemy, on account of the aſſiſtance he had given his competitor Henry VI, ſhould aſſiſt the Dukes of Burgundy and Britany, if he attempted to reduce them.

Quick revolutions in England.

But the Earl of Warwick having depoſed King Edward, and reſtored Henry VI to his throne again, freed him from theſe apprehenſions for a time. Henry VI however was a ſecond time depoſed, and Edward the fourth got poſſeſſion of the crown of England, by the aſſiſtance of the Duke of Burgundy, which brought the King into the ſame perplexity he was before. He had intelligence, that this Prince, with the Dukes of Burgundy and Britany, were actually entered into a confederacy againſt him, and raiſing forces to invade him; but, happily for Lewis, the Duke of Burgundy ſpent his time in reducing ſome towns upon the Rhine, inſtead of joining his allies, who could not prevail on him to defer that enterprize. In the mean time the King entered into a league with the Swiſs and Germans, and ſet them upon the Duke of Burgundy, and while he was employed on that ſide, attacked his territories in the Low-Countries, beat his troops in two ſet battles, and took ſeveral towns from him.

The King of England invades France.

But the King of England landing at Calais with a fine army, to join the Duke of Burgundy, the French King had all the reaſon in the world to apprehend that he ſhould ſoon be deprived of his new conqueſts, and perhaps attacked in his turn: and this would infallibly have been the caſe, if the Duke of Burgundy had kept his word with King Edward, and had had an army ready to have invaded the French territories; but his troops had been ſo harraſſed in his German expedition, that they were ſtill in their winter quarters, and in no condition to take the field. The Duke endeavoured to bring the King of England into temper, by diſcovering a correſpondence he held with the Conſtable of France, who had promiſed to deliver up the town of St Quintin to him upon the confederate army's appearing before it; and upon this advice, the King of England ordered a detachment of his forces

1475. A Peace concluded between France and England.

The French purchaſe the Engliſh Miniſtry.

forces to march that way and ſummon the place; but the town refuſed them admittance. The Conſtable, who was playing a treacherous part between the French King and the Duke of Burgundy, did not yet think it a proper time to declare himſelf; which ſo exaſperated the King of England, that he could not ſtifle his reſentment, and parted from the Duke in a great paſſion; of which the French King having intelligence from the ſpies he kept in the Engliſh court, he ſent to ſound his Majeſty's inclinations as to a peace; and finding him not averſe to it, a treaty was ſet on foot, wherein it was agreed, that the French King ſhould not ſupport the Engliſh malecontents, nor the King of England thoſe of France: And in order to a ſtricter union between the two crowns, CHARLES, the Dauphin of France, ſhould marry the Princeſs ELIZABETH, the King of England's eldeſt daughter. After the ſigning of this treaty, the two Kings had an interview at Pequigny, where the French King perfectly purchaſed the Engliſh court; not a miniſter but had a penſion from him, and even the King himſelf accepted an annuity of fifty thouſand crowns per annum, which ever after made him look with indifference upon the encroachments the French King made on the Duke of Burgundy's territories in the Low-Countries. Soon after King EDWARD's return to England, a truce was concluded between France and the Duke of Burgundy; and now it was expected, that the French King would have entirely cruſhed the Duke of Britany; but the court of England, notwithſtanding the ſums that were diſperſed among them, would not ſo far ſacrifice the intereſt of their country as to abandon this uſeful ally, who could at any time introduce their forces into the heart of France in caſe of a rupture with that kingdom, and had generally furniſhed them with a ſafe retreat in all their wars. They inſiſted therefore at the celebrated interview above-mentioned, that the Duke of Britany ſhould not be moleſted on any account whatever. And indeed while they preſerved a friendſhip with that Duke, the alliance with the Low-Countries was not ſo neceſſary as it became afterwards, when Britany became united to the French crown.

The Duke of Burgundy killed.

1477. The Archduke marries MARY of Burgundy his heireſs.

1479.

1482.

King of England dies. King LEWIS dies.

The Duke of Burgundy, who is repreſented as a Prince of an ambitious reſtleſs temper, after the truce with France, attacked the duchy of Lorrain, and made himſelf maſter of Nancy the capital, and the whole country; and elated with this ſucceſs, determined to revenge himſelf on the Swiſs, who had aſſiſted the Germans againſt him: but the Swiſs being ſupported underhand by the French King, gave the Duke two remarkable defeats. Not long after Lorrain revolted from him, whereupon he laid ſiege to Nancy a ſecond time, when the Duke of Lorrain and the Swiſs fell upon him again, entirely defeated his army, and he himſelf was found dead in the field of battle: whereupon the French King immediately ſeized upon his towns in Picardy, and endeavoured to procure an inſurrection among the Flemings in his favour: nor could the Princeſs MARY, daughter and heireſs of the late Duke, have prevented a revolt probably, if ſhe had not married MAXIMILIAN Archduke of Auſtria, and ſon to the Emperor, whereby the Low-Countries and the country of Burgundy were preſerved from falling under the dominion of France. The Engliſh court was at this time ſo corrupted with French money, that they made no attempt to prevent it, though England would have been firſt affected by ſo large a country's being added to France, which lay juſt over-againſt it, and abounded in ſhipping and the moſt uſeful manufactures. During the continuance of the war between the Archduke and the French, the latter firſt entertained ſeveral regiments of Swiſs, and found them ſo uſeful, that they have ever ſince retained a body of them in their ſervice. Theſe two powers being pretty equally matched, and the French King declining in his health, a truce was concluded between them. In the mean time the Archducheſs died at Bruges of a fall from her horſe, leaving behind her a ſon named PHILIP, and a daughter named MARGARET. The French King made ſuch an intereſt with the States of Flanders upon this occaſion, that he prevented the Archduke's being declared guardian to his ſon PHILIP, and contracted with the States for the marriage of the Dauphin with his daughter MARGARET, carrying the young Princeſs, who was ſcarce two years old, into France to be educated as Dauphineſs, againſt her father's conſent: at which the King of England was pretty much alarmed, who till then had depended on the Dauphin's being married to his daughter ELIZABETH, in purſuance of the treaty of Pequigny, anno 1475. This had been his Majeſty's principal inducement for making that peace, and abandoning his old ally the Duke of Burgundy; and, according to the French hiſtorians, he was ſo touched with the perfidiouſneſs of King LEWIS, whom he had ſuffered to make ſuch a progreſs in the Low-Countries, upon a proſpect of this marriage, that the diſappointment contributed to his laſt illneſs, of which he died. The French King did not ſurvive him a year, of whom their writers give this character: That he was by nature neither beneficent nor liberal, though he ſeemed to be ſo when his affairs required it. He ſpared no coſts to purchaſe an intereſt in the councils of the neighbouring Princes, or to debauch their chief Miniſters; to gain the Governors of towns, corrupt Ambaſſadors, and embarraſs his enemies. To take an eſtimate of him from his outward behaviour, he was a very religious prince: he went to confeſſion once a week, took frequent pilgrimages, paid a great veneration to the relicks of Saints, and beſtowed many gifts on churches. But this did not make him a ſtrict obſerver of his promiſes and oaths, or leſs deceitful and vindictive; tho' he does not ſeem to have acted ſo much the hypocrite in religion, as to have entertained a notion that thoſe external performances would atone for the defects of true piety, which made him ſcrupulous ſometimes in trifles, while he perpetrated the greateſt villanies without remorſe. He accompliſhed his deſign of making himſelf abſolute maſter of his nobility, which he had always aimed at, but was not very nice in the means of effecting it, and wanting the hearts of his ſubjects was never perfectly eaſy. He left one ſon named CHARLES.

CHARLES VIII. 1483.

CHARLES VIII, at his acceſſion was about fourteen years of age, and conſequently had paſſed his minority according to the irrevocable ordinance, as it is called, of CHARLES V; but as the underſtanding of Princes is not ſuperior to that of other people of theſe years, and the late King had taken particular care that his ſon ſhould not be verſed in politicks, or let into the myſteries of ſtate, leſt he ſhould be practiſed upon by deſigning courtiers, this Prince, of all others, could not be ſuppoſed at ſuch an age to bear the weight of government in his own perſon; and therefore

LEWIS XI, had before his death appointed one on whom he might rely for the management of his affairs, and exerciſe the ſupreme authority in his ſon's name; and this was Madam de Beaujieu, the wife of PETER de Bourbon of Beaujieu, the late King's eldeſt daughter, and ſiſter to his preſent Majeſty, a lady every way qualified for ſuch a truſt. He deſigned however, that her huſband, Monſieur de Beaujieu, ſhould aſſiſt her in the adminiſtration, tho' he did not name him, becauſe there were ſome Princes of the Blood nearer to the crown, that might diſpute this poſt with him, who could not make the ſame objection to the Princeſs the King's ſiſter.

But notwithſtanding all the prudent foreſight of LEWIS XI, he was no ſooner dead, but there aroſe two powerful competitors, who diſputed the ſupreme direction of affairs with Madam de Beaujieu, namely, LEWIS Duke of Orleans, the preſumptive heir of the crown, and JOHN Duke of Bourbon, eldeſt brother of Monſieur Beaujieu, whoſe mature age, and the ſervices he had done the kingdom, rendered his pretenſions plauſible; but Madam de Beaujieu offering to refer the matter to the determination of the States, which the reſt could not with any colour oppoſe, and having the adminiſtration in her hands, in the mean time ſo eſtabliſhed her intereſt, that the pretenſions of the Duke of Orleans were ſcarce conſidered; and ſhe had bought off the Duke of Bourbon, by promiſing him the poſt of Conſtable, which ſhe knew he was ambitious of.

The Dukes of Orleans and Britany become malecontents.

The Duke of Orleans, piqued at his diſappointment, entered into a confederacy with the Duke of Britany, and ſeveral of the French Nobility, againſt the court; but Madam de Beaujieu was ſo expeditious in aſſembling an army, and marching againſt them, before the confederates could join their troops, that the Duke of Orleans ſubmitted, and agreed to lay down his arms, upon condition he might obtain the King's pardon, which was granted him. But I ſhould have remembered, that while the Duke of Orleans was at the court of the Duke of Britany, forming this confederacy againſt Madam de Beaujieu, he ſaw there the Princeſs ANNE, eldeſt daughter and heireſs of that Duke, to whom he made his addreſſes as a lover, in which he was rivaled by ſeveral of the greateſt Princes in Europe; and this was the foundation of ſeveral great events, as will appear in the enſuing hiſtory.

The Duke of Britany offers to aſſiſt the Earl of Richmond, to depoſe King RICHARD III. 1484.

HENRY Earl of Richmond, the heir of the houſe of Lancaſter, being at this time a priſoner in the court of the Duke of Britany, and the Duke expecting every day to feel the reſentment of the French court for his aſſiſting the Duke of Orleans, offered to give the Earl his liberty, and furniſh him with ſhips and forces to mount the throne of England, upon condition that he would aſſiſt Britany againſt the attempts of the French, when he ſhould ſee himſelf maſter of that kingdom; and this he apprehended would be eaſily effected, as King RICHARD, who had murdered his two nephews, and been guilty of many other barbarities to make his way to the crown, had rendred himſelf univerſally deteſted by his ſubjects. The Earl of Richmond, who had been confined near fifteen years, was not backward we may be ſure to exchange his priſon for a crown, and made no ſcruple of promiſing to ſupport the Britons againſt their enemies if he ſucceeded. The Duke of Britany therefore having provided him fifteen large ſhips, and put five thouſand men on board, the Earl ſet ſail with them for England; but the fleet being ſoon after diſperſed by a ſtorm, he was forced to return to Diep, which indeed was his preſervation: for King RICHARD having diſcovered the conſpiracy, had fallen upon the Earl's adherents, and defeated them, and it is highly probable, the Earl would have fallen into his hands, if the ſtorm had not prevented the deſcent. The Earl at his return to Britany found that court ſtrangely altered; for the old Duke being taken ill, and for ſome time delirious, King RICHARD had by bribing LAUDOIS his Prime-Miniſter, won him over to his intereſt, and obtained a promiſe from him to deliver the Earl of Richmond into his hands, of which he had ſcarce an hour's notice before he was to have been ſeized; he fled immediately to the French court; deſiring their protection: here he met with fair words and promiſes, but that court did not ſeem very forward in promoting his enterprize upon England. The French hiſtorians indeed relate, that they furniſhed him with a fleet of ſhips, and four thouſand of their beſt troops; but notwithſtanding there were ſeveral Noblemen and Gentlemen in this expedition, I don't find that the Earl of Richmond's whole force amounted to two thouſand men, when he made his ſecond attempt upon England. He ſet ſail from Havre de Grace the firſt of Auguſt 1485, and arrived at Milford-Haven in Wales, a few days after, where he was joined by the gentlemen of the country; and their numbers increaſing every day, he marched to Leiceſter, and gave battle to King RICHARD on the two and twentieth of Auguſt. The King being defeated and killed in the engagement, the Earl of Richmond was immediately proclamed King of England by the army, by the name of HENRY VII: on which great event I ſhall enlarge in the Deſcription of England.

1485.

1486.

In the mean time the Duke of Orleans not being pleaſed with the adminiſtration in France, retired again into Britany, where the miniſtry had made an alliance with the Archduke of Auſtria, now King of the Romans, who, ſince the deceaſe of his late wife MARY of Burgundy, made his addreſſes alſo to the Princeſs of Britany. The French court being determined to purſue the Duke of Orleans, marched with an army towards the frontiers of Britany; whereupon the King of the Romans attacked France from the Low-Countries, and obliged them to deſiſt from that enterprize for the preſent.

1487.

The French renewed their deſign againſt Britany in the year 1487, and at the ſame time attacked the territories of the King of the Romans in the Netherlands, and having corrupted the ſubjects of theſe Princes, and fomented an inſurrection againſt them in their very bowels, were very confident of ſucceſs in both theſe enterprizes; nor were their expectations diſappointed, for they ſurprized Terouen and St Omers in the Low-Countries, and defeated the forces of the King of the Romans. In Britany they obtained a deciſive victory, and took the Duke of Orleans priſoner; after which they put what terms they pleaſed upon the old Duke of Britany, they obliged him to diſmiſs all ſuch foreigners as had come to his aſſiſtance, to deliver up ſeveral of his ſtrong towns into their hands, and promiſe not to marry his daughter and heireſs to any perſon without the conſent of the French court. This treaty was made the twenty-eighth of Auguſt, and about ten days after the Duke of Britany died. In the mean time the

1488.

MAXIMILIAN King of the Romans impriſoned by his ſubjects.

States of Flanders confederated together againſt the King of the Romans, and made him priſoner at Bruges, which occaſioned a War between Flanders and the other provinces, ſo that the French had nothing to apprehend on that ſide. The King of the Romans was indeed reſtored to his liberty again after four months impriſonment, one of the conditions whereof was, that he ſhould uſe his utmoſt endeavours to make peace with France. But the Emperor, father to the King of the Romans, ſoon after marching to his aſſiſtance, MAXIMILIAN was about to take a ſevere revenge of the rebellious Flemings, who thereupon called in the French, and found him employment for ſome time.

The French ſeize Britany.

Oppoſed by the Engliſh.

The Princeſs marries the King of the Romans, 1489.

1490.

1491.

The French King forces the Princeſs of Britany to marry him, tho' ſhe was married before.

But to return to Britany: The French court pretended that this duchy was devolved on the crown of France for want of heirs male, and thereupon ordered their troops to make themſelves maſters of as many towns as they could. The King of England apprehending the ill conſequences of ſuffering this country to be united to the crown of France, ſent ſix thouſand men to the aſſiſtance of the Ducheſs, who obliged the French to abandon ſeveral towns they had poſſeſſed themſelves of, and prevented their reducing Britany this campaign. However, the Engliſh receiving no pay, and the Briton nobility diſagreeing among themſelves, moſt of the Engliſh returned home. The French King had now a fair opportunity of ſubduing this province; but conſidering he was never likely to enjoy it quietly, if the Princeſs ANNE ſhould happen to marry any Prince of figure in Europe, he determined to marry her himſelf, notwithſtanding he was already contracted to MARGARET of Auſtria daughter to the King of the Romans. While the King was deliberating on this project, the Princeſs ANNE and the King of the Romans came to an agreement, and were married by proxy, at which the French were very much alarmed; for as the King of the Romans was maſter of the Low-Countries, if he had been ſo of Britany he would always have had it in his power to give the French a great deal of diſturbance: King CHARLES therefore not regarding his contract with MARY of Auſtria, or the eſpouſals of the King of the Romans with the Princeſs, ſent a deputation to her with propoſals of marriage, and having bribed every one of her council to perſuade her to it, he promiſed himſelf ſucceſs; but the Princeſs, young as ſhe was, diſcovered a great deal of ſpirit and reſentment on this occaſion: ſhe had conceived an opinion of the King of the Romans, and had a perfect averſion to the French King and his whole nation, for the calamities they had brought upon her father and her country. Upon the firſt propoſal of the match therefore ſhe broke out into the moſt paſſionate exclamations againſt them: ſhe reflected on the alliances ſhe had made with the Kings of England and Spain, who had engaged to ſupport her: but inſiſted with the greateſt warmth on her marriage with MAXIMILIAN in the face of the Church, and declared ſhe could never do a thing ſo ſhocking to her conſcience; and had her allies been as near with their reinforcements as her enemy was, there is no doubt but ſhe would have perſiſted in her reſolution: but the King of France, who had already aſſembled his troops, and was not far from the confines of her country with a powerful army, attending the ſucceſs of this negotiation, being acquainted with the reſolution of the Princeſs, and at the ſame time adviſed by her treacherous council to haſten his march before any ſuccours could arrive to her aſſiſtance, he inveſted the city of Rennes, where the Princeſs was, before ſhe had any notice of his march, and ſo terrified her with his preparations to ſtorm the city, that ſhe ſubmitted to the advice of her council, who perſuaded her that ſhe had no other means left to preſerve her country: they repreſented alſo, that as the former marriage was not conſummated, a diſpenſation might eaſily be obtained from the Pope, which in thoſe days was thought ſufficient to ſatisfy the moſt ſcrupulous conſcience. Thus this villainous miniſtry betrayed their ſovereign into the hands of a man whom of all others ſhe deteſted: and the marriage was ſolomnized and conſummated the 13th of December 1491, even before any application was made to the Holy See for a diſpenſation; it was apprehended ſoon enough to procure that at any time before iſſue was born: I don't find the French King's precontract with MARY of Auſtria was much regarded neither, though ſhe had borne the title of Dauphineſs for ſeveral years; that Princeſs was upon this occaſion ſent back to her father to compleat the affront: which ſufficiently manifeſts how little the moſt ſolemn oaths and contracts of Princes are to be depended on. This very King CHARLES, by a treaty between the Kings of France and England, was firſt to have married the Princeſs ELIZABETH, daughter to EDWARD IV, which was broke through without any manner of excuſe, that he might eſpouſe MARY of Auſtria; and now this Princeſs is diſcarded in order to raviſh the Princeſs of Britany: I can call it no better than a rape, where one comes with an armed power, and forces a lady to his bed. By the ſame means he obliged her to marry him, he compelled her to ſign an inſtrument to which he gave the name of a treaty of marriage, where, in conſideration of the honour he did the Princeſs in taking her to his wife, ſhe reſigns all her right in the duchy of Britany to the King and his ſucceſſors, notwithſtanding it ſhould happen that ſhe died without iſſue before him: and in caſe he died before her, ſhe was obliged to marry the ſucceeding King, or next Prince of the Blood; but if ſhe had no iſſue by his preſent Majeſty, it was granted in her favour that ſhe ſhould poſſeſs her duchy of Britany during life. As to the ſucceſs of this forced marriage, it is obſerved, that tho' the King had three children by her, viz. a Dauphin and two Princeſſes, they all died in the cradle, and after a very ſhort reign the kingdom deſcended to a collateral branch of the royal family; and had the children ſurvived, their legitimacy might very well have been queſtioned on more accounts than one.

1492.

The King of England invades France.

The King of the Romans was provoked beyond all bounds when he heard of the match, and ſpoke of it in ſuch terms as it deſerved: and not content with drawing up memorials and declarations againſt it, he formed an alliance with the Kings of Spain and England, in order to revenge ſo inſupportable an affront. The two Kings readily came into his meaſures, and the parliament of England were ſo ſenſible that the union of Britany to the French crown would be of dangerous conſequence to them, that they made no ſcruple of granting his Majeſty the ſupplies he aſked. The King thereupon immediately aſſembled a gallant army of twenty-five thouſand men, and tranſported them to Calais; but when he arrived there the King of the Romans forces were not raiſed, and the Spaniards he found were as much

A peace concluded.

much unprepared as the Germans; whereupon the French King making propoſals of peace to him, and backing them with ſuch a bribe as was not eaſily to be reſiſted, eſpecially by a Prince of HENRY the Seventh's covetous diſpoſition, namely, ſeven hundred and forty-five thouſand crowns, an immenſe ſum in thoſe days, he conſented to a peace and returned to England, by which, and the money that was given him to carry on the war by the parliament of England, and ſome other rapacious projects, he heaped together a prodigious treaſure, inſomuch that he was eſteemed one of the richeſt Princes that ever ſat on the Engliſh throne.

1493.

An expedition of the French against Naples.

The King of the Romans, we may believe, ſtormed ſufficiently upon this occaſion, nor were the Engliſh parliament perfectly ſatisfied, to ſee the taxes they had raiſed for the war put in the King's pocket, without having effected any thing; but they were anſwered, that the King had done very prudently, and ſaved them a great deal of treaſure, by putting ſo ſudden an end to the war, and therefore they had no reaſon to complain. The French King and the King of the Romans ſoon after clapt up a peace, whereby the French renounced the Earldoms of Artois, Burgundy, and Charolois, which were to have been the portion of MARGARET of Auſtria if the King had married her: the French King alſo gave up his right in Rouſſillon and Cerdagne to the Spaniard, whereby he procured a peace with that Prince; and all theſe conceſſions he was induced to make, that he might be at liberty to purſue his favourite project upon the Kingdom of Naples. Some writers are of opinion he had a deſign to have ſubdued all Italy. He had indeed a ſpecious pretence to the kingdom of Naples, as he was heir to the Duke of Anjou, whom JOAN Queen of that kingdom had adopted, tho' ſcarce any of the family had been in poſſeſſion of it for any time. The French alſo laid claim to Genoa, and ſome other territories in Italy, and could they once have eſtabliſhed themſelves in Naples, poſſibly would not have wanted pretences to have ſeized the reſt; which the Italian Princes could not but foreſee, and for that reaſon were generally in a confederacy againſt France. But LEWIS, ſurnamed MORUS, or the Black Duke of Milan, who had the regency of that duchy during the minority of his nephew JOHN GALEAS, the true heir, and had found an opportunity of making himſelf maſter of it to the excluſion of his ward, apprehending he might be depoſed by FERDINAND King of Naples, whoſe grand-daughter had married JOHN GALEAS, incited the French King to aſſert his title to Naples, promiſing he would favour his pretenſions, upon condition that France would maintain him in the duchy of Milan. The Pope alſo, upon ſome aſſurances given him that the French King would advance his family, and grant him a territory in the kingdom of Naples, was induced to come into their meaſures.

1494.

FERDINARD King of Naples, 'tis ſaid, was ſo terrified at this formidable confederacy againſt him, that he fell ill, and died upon it, and was ſucceeded by his ſon ALPHONSUS, a Prince hated by the Neapolitans and feared by the neighbouring powers, as his father had been. In the mean time the French King ordered the rendezvous of his forces to be at Lyons, from whence he marched through Piedmont, and arrived at Aſti on the ninth of September, where he fell ill of the ſmall-pox; but being out of danger in a week's time, he ſent ambaſſadors to the ſeveral States of Italy, to declare that he had no deſign upon their liberties, his only view was to procure the reſtitution of the kingdom of Naples, which belonged to him, and afterwards to march againſt the Turks for the general advantage of Chriſtendom. The King afterwards continued his march thro' the territories of Milan, where he was attended by LEWIS the uſurper, with great profeſſions of friendſhip and eſteem, tho' the French underſtood he was endeavouring at the ſame time to embarraſs their affairs, and even entering into a confederacy with the reſt of the Italian Princes to ruin their army; whereupon the King held a council of war, to deliberate whether he ſhould advance any further, and it being carried for proceeding in the enterprize, he continued his march to the frontiers of Tuſcany, where that Duke came to meet him, and delivered up to him Sereſana, Sereſanello, and Pietra Santa, which defended the paſſes into his country, to the ſuprize of the reſt of the Italian Princes; for by this means he gave the French an opportunity of ſeizing his territories, when great part of their army muſt have periſhed if he had oppoſed them in that barren country, the French having brought ſcarce any proviſions along with them. This ſubmiſſion of the Florentines removed the greateſt difficulties in the expedition. The French King continued his march, and made a kind of a triumphant entry into Lucca and Piſa, in the laſt of which places he left a garriſon, and advanced to the city of Florence, where the inhabitants unwillingly raiſed him 50000 ducats. He came with his army ſoon after into the neighbourhood of Rome, to the great terror of the Pope, who notwithſtanding he had invited the French King into Italy, had ſince altered his mind, and entered into a conſpiracy to deſtroy his army, which the King was not unacquainted with: he durſt not however oppoſe his coming to Rome; whereupon the King made his entry into that city on the 31ſt of December 1494, by torch-light, at the head of his troops, whom he ordered to ſeize upon all the important poſts about the town. The Pope at firſt ſhut himſelf up in the caſtle of St Angelo; but upon his Majeſty's ſummoning him, and bringing his artillery before it, his Holineſs conſented to a treaty, wherein he agreed, that the French ſhould remain in poſſeſſion of Viterbo, Teracina, Civita Vecchia, and Spoletto, which the King had made himſelf maſter of in his march. Afterwards the Pope returned to his palace of the Vatican, where the King made him a viſit. It was obſerved, that his Holineſs was very laviſh of his honours towards this Prince, of whom he ſtood in the utmoſt dread, and even gave orders that juſtice ſhould be adminiſtred in his name while he ſtaid in Rome; in all outward appearance there was a perfect reconciliation between them, and that the King might not ſuſpect his ſincerity, he ordered his ſon, the Cardinal of Valence, to attend him in the expedition. His Majeſty having ſtaid about a month in Rome, advanced with his army towards Naples, hearing every day of the revolt of ſome town or other in that kingdom, ALPHONSUS being univerſally hated for his tyranny, of which that Prince was ſo ſenſible, that he ſurrendred his crown to his ſon FERDINAND, as the moſt effectual way to preſerve it in his family, and afterwards fled to Sicily. But FERDINAND, was not able to ſtop the progreſs of the French, his army abandoned him; Capua, and even the city of Naples, ſurrendred without ſtriking a ſtroke, every town in the kingdom ſubmitted except Brunduſium and Gallipoli; whereupon FERDINAND retired

The French King enters Rome.

1495.

tired

CHAP. XXXIV.

tired to the iſland of Iſchia, with his family and ſome troops that remained faithful to him, in hopes of maintaining himſelf there, till he ſhould meet with a favourable opportunity of returning to his throne, for he knew that the Emperor and the Italian States had entered into a confederacy againſt the French King; and this Prince ſeems appriſed of it by the haſte he made from thence: he begun his march towards France the twentieth of May 1495, with an army of nine or ten thouſand men; the reſt he left with the Count of Montpenſier to ſecure his conqueſts. When he came to Rome, the Pope had retired to Perugia, and would not ſee him; and his ſon, whom he had left with the King as an hoſtage, had made his eſcape. Here his Majeſty received intelligence, that his enemies had drawn their forces together, and would render his retreat very difficult, as he afterwards found it; for they fell upon him at Tortona, and had infallibly defeated him, if part of their army which had routed his left wing, had not fallen upon the baggage, and thereby given him an opportunity of rallying his troops, and continuing his march, which he did with the utmoſt hazard, and came to Lyons the ſeventh of November. The French King had no ſooner left the kingdom of Naples, but FERDINAND aſſiſted by GONSALVO, a celebrated Spaniſh General, returned thither, and attacked Reggio, 1497. which ſurrendred to them, with ſeveral other towns; they afterwards met with a defeat, but being re-inforced, and making a ſecond attempt, the whole country in a ſhort time returned to the obedience of King FERDINAND, moſt of the French periſhing either by ſickneſs or the ſword. Such, ſays a French hiſtorian, was the ſucceſs of CHARLES the Eighth's enterprize upon Naples: an enterprize undertaken with much imprudence, continued with wonderful ſucceſs, and at length ſhamefully abandoned with the loſs of a great number of brave men. This was the laſt remarkable event in his reign. 1498. He died ſuddenly on the ſeventh of April 1498, in the twenty-eighth year of his age, and fifteenth of his reign, leaving no iſſue, tho' he had ſeveral children who died in their cradles. He was ſucceeded by LEWIS Duke of Orleans.

LEWIS XII.

LEWIS XII began his reign at a muture age, being in his thirty-ſeventh year; and as he was naturally a Prince of an excellent temper and genius, improved by experience, rendered his people extremely happy. He continued all the officers of ſtate in their poſts, ſome of whom had dealt very roughly with him in the preceding reign; but he endeavoured to forget all the ill uſage he had received when he came to the crown: And that the people as well as the court might taſte of the lenity of his adminiſtration, he remitted firſt a tenth, and afterwards a third of the uſual taxes. He alſo regulated the courts of juſtice, and endeavoured to redreſs the extortions that were committed under the colour of law. But among ſo many commendable actions, there was one which carried but a very indifferent aſpect, and that was his marriage with the late Queen, the heireſs of Britany; to effect which he was forced firſt to divorce the Princeſs 1499. JANE the daughter of King LEWIS XI, who had lived with him as a wife for twenty years. He pretended indeed that her father had obliged him to marry her when he was but fifteen years of age, and that he then privately made a proteſt in form, and declared he would never touch her, tho' outwardly to avoid the King's diſpleaſure he treated her as a wife. But had not the Queen he afterwards married been heireſs of Britany, with which he muſt have parted if ſhe had married elſewhere, poſſibly he had never thought of a divorce from the Princeſs JANE; unleſs the diſagreeableneſs of her perſon might be ſome inducement, for ſhe was very deformed and infirm; tho' this one would have thought ſhould have occaſioned it ſooner, if at all. He had indeed the approbation of the Pope for all this, which was thought ſufficient in thoſe days to ſanctify the moſt flagrant crimes; and as it was in his Majeſty's power at this time to oblige his Holineſs in ſome temporal concerns, he ſoon procured the matter to be diſpatched at the court of Rome. Pope ALEXANDER VI was now about to make the fortunes of his ſon the famous CÆSAR BORGIA, who quitted a Cardinal's cap in order to be a temporal Prince; his Holineſs hoping to effect his deſign chiefly by the aſſiſtance of the French King, made CÆSAR the bearer of the bull for the divorce, and in purſuance of a treaty concluded between them, the King then gave him the duchy of Valentinois, a penſion of twenty thouſand livres per ann. with a poſt in the army. He alſo agreed to procure him CHARLOTTE the the ſiſter of the Queen of Navarre for a wife, and to put him into poſſeſſion of ſeveral towns in Italy; for the Pope and the French were in a confederacy againſt the Duke of Milan, and the King was juſt upon the point of entring Italy with his army to attack that duchy, while the Venetians penetrated it on the other ſide.

The French invade Milan.

The Duke of Milan had aſſembled an army of eighteen or twenty thouſand men to oppoſe the French and Venetians; but having no allies, and being betrayed by his officers and generals, the whole duchy was loſt within twenty days, except the caſtle of Milan, and he himſelf forced to retire into Germany: the caſtle alſo ſurrendred within a few days, whereupon the French King made a triumphant entry into that city on the ſixteenth of October 1499; after which he gave CÆSAR BORGIA the command of four thouſand Swiſs and three hundred launces, in order to recover thoſe towns he had ſtipulated to put him in poſſeſſion of: and having conferred the government of the Milaneſe on TRIVALCA, a perſon of a haughty violent ſpirit, he returned to France. The new governor behaved himſelf with that tyranny and indiſcretion, ſuffering his ſoldiers to inſult the natives and abuſe their women, that they ſoon became ripe for a revolt; of which their old Duke LEWIS MORUS having advice, aſſembled eight or ten thouſand Swiſs, and coming before the city, eaſily made himſelf maſter of it by the aſſiſtance of the diſaffected within; the garriſon retiring into the caſtle: moſt of the towns in the duchy followed the example of the capital.

The French King receiving advice of the revolt of the Milaneſe, aſſembled a great army and repaſſed the Alps; but what was of more ſervice to him than his forces, was a treaty he made with the Swiſs, who for a ſum of money betrayed the Duke LEWIS MORUS into his hands, and he was carried priſoner into France, where he died about ten years after. His two ſons fled into Germany to the Emperor; whereupon the Milaneſe once more came under the power of the French. I don't find any title they had to this duchy, but their writers ſeem to juſtify the enterprize, on account of the diſturbance the Duke gave them in their retreat from Naples; adding that he was a uſurper, and had poiſoned his nephew to obtain the ſovereignty, and therefore did not deſerve a better fate.

This

1500. The French and Spaniards divide Naples between them.

This conqueſt being effected, the King had a deſign to reduce Naples; but the Emperor being offended at his ſeizing of Milan, which was a fief of the Empire, and depoſing the Prince who had been legally inveſted in that duchy, and on this account inviting the Princes of the Empire into a confederacy againſt France, the King did not think it prudent to march his army ſo far from home. Beſides, FERDINAND King of Spain made him an offer to divide the kingdom of Naples with him, and depoſe the preſent Prince FREDERICK, who was deſcended from a baſe branch of the houſe Arragon, and therefore, as they were pleaſed to infer, could have no legal title. And it was accordingly agreed, that FERDINAND King of Spain ſhould have Apulia and Calabria, as it lay moſt convenient for him in the neighbourhood of Sicily which belonged to him; and that the French King ſhould have the north part of Naples, containing the Abruzzo and Naples Proper. The Pope alſo came into this treaty in hopes of augmenting the territories of his ſon CÆSAR BORGIA, now Duke of Valentinois.

The King of Naples in the mean time publiſhed manifeſto upon manifeſto, aſſerting his right to that kingdom; but having neither forces or allies to ſupport him, the Kings of France and Spain, each of them, ſent an army, and took poſſeſſion of the country, dividing it between them according to the above-ſaid treaty, and the Pope granted them the inveſtiture of their reſpective ſhares. King FREDERICK having ſhut himſelf up in the caſtle del Ovo in Naples, ſoon found himſelf obliged to capitulate, and was permitted by the French General to retire to the iſland of Iſchia; ſome time after he obtained leave to come to France, and transferred all his right to the kingdom of Naples to King LEWIS, who whereupon granted him the duchy of Anjou, and thirty thouſand ducats per annum, which he enjoyed till he died.

A war between the Kings of France and Spain on the diviſion of Naples, 1502.

1503.

1504. A confederacy againſt the Venetians.

The ſettling the limits in the kingdom of Naples between the Kings of France and Spain, occaſioned a war between them, which laſted about two years, when the Duke of Nemours, the French General, was entirely defeated and killed in the field of battle, whereupon the whole country ſubmitted to the Spaniards. The French writers relate, that their troops were ſucceſsful till their King ſuffered himſelf to be amuſed by a treaty, which occaſioned his not ſending timely reinforcements, while the King of Spain continued to ſend ſupplies from time to time, and thereby gained ſuch a ſuperiority that there was no making head againſt him; whereupon the French were driven out of the country, and moſt of them periſhed before they reached France (which has been their fate more than once in their attempts upon Naples). The ſame year the French were defeated in two enterprizes againſt Spain on the ſide of the Pyrenees; but a truce was at length concluded between the two nations for three years, which gave the King of France, and his allies the Pope and King of the Romans, an opportunity of falling upon the Venetians, whom theſe Princes were determined to deſtroy. The French King was highly provoked with them for their treacherous underhand dealings, whereby they croſſed his deſigns in the Neapolitan war. The Pope was exaſperated againſt them for ſeizing ſome of the towns he laid claim to in Romania; and the King of the Romans had much the ſame cauſe of complaint againſt them. The Duke of Ferrara, the Marquis of Mantua, the Republick of Florence, and the King of Hungary, alſo came into the confederacy againſt them, every one of theſe States having pretenſions to ſome town or territory the Venetians had poſſeſſed themſelves of; inſomuch that it was evident if every one of the parties in the confederacy were to be ſatisfied in their reſpective demands, Venice would not have a foot of land left upon the Continent. The deſign of the allies was indeed entirely to demoliſh their State: they were animated more by a ſpirit of revenge againſt that proud republick, for pretending to be the umpire of the affairs of Europe, and to hold the balance amongſt them, than by the hopes of obtaining ſatisfaction on their antiquated claims. And had the execution of the treaty been as ſpeedy as it was intended, the Venetians had infallibly been ruined: but the delays made by the King of the Romans, and a dangerous fit of illneſs which ſeized the French King, gave the Venetians an opportunity of applying to the Pope, and drawing him off from this formidable alliance; whereupon all the other parties laid aſide the deſign for the preſent. This confederacy againſt the Venetians was however revived again in the year 1508, and the King of Spain alſo came into it, on account of ſome towns in Apulia which they had poſſeſſed themſelves of during the Neapolitan war, and refuſed to deliver up. The Venetians offered the Pope a town or two, in order to appeaſe him, and made their application to the Emperor to divert him from the war; but all the parties to the league were immovable, and remained determined to deſtroy the Republick; whereupon they raiſed an army, garriſoned their towns, and made all neceſſary preparations for their defence. The King of France took the field againſt them firſt, and having paſſed the Alps, ſent a herald to declare war againſt them. The Pope at the ſame time publiſhed a thundering bull againſt the Republick, requiring them to reſtore the towns and territories they had uſurped from the Holy See, on pain of an interdict and eternal damnation; which the Venetians anſwered by a manifeſto.

1508.

1509.

In the mean time the French army advanced, and came to an engagement with the forces of the Republick on the fourteenth of May 1509, and defeated them; and within leſs than three weeks after the French King made himſelf maſter of Cremona, Breſſe, Bergamo, Crema, and of all the other towns and caſtles he pretended belonged to him as part of the duchy of Milan, and had been diſmembered from it. At the ſame time the Duke of Ferrara, who commanded the Pope's forces, entered Romania, and took Ravenna and Faenza, the moſt conſiderable towns he had demanded of them. He ſeized alſo upon the territory denominated the Poleſin de Rovigo, which he alledged the Venetians had diſmembered from his duchy of Ferrara. The Duke of Brunſwick, the Emperor's General, alſo retook Trieſte and ſeveral other towns from them; and the Marquis of Mantua others, which put the Republick into the utmoſt conſternation. They applyed themſelves hereupon to the Emperor, the Pope, and the King of Spain, offering to ſubmit to any terms if they would break with the French: and they were ſo ſucceſsful in their negotiations with the King of Spain, that he offered to make peace with them on condition they would reſtore the towns in Apulia, which they did. The Pope they found alarmed at the great progreſs of the French arms in Italy,

1510. 1511.

and prevailed with him to deſart his confederates and join in an alliance with the Swiſs and their State to drive the French out of Italy. The King of England alſo acceded to this treaty, and was to attack France on the ſide of Picardy by way of diverſion. The King of France, on the other hand, entered into a more ſtrict alliance with the Emperor, and by the aſſiſtance of five Cardinals devoted to their intereſt who fled from Rome, they called a General Council at Piſa to enquire into the means by which the Pope acquired the Pontificate, and threatened to depoſe him and ſet up another in his room, which gave his Holineſs no ſmall uneaſineſs. The French King alſo attacked and took the city of Bologna from the Pope, and defeated his forces; and, as the French writers affirm, was in a condition at this time to have made himſelf maſter of Rome itſelf, and even of all Italy, if he would have attempted it: but he obſerved, that the greater were his conqueſts, and the further he advanced in this country, the more enemies he created. The Spaniards were afraid of Naples; and neither England or the Emperor could with good policy ſee the French add Italy to their monarchy. The Pope therefore knowing he ſhould be very well ſupported, was ſo far from ſubmitting to the French, that he called a General Council at St John de Lateran's in Rome, in oppoſition to that of Piſa, in order to render all their decrees ineffectual; and proceeded to anathematize the Cardinals and Prelates that compoſed it. He laid the town of Piſa alſo under an interdict for harbouring them, whereupon a tumult was raiſed by the citizens, and they were forced to remove to Milan.

1512.

The French driven out of Italy, and the Venetians almoſt out of the continent.

In the mean time the Swiſs attacked the French in the Milaneſe on one ſide, while the Pope and the Spaniards made head againſt them on the other. The King's forces nevertheleſs were ſucceſsful ſtill againſt the Pope, the Spaniards, the Venetians, and the Swiſs, till England declared war againſt France, and then the French found themſelves under a neceſſity of withdrawing moſt of their forces out of Italy, whereby they loſt Milan and all their conqueſts on that ſide the Alps, in almoſt as ſhort a time as they made them. The King of England demanded Normandy, and all the territories in France which formerly belonged to the Engliſh; and having the Emperor for his ally, the French King thought it more adviſable to abandon his foreign conqueſts, than hazard the loſs of his own kingdom. Upon the retreat of the French, MAXIMILIAN SFORZA, ſon of the late Duke, had the duchy of Milan reſtored him by the Venetians and the Swiſs. The republick of Genoa again revolted from the French, and all the Princes in Italy enjoyed their reſpective territories again, only there were ſome diſputes which ſtill remained between the Pope, the Emperor, and Venetians. About the ſame time the Spaniards made a conqueſt of the kingdom of Navarre, though that Prince was ſupported by France. The French King ſtill looked with a covetous eye upon the duchy of Milan, and obſerving that the Venetians were on ill terms with the Pope and the Emperor, entered into an alliance with that Republick againſt them; and ſending ſome troops over the Alps that joined the Venetians, he recovered great part of the Milaneſe again. The Swiſs and Spaniards however ſoon after obtained an entire victory over the French army, and compelled them once more to fly the country, while their miſerable allies the Venetians were beaten almoſt out of the Continent, retaining no other towns there but Padua and Treviſa.

1513. The end of the council of Piſa.

The French aſcribe all their ill ſucceſs in this Italian war, to the invaſion of their country by the Engliſh and Imperialiſts on the ſide of Flanders, of which I am next to give an account; only for the ſatisfaction of thoſe who may be inquiſitive to know what became of the council of Piſa, I muſt firſt take notice, that this council having been adjourned from Piſa to Milan, was upon the late revolution in the Milaneſe adjourned to the city of Lyons in France; whereupon the Pope laid that kingdom under an interdict, and eſpecially Lyons where it was held. While the King in vain endeavoured to eſtabliſh the council, and perſuade other Princes to join with him upon that occaſion, the Emperor declared that he adhered to the council of Lateran, and revoked every thing he had done in favour of the other, condemning all the reſolutions of the Gallican Church on that ſubject. And though this Pope died in February 1512-13, and was ſucceeded by LEO the Tenth, a prelate of a much more peaceable diſpoſition, the intereſt of the French at Rome was not at all improved, and they were at length obliged to drop the council of Piſa.

War between France and England.

Peace between France and England.

The war between France and England was carried on as well by ſea as land: their fleets engaged twice, but there happened nothing deciſive at ſea. The moſt conſiderable action was near St Malo's in Britany, where the two Admirals grappling together, took fire and were blown up, whereby a multitude of men were loſt; for the French Admiral alone, 'tis ſaid, had 1200 men on board. The firſt attempt the Engliſh made by land was in Guienne in the year 1512, whither the Engliſh ſent a good body of troops to join the Spaniards; but the latter inſtead of uniting their forces with the Engliſh for the recovery of that duchy, as had been ſtipulated, took the opportunity of this diverſion to ſeize upon the kingdom of Navarre, as has been related above; whereupon the Engliſh returned home. The following year 1513, HENRY the Eighth, King of England, embarked with an army of five and twenty or thirty thouſand men, and landed at Calais, from whence he marched and laid ſiege to Terouen in Flanders, being joined by the Emperor MAXIMILIAN with a body of forces almoſt equal to the Engliſh. The French made an attempt to raiſe the ſiege, and were handſomely beaten: and as their gens d'arms did not behave very bravely, but made leſs uſe of their launces than their ſpurs, this engagement obtained the name of the Battle of Spurs. The French ſay this was but a detachment of their army that came to the relief of Terouen, and that they did not make their utmoſt efforts to raiſe the ſiege, becauſe they were obliged to ſend part of their troops into Burgundy to make head againſt the Swiſs and Imperialiſts, who had entered their country on that ſide. But whatever their reaſons were for not venturing a general battle, Terouen ſurrendered after a ſiege of nine weeks; after which the confederates laid ſiege to Tournay, and took it, and this put an end to the campaign. JAMES the Fourth of Scotland, according to the cuſtom of that nation, invaded England while King HENRY was engaged in the French war, but had the misfortune to be defeated and killed at Flodden-field. The French King after ſuch a train of ill ſucceſs, endeavoured to obtain a peace with England, which he effected by marrying the Princeſs MARY, the ſiſter of King HENRY the Eighth, and paying that Prince a million of crowns towards

wards the charges of the war. Some Engliſh politicians were not pleaſed with this treaty, apprehending that King Henry had ſuch a ſuperiority of troops, and ſuch powerful allies, that he might have made himſelf maſter of Normandy, and even of all France; while others held, that admitting the conqueſt of France could have been effected, it muſt have coſt England a great deal of blood and treaſure; for which the Engliſh could have expected nothing in return, but to have been made a province to the larger kingdom; and had they retained Normandy, or any other part of France, this would only have engaged them in perpetual wars, to maintain which the nation muſt have been burthened with taxes. Nor is this the only reaſon why a ſubject of England ſhould be averſe to foreign conqueſts, there is ſtill another more ſubſtantial than the former, and that is the endangering his liberty and property; for foreign territories muſt be maintained by ſtanding forces, which an arbitrary Prince may bring over at pleaſure, and with them levy what money he pleaſes upon his ſubjects at home. Nothing is more evident than that as money will raiſe ſoldiers, ſo ſoldiers will raiſe money if they want it, provided they are quartered in a country where it is to be had: and for this reaſon ſome people are againſt our having ſo much as a ſingle town on the other ſide the water, becauſe it will ever furniſh the Prince, with a ſpecious pretence to raiſe an army to defend it, when he is pleaſed to ſay it is in danger.

But to reflect a little further on the wiſdom of our anceſtors. The reaſon of their entering into this war was to reduce the exorbitant power of France, then as well as now a very powerful kingdom; and as ſoon as they had compelled her to relinquiſh all her new acquiſitions, and reduced her to her former bounds, they had gained their point: they had no intention to deſtroy the French nation, or bring it to ſuch a ſtate that it might not be in a condition to check the ambition of the Emperor: this had been over-doing it, and only pulling down one exorbitant power to create another. And the ſame wiſdom ſeemed to reign in the Engliſh councils at the peace of Utrecht: they found the French ſufficiently humbled, and had put the Imperialiſts in poſſeſſion of ſeveral fine countries that were taken from them. But they thought it highly adviſable to ſtop here, and not aggrandize the Emperor to that degree as to render him as terrible in Europe as the French had been. And yet had we a ſet of politicians among us, that nothing would ſatisfy but a total extirpation of the French. They had not foreſight enough to diſcern, that in a very few years we might want their aſſiſtance to balance the power of the Emperor, tho' they have ſince been ſufficiently convinced of their miſtake.

But to return to the French King Lewis XII. He ſurvived the peace and his marriage but a very little while: and thoſe people who will ſuffer no event to paſs without aſſigning the cauſe of it, aſſure us that his death was occaſioned by his too great complaiſance for the young Queen, who was one of the fineſt Princeſſes in Europe, and whoſe demands 'tis ſuppoſed the old King was perfectly unable to ſatisfy. But leaving theſe gentlemen to their conjectures, certain it is he was taken ill of a fever attended with a dyſentery, of which he died on the firſt of January 1514-15, in the fifty-fourth year of his age, and the ſeventeenth of his reign, having never had any legitimate iſſue, whereupon the crown devolved on his ſecond couſin Francis, Count of Angouleme and Duke of Valois.

Francis 1514-15.

Francis Count of Angouleme and Duke of Valois, nephew of the late King, ſucceeded to the crown in January 1514-15, in the 21ſt year of his age.

The King's deſign on the Milaneſe.

Immediately after his acceſſion he renewed the alliances which his predeceſſor had made with the King of England and the Venetians. By the treaty with the latter they were obliged to aſſiſt him in the conqueſt of the Milaneſe, and France engaged to recover the towns the Republick had loſt in Italy. On the other hand, he found the Pope, the King of Spain, and the Swiſs, in a confederacy againſt him for the defence of the Milaneſe, and Maximilian Sforza the new Duke. He determined however to paſs the Alps, and attempt the recovery of that duchy once again, and was encouraged in this enterprize by the Genoeſe, who at this time put themſelves under the protection of France.

The Swiſs oppoſe his paſſage in vain.

The Swiſs having notice of his deſign, poſſeſſed themſelves of all the uſual paſſes of the Alps; but the King diſcovered another, a very difficult one, by the valley of Barcelonetta, thro' which the French armies had never before penetrated into Italy; and making a feint with part of the army, as if he intended to march the common road, he ſent a ſtrong detachment of his forces, and ſeized that on the ſide of Barcelonetta without any oppoſition; whereupon the Swiſs withdrew their troops from the Alps, and retired into the Milaneſe, whether the French followed them. The Pope and the Spaniard finding the King had actually entered Italy, began to think of treating with him, and never ſent their forces to join the Swiſs, as had been agreed, which occaſioned their defeat at Marignan, not far from Milan, after they had maintained the fight bravely for two days, and loſt ten or twelve thouſand of their men: the French alſo were ſo ſeverely handled that they did not think fit to purſue them. Upon the loſs of this battle, moſt of the towns in the Milaneſe, with the capital city itſelf, opened their gates to the conqueror: whereupon the Duke, Maximilian Sforza, who had retired into the caſtle of Milan with a good garriſon, capitulated, and agreed to ſurrender his duchy to the French King, upon condition he ſhould allow him a penſion of ſixty-thouſand ducats per annum; and thus the French became entire maſters of the Milaneſe within leſs than a month after the battle of Marignan. Their allies the Venetians in the mean time recovered moſt of the towns they had loſt in the laſt war. The Pope hereupon entered into a treaty with the King, by which he yielded Parma and Placentia to him: and his Majeſty on the other hand promiſed to aſſiſt the Pope in the recovery of the duchy of Urbino, and conſented to aboliſh the Pragmatick Sanction, and to eſtabliſh the Concordat in the room of it; whereby it was agreed that the King ſhould have the nomination of biſhops and abbots in France, but that the Pope ſhould retain certain profits out of the principal eccleſiaſtical benefices.

The King enters the Milaneſe, 1515.

And obtains a victory over the Swiſs.

The Duke of Milan ſurrenders his duchy to the French.

Treaty between the Pope and France, concerning the nomination of Biſhops, &c.

His Majeſty while he continued at Milan endeavoured to bring the Swiſs to temper, and was ſo ſucceſsful as to renew the antient alliances with eight of the cantons. As to the reſt of the powers on that ſide of the Alps, they all came and congratulated him on the ſucceſs of his expedition, though many of them dreaded nothing more than to ſee

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War between the Emperor and France.

the French eſtabliſhed in Italy. His Majeſty having conſtituted the Duke of Bourbon Lieutenant-General of the Milaneſe, returned home, and arrived at Lyons in the beginning of February 1515-16. The French hiſtorians relate, that he was under great apprehenſions at this time of being invaded by the King of England, whoſe Prime-Minſter Cardinal **Wolsey** was piqued at his denying him the biſhoprick of Tournay; but the reſt of the Engliſh Council being againſt a war with France, that enterprize was laid aſide for the preſent. **Wolsey** however gratified his ſpleen, by inciting the Emperor to fall upon the French in Italy. This Prince recovered ſeveral places in the Milaneſe; but when the Generals were upon the point of coming to an engagement, the Swiſs on both ſides, of whom the greateſt part of each army was compoſed, refuſed to fight. One reaſon they gave was, that they had ſtipulated by their reſpective treaties with theſe powers, that they would not ſerve againſt their own countrymen: but the principal was, that they were not paid, either by the French or Germans, and therefore took the liberty of returning home; from whence came that common ſaying, No Money, no Swiſs: after which the Emperor thought fit to retire into the Trentin, and abandon his conqueſts, while the Swiſs plundered all the country in their return, according to cuſtom, and paid themſelves. The French King about this time furniſhed the Pope with a body of cavalry, with which he reduced the duchy of Urbino, taking it from the true proprietor Duke **Francis Mury**, and transferring it to **Lawrence de Medicis**, his Holineſs's nephew, in purſuance of the late treaty between the Pope and his Majeſty.

1516. Peace between France and moſt of the powers of Europe.

The following year produced a peace between France, Spain, the Emperor, and Venetians, whereby Verona was reſtored to the laſt. And now that republick ſaw themſelves in the poſſeſſion of all the places that had been taken from them by the confederacy of Cambray.

Tournay reſtored to France.

1518.

The King of France having bribed Cardinal **Wolsey**, the Prime-Miniſter of England, eaſily found means to purchaſe Tournay afterwards of the King of England for ſix hundred thouſand crowns, and a peace was thereupon concluded between the two nations; to cement which, the Dauphin, who was under two years old, was married to the Princeſs **Mary**, the eldeſt daughter of **Henry** VIII, and under four years of age; but this match, like moſt others that are made ſo very early, came to nothing. **Wolsey**, the French hiſtorians aſſure us, had agreed alſo to deliver up Calais to the French; but the King of Spain having notice of it, out-bid the King of France, and having drawn off the Cardinal from his intereſt, ever after played him upon France with great advantage.

Charles V, choſen Emperor.

About this time the Kings of France and Spain became competitors for the Empire upon the death of the Emperor **Maximilian**, which happened on the nineteenth of January 1518-19. **Charles** King of Spain proved the fortunate man: the German Princes, 'tis ſaid, were apprehenſive that if they had choſen **Francis**, he would have endeavoured to reduce them to the ſame condition the vaſſal Princes of that kingdom had been reduced, and that they ſhould loſe the Sovereignty they enjoyed in their reſpective principalities. It is natural alſo to ſuppoſe, that **Charles**, who had reſided in the Emperor his grandfather's court during his minority, and was perſonally known to the Electors, ſhould have a better intereſt among them than a foreign Prince, whom they had always looked upon as the greateſt enemy to their country.

1520.

France and the Emperor make their court to Wolsey.

This union of the Empire and Spain under one head gave the French King ſome uneaſineſs. He found his dominions almoſt ſurrounded by the territories of his rival, and conſidered how he might form an alliance ſufficient to oppoſe him: and firſt he procured an interview with the King of England near Calais, as the French relate, and repreſented to him the danger they were both in of **Charles**'s rendering himſelf univerſal monarch; and 'tis ſaid he procured a promiſe from the King of England to aſſiſt him if he ſhould be attacked. However true this relation may be in the main, certain it is the French writers are miſtaken in one circumſtance, namely, as to the Kings of England and France having had an interview before the Emperor's conference with the King of England; for the Emperor paſſing by ſea from Spain to the Low-Countries, was entertained by **Henry** VIII at Dover, before he went to Calais to meet the French King. The hiſtorians of both nations however agree, that the Emperor and King **Francis** were very laviſh of their preſents and promiſes to **Wolsey**, whoſe ambition for the Popedom they were well acquainted with: It is even ſaid, that the French King aſſured him of fourteen voices in the conclave at the next election; but that the Emperor demonſtrating to the Cardinal that he could procure him a greater number, he immediately deſerted the French intereſt, and went over to the Imperialiſts. Thus the fate of kingdoms is frequently determined by deſigning miniſters; Princes made to prevaricate and break their contracts to their eternal diſhonour, and ſometimes utter ruin, only to advance the particular views of the treacherous adviſer; and this perhaps becauſe the Sovereign will not give himſelf time to conſider his own, or his people's intereſts, but takes things upon truſt without examination. And what wonder is it in ſuch caſes, if the Miniſter has the adoration of the croud, while the Prince is contemned, and perhaps ſcarce thought of, even while he lives and bears the royal title? He may be ſtiled God's Vicegerent on earth, but unleſs he imitates the Deity in all his imitable perfections, his truth, his juſtice, and concern for the welfare of mankind, particularly his own ſubjects, the people will infallibly withdraw their veneration and dependance on him: nor is it fit a Prince ſhould enjoy the ſplendor of a crown, while he refuſes to bear any of the weight of it. But to return to our hiſtory: The Emperor, 'tis ſaid, obtained a promiſe of the King of England that he would not aſſiſt France, but offer his mediation in caſe any differences aroſe, and take up arms againſt either of the parties who ſhould refuſe his arbitration.

A war between France and the Emperor.

While the Emperor was abſent from Spain, there happened a rebellion in that kingdom, which the French King looked upon as a favourable opportunity to attack his territories on that ſide; therefore he firſt aſſiſted the depoſed King of Navarre to recover his country, and afterwards penetrated into Caſtile: but the regency of Spain having aſſembled their troops, defeated the French, and recovered Navarre again the ſame campaign it was loſt. Another attempt the French King made againſt the territories of the Empire on the ſide of Luxemburg; not openly, but by giving **Le Mark**, Lord of Sedan, liberty to raiſe forces

1521.

in France, with which he attacked the Emperor's towns, upon pretence of ſome injuſtice that Prince had done him. The French King indeed diſavowed what the Lord of Sedan had done; nor did he raiſe an army to ſupport him. However, the Emperor being ſatisfied his Majeſty was at the bottom of it, after he had ravaged the territories of that Lord, and razed his fortified towns to the ground, he entered the dominions of France, and took Tournay, and ſome other places; while the French on their ſide made themſelves maſters of Bouchain, Landrecy, and ſome other ſmall towns: and thus a war was commenced between theſe two powers, which laſted many years, the King of England in vain offering his mediation.

The war was about the ſame time begun in Italy, where the Pope, the Emperor, the Duke of Tuſcany, and other Princes, had entered into a confederacy to drive the French out of that country, and conſtitute FRANCIS SFORZA, the brother of MAXIMILIAN, Duke of Milan. The French, who had behaved themſelves very inſolently, made this no difficult matter to effect: the inhabitants of the Milaneſe were all ready to join them. The death of Pope LEO X, however put ſome ſtop to the operations of the war; but Cardinal ADRIAN, preceptor to the Emperor, being elected in his room, all things went on to the wiſh of the confederates. (The Emperor it ſeems had made a tool of WOLSEY, and never intended to advance him to the pontificate.) They marched towards Milan, and having made themſelves maſters of ſeveral places, that capital opened it's gates and received FRANCIS SFORZA for her ſovereign. Soon after the French being joined by the Venetians, and having received ſome other re-inforcements, attacked the Imperialiſts and Italians, commanded by the Pope's General PROSPER COLONNA, at Bicoque, a palace and park of the Dukes of Milan, about a league from that city, ſurrounded by a wall and ditch. They were not able to force the Italian camp, but were repulſed and entirely defeated; whereupon Genoa and the whole Milaneſe revolted from the French, except the caſtles of Milan, Novara, Piſighitone, and Cremona. The Venetians alſo deſerted the French intereſt, and made an alliance with the Emperor againſt all powers that ſhould diſturb the repoſe of Italy for the future; never expecting to ſee the French in Italy again ſo ſoon as they were, having ſo much buſineſs upon their hands on the ſide of the Pyrenees and Picardy; for the Engliſh the year before had declared war againſt them, and in purſuance of that declaration landed thirteen thouſand men at Calais, under the command of the Duke of Suffolk, who was to have been joined by a like number of Imperialiſts; but the latter not bringing more than five or ſix thouſand men into the field, and throwing the whole charge of the war on that ſide upon the Engliſh, according to cuſtom, no conſiderable action could be undertaken; whereupon the Duke contented himſelf with ravaging the country till he came within ten or eleven leagues of Paris, and then returned to England.

The Milaneſe revolt from the French.

1523.

The Engliſh make an irruption into Picardy.

In the mean time the caſtle of Milan ſurrendered to the confederates, but the French King notwithſtanding made great preparations for the invaſion of that duchy, and was upon his march thither when he received advice that the Duke of Bourbon, Conſtable of France, being diſguſted, was treating with his enemy the Emperor. He charged the Duke with it; but there being no direct proof of the matter, he continued his march towards Lyons, where he was aſſured that the Conſtable was actually fled into Germany, and thereupon ordered the fortified towns belonging to that Duke to be ſeized, and his adherents apprehended: and not thinking it proper at ſuch a juncture to leave the kingdom, he committed the care of the Italian expedition to the Admiral BONNIRET, who paſſed the Alps and recovered ſeveral places in the Milaneſe, taking up his winter-quarters in that country.

The French invade the Milaneſe.

But the following ſpring 1524, the Swiſs deſerted his army, and the Imperialiſts, who were now commanded by the Duke of Bourbon, with the Venetians, Neapolitans, &c. having aſſembled their forces fell upon the French, and fairly beat them out of Italy again: after which the confederates paſſed the Alps, and beſieged Marſeilles; but having lain before that town forty days, and made little progreſs in the ſiege, their army being pretty much leſſened by ſickneſs, they raiſed the ſiege and returned into Italy, King FRANCIS following them cloſe at the heels with an army of forty thouſand men. Upon his appearance in the Milaneſe, the city of Milan itſelf, which always ſubmitted to the ſtrongeſt ſide for fear of being plundered, opened her gates to him; and the confederates not being in a condition to keep the field, the King laid ſiege to Pavia. The place was defended by a numerous garriſon, and the beſiegers were ſo incommoded with the rains and ſnows, that they had not much advanced their works in two months they had lain before it. In the mean time the Imperialiſts having received large reinforcements from Germany, attacked the King in his camp on St MATTHIAS's day, 1524-5, and after a brave reſiſtance, entirely defeated his army and took him priſoner. It is computed that there were eight or nine thouſand of the French killed upon the ſpot, and of the Germans ſcarce ſo many hundred. The loſs of this battle was followed by that of all the Milaneſe.

The French King defeated and taken priſon at Pavia.

1525.

The King of England upon this occaſion ſhewed himſelf a Prince of great honour: he had aſſembled an army to invade France on the ſide of Picardy, and hearing of the diſtreſs that the French were reduced to upon the impriſonment of their King, he declared to the Regency of France that he would not proceed in the enterprize, or give them any diſturbance: whereas nothing is ſo common as to ſee Princes taking advantages of the misfortunes of their neighbours. But one great inducement to this conduct no doubt was, an apprehenſion that the Emperor would ſoon become too powerful for all the Princes in Europe, if he did not change hands: he entered into a defenſive alliance therefore with France, and engaged to procure the liberty of King FRANCIS upon reaſonable terms.

In the mean time the Emperor had cauſed his royal priſoner to be brought from Italy to Madrid, where after about a year's confinement a treaty was made between them. The King to obtain his liberty yielded up the duchy of Burgundy, renounced his pretenſions to Naples, Milan, and Genoa, and all ſovereign juriſdiction over the countries of Flanders and Artois, and all other demeſns in the poſſeſſion of the Emperor; and a marriage was at the ſame time concluded between the King and ELEANOR Queen dowager of Portugal, the Emperor's ſiſter. About a month after the King was permitted to return to France, leaving his two ſons, FRANCIS the Dauphin, and HENRY Duke of Orleans as hoſtages for the performance of the articles. Being required to put the

1526.

Emperor into the poſſeſſion of the duchy of Burgundy ſoon after; the States of the kingdom repreſented to him, that he could not alienate the demeſns of the crown without their conſent, and therefore that part of the treaty was void. This occaſioned a rupture with the Emperor, whereupon King FRANCIS entered into an alliance with the Engliſh, the Venetians, the Swiſs, the Florentines, and the Pope, for preſerving the liberty of Italy, and reſtoring the duchy of Milan to FRAMCIS SFORZA.

A confederacy againſt the Emperor.

1527.

Rome taken by ſtorm by the Imperial Generals.

The Duke of Bourbon, the Imperial General, having notice of this league, marched directly to Rome, partly to be revenged on the Pope, and partly to ſatisfy his forces with the plunder of that city, having received no money to pay them for a conſiderable time. He demanded a paſſage for his forces thro' Rome, pretending he was marching towards Naples; and this being refuſed him, he ordered ſcaling-ladders to be brought to the walls, and as he was ſtanding at the foot of one of them animating his men, he was wounded with a muſket-ball, of which he died; whereupon the Prince of Orange took upon him the command of the Imperial army, and carried the city by ſtorm, committing greater outrages there, if we may credit the French writers, than ever the barbarous nations were guilty of when they made themſelves maſters of it. The Pope having retired into the caſtle of St ANGELO, was beſieged there; but the Imperial Generals finding, that the French and the reſt of the confederates were marching to his relief, agreed to raiſe the ſiege, on condition he would advance them four hundred thouſand ducats, and yield up ſome places to the Emperor, which belonged to the Eccleſiaſtical State. The confederates, on the other hand, having made themſelves maſters of great part of the Milaneſe, marched afterwards into the kingdom of Naples, and laid ſiege to the capital city, which induced the Imperialiſts to abandon Rome, in order to prevent another revolution in that kingdom.

The war carried into Naples.

The city of Naples being blocked up by the Genoeſe fleet by ſea, and inveſted on all ſides by the confederates by land, was reduced to great extremity for want of proviſions. The plague alſo carried off great numbers of the garriſon as well as inhabitants; but the condition of the beſiegers was not at all better. Of ſix and twenty thouſand men that firſt inveſted the place, there were not ſix thouſand left; and, to compleat their misfortune, ANDREW DORIA, Commander of the Genoeſe fleet, went over to the Imperialiſts, and gave them an opportunity of ſupplying the place with forces and proviſions; whereupon the confederates found themſelves obliged to raiſe the ſiege. The Prince of Orange purſued them to Averſa, and having inveſted the place, they were glad to accept of ſuch conditions as he was pleaſed to grant them. The French officers and ſoldiers had leave to return to France, leaving all their arms, ſtandards, and colours behind them. The Swiſs were allowed to go home; and the Italians obliged themſelves not to ſerve againſt the Emperor for ſix months; and their General, the Marquis of Saluzzo, agreed to do all that was in his power to oblige the Governors of towns in poſſeſſion of the allies to ſurrender to the Imperialiſts, for the performance whereof he remained a priſoner amongſt them.

1528.

Peace between France and the Emperor.

The following year a peace was concluded beteen the Emperor and France, by the mediation of the Queen Dowager of France, and MARGARET of Auſtria, Governeſs of the Netherlands, whereby the Emperor deſiſted from his pretenſions on the duchy of Burgundy, and the French King obliged himſelf to pay the Emperor two millions of crowns, as a ranſom for the two Princes his ſons. He promiſed alſo to withdraw the forces he had ſtill remaining in Italy, and renounce all ſovereignty over Flanders, Artois, &c. The treaty of marriage alſo was confirmed between King FRANCIS and the Emperor's eldeſt ſiſter the Queen of Portugal. The Pope had already made a ſeparate Peace with the Emperor; and the Venetians obtained one on condition of delivering up the towns they were poſſeſſed of in the kingdom of Naples. The Emperor conſented to grant the inveſtiture of the duchy of Milan to Duke SFORZA, upon condition he would let him put a garriſon in the caſtle of that capital, and in the city of Coſmo. As to the Republick of Florence, the Emperor beſieged, and took their capital city, and obliged them to accept ALEXANDER de Medicis for their Sovereign, whom they had driven away.

The Emperor ſubdues the Republick of Florence.

1530.

The French King being now in peace with all his neighbours, ſolemnized his marriage with the Queen of Portugal. He afterwards applyed himſelf to remedy ſuch diſorders in the ſtate, as the long war had occaſioned, and gave great encouragement to arts and ſciences, whereby he obtained the title of the Reſtorer of Learning in France. And in the year 1532, he cauſed the duchy of Britany to be formally united to the crown of France. He propoſed alſo the modelling his militia, after the pattern of the antient Romans, by forming them into legions or bodies of men, conſiſting of ſix thouſand each; Normandy, Britany, Picardy, and Burgundy, were each of them to furniſh one, to be called by their reſpective names, and ſo the reſt of the provinces in proportion to their extent; and this he began to execute about the year 1533. In the mean time, the Proteſtant or Lutheran Princes of Germany, finding themſelves in danger of being cruſhed by the Emperor, who had publiſhed a decree, that no other religion ſhould be tolerated in the Empire but the Catholick, applyed themſelves to the French King for his protection: and he accordingly entered into a defenſive alliance with them, not with an intent to ſupport the Proteſtant religion, for he was a zealous Catholick, and had executed ſeveral for hereſy in his own kingdom, but in order to break the Emperor's power, and render him leſs terrible to himſelf and the reſt of the powers of Europe, who were apprehenſive that CHARLES the Fifth aimed at nothing leſs than univerſal monarchy. This confederacy of the Proteſtant Princes being entered into at the town of Smalcald in Germany, obtained the name of the Smalcaldick League. The Emperor finding ſo formidable an alliance of the German Princes formed againſt him, ſupported by the King of France, and the Turks threatning to fall upon him at the ſame time with an army of three hundred thouſand men, begun to uſe the Proteſtants more mildly than he had done, and notwithſtanding the decree he had publiſhed at the concluſion of the Dyet of Augſburg, prohibiting the exerciſe of any other religion than the Catholick, he granted the Proteſtants liberty of conſcience till a General Council ſhould be aſſembled to ſettle the points in diſpute; and theſe temporary indulgences obtained the name of Interims, as all things were to remain in the ſame ſtate they were in the mean time.

1531.

1532.

1533. France enters into an alliance with the Proteſtant Princes of Germany.

The Smalcaldick League.

The King of England throws off the Pope's ſupremacy.

The King of England, HENRY VIII, having been diſguſted alſo on account of the oppoſition the Emperor made to his ſeparation from Queen KATHERINE, who was the Emperor's aunt, had engaged to ſupport the Proteſtant Princes of Germany; and that Prince being afterwards excommunicated by the Pope, on his marriage with ANNE BULLEN, threw off the Pope's ſupremacy, and ſtiled himſelf Head of the Church of England. The French King, their writers inform us, did all that lay in his power to prevent matters being brought to this extremity, by applying himſelf firſt to King HENRY, and then to the Pope: but things were carried with that violence in both courts, that his mediation was to no purpoſe, tho' there were at this time a very great intimacy between the French King and the Pope, on account of his Holineſs's niece KATHERINE de Medicis marrying the King's ſecond ſon, HENRY Duke of Orleans, to ſolemnize which, the Pope made a journey into France on purpoſe. One of the articles of this marriage was, that the Pope ſhould aſſiſt the French King in making his ſon the Duke of Orleans Duke of Milan; but the 1534. Pope dying the next year, anno 1534, this part of the treaty was never executed.

War in Italy between France and the Emperor. 1535.

In the year 1535, the war broke out again between France and the Emperor. FRANCIS SFORZA Duke of Milan, happening to die about this time, the French King reſumed his claim to the Milaneſe, alledging, that on the death of SFORZA without iſſue, it reverted to him: but being conſcious that the Emperor would oppoſe his pretenſions, he waited till he found that Prince engaged in an expedition to Africa againſt the infidels; and that he might be able to make good his retreat, in caſe of a misfortune, he found ſome pretence of falling out with the Duke of Savoy, and ſeized upon his capital city of Turin, and moſt of his other towns, quartering his army in 1536. that country. But the Emperor being returned from his expedition to Tunis, marched with an army into Piedmont, and obliged the French to quit all the Duke of Savoy's towns, except Turin. He afterwards paſſed the Alps, and entered Provence, where he found all the country waſted by the French, that they might meet with no ſubſiſtence for their troops; the Emperor however poſſeſſed himſelf of Aix, and afterwards laid ſiege to Marſeilles; but his army was ſo weakened by ſickneſs and famine, that he was obliged to return on a ſudden into Italy. The French relate, that of fifty thouſand men with which he invaded Provence, he had ſcarce five and twenty thouſand left when he came to Genoa. The Imperialiſts met with no better ſucceſs on the ſide of Picardy, where they laid ſiege to Peronne, but were forced to raiſe it by the brave defence the garriſon made. In the mean time the French follow the Imperialiſts into Italy, where there were perpetual ſkirmiſhes between them during the winter. JAMES the Fifth of Scotland, it ſeems, was ſo zealous in ſerving the French King in this war, that, of his own accord, he raiſed an army of ſixteen thouſand men, and tranſported them to Provence, which gave the French that ſuperiority over the Emperor, as to oblige him to return to Italy. In gratitude to the King of Scots therefore, he gave him his daughter MAGDALEN in marriage, which created a miſunderſtanding between the Kings of England and France; the Scots being the conſtant and avowed enemies of the Engliſh nation.

The French King ſummons the Emperor before him as his vaſſal.

The French King at his return to Paris, had the vanity to ſummon the Emperor as his vaſſal before the court of Peers, to do homage for Artois and Flanders, pretending that the ceſſions he had made of all homage and ſervice from the Emperor at the treaty of Cambray, were void, by that Prince's having invaded France on the ſide of Provence; and upon the Emperor's not appearing, that court declared him guilty of rebellion and treaſon againſt his ſovereign Lord the King of France, and deprived him judicially of the provinces of Flanders, Artois, and Charolois, which the Emperor and the reſt of the Princes of Europe laughed at very heartily.

He enters into an alliance with the Turk.

The French, alſo to ſhew their reſentment againſt the Emperor, entered into an alliance with the Grand Seignior, whereby it was agreed, that the Turks ſhould invade the kingdom of Naples, while the King of France attacked the Milaneſe; and accordingly BARBAROSSA the Turkiſh Admiral, made a deſcent near Otranto, burnt and plundered the country of Apulia, and carried off captives without number. But the French did not perform their part of the treaty; the Imperialiſts found them ſo much buſineſs on the ſide of the Netherlands, that it was as much as they could do to maintain themſelves in Piedmont; they were not able to penetrate into the Milaneſe, and a truce was concluded between France and the Emperor 1537. the following winter, by the mediation of the Pope, who gave both parties a meeting at the city of Nice, in order to ſettle the articles.

1539. The Emperor comes to Paris.

During the continuance of this truce, there being an inſurrection in the Netherlands, the Emperor deſired leave to come through France to Flanders, for he was at that time in Spain; which the French King conſented to, and received him ſuitable to his dignity on his arrival at Paris. There ſeemed to be a perfect reconciliation between the two Princes; and the Emperor promiſed to grant the inveſtiture of the Milaneſe to one of the ſons of France, if we may credit their hiſtorians; tho' the Emperor, when he was put in mind of it on his arrival in Flanders, declared, he never made any ſuch promiſe. This, and the murdering one of the French Envoys in the Milaneſe, who was going to the Ottoman Port, occaſioned a miſunderſtanding between theſe two 1541. powers again, tho' the French did not think fit to break the truce till they found the Emperor engaged in another expedition to Africa; in which he loſt a very great fleet and army, and was obliged to return to Spain without effecting any thing.

1542. War between the French and the Emperor.

The following year, 1542, the French King declared war againſt the Emperor, on account of the murder of his Envoy, and for ſome other reaſons; and having raiſed two great armies, ſent one to the confines of Spain, and the other to the Low-Countries. The latter penetrated Luxemburg, and reduced ſeveral conſiderable towns; but the other army having beſieged Perpignan three months, was forced to riſe from before it, and return home, after they had loſt a great many men.

1543.

The next campaign the French, as uſual, took ſome places on the ſide of Flanders and Luxemburg before the Emperor's forces came into the field, but loſt moſt them again before the end of the ſummer; and the Emperor at the ſame time fell upon their ally the Duke of Cleve, and the reſt of the German Princes, who were in a confederacy againſt him, and forced them to ſubmit to very hard conditions. The King of England alſo entered into an alliance with the Emperor,

The Engliſh declare againſt France.

peror, being provoked to it by the French King's ſending over forces into Scotland, and oppoſing him in the match he had propoſed between his ſon EDWARD, and the young Queen of Scots, whereby HARRY VIII hoped to have united the two kingdoms. In purſuance of this treaty, ten thouſand Engliſh were ſoon after ſent over to the aſſiſtance of the Emperor in the Netherlands.

The French King finding himſelf hard preſſed on all ſides, united his forces with the Turks, and laid ſiege to Nice, while BARBAROSSA the Turkiſh Admiral blocked it up by ſea. He did not ſucceed in his enterprize however, being forced to raiſe the ſiege of the caſtle, after he had made himſelf maſter of the town: and this confederacy with the Turks rendered the French extremely odious to all the Princes in Europe; tho' now 'tis become a common practice, when any power is at war with the Emperor, to bring the Grand Seignior upon his back by way of diverſion.

1544.

The French were very ſucceſsful in Piedmont in the year 1544, where they gave the forces of the Emperor and the Duke of Savoy a very ſignal defeat, but could not make any great advantage of their victory, being forced to withdraw part of their army to the frontiers of Picardy, where the Imperialiſts and Engliſh were drawing together an army of fourſcore thouſand men, giving out, that they intended to march directly to Paris. The Imperialiſts however, not being ready to take the field ſo ſoon as the Engliſh, King HARRY laid ſiege to the cities of Bologne and Monſtrevil, and the Emperor retook Luxemburg and ſome other towns, which the French had poſſeſſed themſelves of in that duchy. Theſe ſieges took up ſo much of their time, that their grand deſign of carrying the war into the heart of France became impracticable. The King of England took Bologne, after a ſiege of three months; but could not make himſelf maſter of Monſtrevil, and the winter approaching, he left a garriſon in Bologne, and returned to England. A treaty was ſoon after ſet on foot between the Emperor and France, whereby it was agreed, that the French King's ſecond ſon the Duke of Orleans, ſhould marry either MARY of Auſtria the Emperor's eldeſt daughter, or the ſecond daughter of the King of the Romans; and that upon his marriage, he ſhould be inveſted either in the Milaneſe, or the Netherlands, with the counties of Burgundy, and Charolois, at the election of the Emperor: but the Duke of Orleans dying a few months afterwards, this part of the treaty was never executed.

The Engliſh and Imperialiſts invade France.

Bologne taken by the Engliſh.

1545.

The following year, 1545, was moſt remarkable for a terrible execution committed in France on account of religion; the zealous King FRANCIS had before burnt ſeveral of his ſubjects for adhering to the doctrines of the Reformed; but in purſuance of a decree made five years before, by the Preſident of Provence, he was ſtill guilty of greater cruelties, ordering a detachment of his army, to burn the city of Cabrieres down to the ground; together with the large town of Merindol, and ſeveral other towns and villages; to burn the maſter of every family at the ſtake, and plunder all their goods, leaving their wives and children to ſtarve. In which execution the ſoldiers committed the moſt unheard of barbarities, on pretence that the inhabitants were infected with what the Pope was pleaſed to call hereſy. So early were the French Princes remarkable for their inhuman perſecuting ſpirit.

Several towns deſtroyed with the inhabitants on account of religion.

The French King, after he had made peace with the Emperor, bent all his forces againſt England, being determined to recover Bologne and Calais from them, and drive them from the Continent. But as this was impracticable, till he could make himſelf maſter at ſea, he firſt fitted out a fleet of two or three hundred ſail, which ſtood over to the coaſt of England, where they met with the royal navy of that kingdom. The Commanders on both ſides were ſo prudent, that after firing upon one another at a diſtance for ſome time, they thought fit to part without coming to a cloſe engagement. The French afterwards plundered ſome villages in the Iſle of Wight; and the Engliſh returned their viſit, and ravaged Normandy. There were ſeveral ſkirmiſhes alſo between the armies at land in the neighbourhood of Calais and Bologne; but nothing deciſive happened either this or the following year: and the Council of Trent being aſſembled about this time, where the King of England was apprehenſive ſomething might be decreed againſt him to his prejudice, began to liſten to the offers of peace that were made him by France, and a treaty was ſet on foot accordingly; wherein it was agreed, that upon the French King's paying eight hundred thouſand crowns to the King of England, or ſo much as the war and the fortifications of Bologne had coſt him, within the ſpace of eight years, that city ſhould be reſigned up to France. And thus a peace was again eſtabliſhed between theſe two Princes a very little before their deaths, King HARRY dying in January following, and the French King on the laſt day of March, 1547, being ſucceeded by his ſon HENRY.

1546.

The Kings of England and France make peace, and die ſoon after.

1547.

HENRY II.

HENRY II, ſon of FRANCIS I, aſcended the throne on the thirty-firſt of March, 1547, being that day nine and twenty years of age. He diſcharged moſt of the officers of ſtate at his acceſſion, and brought the famous Conſtable MONTMORENCY, (who had been in diſgrace, and baniſhed from court in the late reign) and FRANCIS Duke of Aumale, afterwards Duke of Guiſe, into the adminiſtration.

He expected every day to have his dominions invaded by the Emperor CHARLES V, who was now grown very formidable, having entirely defeated the Proteſtant Princes of Germany that formed the Smalcaldick League at the battle of Mulberg, and taken two of their Chiefs priſoners, namely, FREDERICK Elector of Saxony, and PHILIP Landgrave of Heſſe, with whom the French were in confederacy. But the Emperor being engaged in ſettling his affairs in Germany, the King found himſelf at leiſure to defeat the deſigns of the Engliſh, who were about to marry their young King EDWARD the Sixth to the infant Queen of Scotland, MARY STUART, by forming a party among the Scots, and ſending over troops to their aſſiſtance, he procured the negotiation with England to be broke off, and the young Queen brought over to France, in order to be married to the Dauphin; whereby he again prevented a union between the two kingdoms.

The Emperor obtains a victory over the Proteſtant Princes.

The next thing he undertook was to diſcourage all innovations in religion: accordingly he revived his father's ſevere edicts againſt the reformers; for tho' he aſſiſted the Proteſtant Princes in Germany againſt the Emperor, it was not out of any opinion he had of their principles, but purely upon a political account.

1548.

In the year 1548, he viſited all his frontier towns, eſpecially on the ſide of Flanders and Germany, and put them in a poſture of defence. In the mean time an inſurrection happened in Guienne, on account of the exceſſive duties on ſalt; ſeveral of the King's officers were killed, and among the reſt the Governor of the caſtle of Bourdeaux: but ſome troops being ſent againſt them, they were ſoon reduced, and ſevere examples made of the ring-leaders of them.

1549. The Engliſh court being in great diſtraction, the King looked upon this as a favourable opportunity to attempt the recovery of the Bolognois; but he firſt tranſported a body of troops to Scotland, to join his party there, and make a diverſion, and then attacked the forts about Bologne, which he eaſily carried, the Engliſh having no army in the field. However, when he came before the town itſelf, he found it to be ſo ſtrong, that he contented himſelf with blocking it up. But the diſſenſions increaſing in the Engliſh court, which made it impracticable to ſend any relief to Bologne, the Engliſh Miniſtry entered into a treaty with the French, and agreed to deliver up the place on the payment of four hundred thouſand crowns of the value of a noble each; and a peace was concluded thereupon between the two nations, in which Scotland was included.

1550. Bologne yielded to France.

The following year hoſtilities were renewed in Italy between the French and Imperialiſts, on account of the duchies of Parma and Placentia, the right to which was conteſted by the Emperor with the family of Farneſe, who apprehending they ſhould be overpowered, called in the French to their aſſiſtance.

1551. The war being thus begun between France and the Empire, the German Princes, who were diſguſted by the Emperor's haughty behaviour ſince his victory at Mulberg, and his eſtabliſhing the Catholick religion in ſeveral Proteſtant towns, propoſed to enter into an aliance again with the French King. Even Maurice, whom the Emperor had made Elector of Saxony, in the room of John-Frederick, that was taken priſoner at Mulberg, and Joachim Elector of Brandenburg, who had till now been in the Emperor's intereſt, were among the number. The King by this treaty engaged to maintain the liberties of Germany; to raiſe two great armies, and make himſelf maſter of the Imperial towns of Cambray, Metz, Toul, and Verdun; and to furniſh the German Princes with very great ſums towards the charges of the war. By the ſame treaty, Maurice, Elector of Saxony, was declared Head of the league of the German Princes, and General of the army to be formed of their troops, who publiſhed a manifeſto declaring the motives of their entring into this war, viz. The ſecurity of the Proteſtant religion, the defence of the liberties of Germany, and the deliverance of Philip Landgrave of Heſſe, his father-in-law.

An alliance between France and the Proteſtant Princes of Germany. 1552.

The French poſſeſs themſelves of Metz, Toul, and Verdun.

The French King was very ready to execute that part of the agreement which obliged him to attack Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and accordingly marched an army immediately into Lorrain, and made himſelf maſter of thoſe towns, and indeed of the whole country of Lorrain. In the mean time, the Elector of Saxony and the Marquis of Brandenburg, having aſſembled their troops, were very near ſurprizing the Emperor at Inſpruck; but he fled from thence with the utmoſt precipitation, when he heard of their approach, not being in a condition to oppoſe them. They advanced however, and plundered the town, together with the Emperor's baggage, and put the Council of Trent in ſuch a fright, that the Cardinals and Eccleſiaſticks, who compoſed it, thought fit to break up their ſeſſion, and were adjourned to another place.

The treaty of Paſſau.

The invaſion of the French, and the progreſs of the confederate Princes, had ſuch an effect alſo on the Emperor, that he conſented to a treaty with them at Paſſau; wherein it was ſtipulated, that he ſhould releaſe the Prince of Heſſe; aſſemble a Dyet of the Empire within ſix months, and redreſs their grievances: that in the mean time liberty of conſcience ſhould be allowed, and that thoſe of the Augſburg confeſſion ſhould ſit in the Imperial chamber, from whence they had been excluded.

The Emperor unſucceſsful in his wars with France.

The Emperor was now at leiſure to take his revenge of the French, and accordingly ordered his armies to ravage their country on all ſides, while, with the greateſt part of his forces, he inveſted Metz; but as he did not open the trenches before that place till November, and it proved a very ſevere winter, he loſt a fine army by the rigour of the ſeaſon, and was forced to raiſe the ſiege at laſt. He met with the like ill ſucceſs in Italy, and in every place where the war was carried on between him and France this year, which he looked upon as the moſt unfortunate of his life, and occaſioned his ſaying, That fortune was a friend to young people; meaning chiefly the French King, who was ſucceſsful againſt him every where.

1553. The following year, the Emperor took Terouen and Hedin in the Low-Countries, and razed them to the ground. On the other hand, the French fleet, in conjunction with that of the Turks, ravaged the coaſt of Calabria, and made a deſcent on the iſland of Corſica, maintaining themſelves in the ſouthern part of it for ſeveral years; and in other places, the war was carried on with various ſucceſs. In the mean time, Edward the Sixth King of England, being taken dangerouſly ill, the French King ſent an Embaſſy thither with a compliment: but the real deſign of it was to prevent the Princeſs Mary's aſcending the throne, becauſe the Emperor, had propoſed a marriage between her and his ſon Philip, which would probably bring England into an alliance againſt him. The French writers therefore ſuggeſt, that it was their King who influenced Edward the Sixth to exclude her, and ſettle the crown upon Jane Grey. But whatever ſhare that Prince might have in it, we are very well ſatisfied, that religion and private intereſt were the principal inducements to the Engliſh Miniſtry, for ſetting the Princeſs Mary aſide. And notwithſtanding this ſettlement, we find ſhe ſucceeded againſt her rival Jane Grey, and married King Philip afterwards, which brought England to be a party in the war againſt France.

1554. The battle of Renti.

An obſtinate battle was fought the next year between the Imperialiſts and the French near Renti, in the Netherlands, where both ſides claimed the victory; but it ſeems to have been a drawn battle. A more deciſive action happened near Marciano in Tuſcany, where the French were routed, and beaten out of ſeveral places they poſſeſſed in that duchy, by the Imperialiſts.

1555.

Charles V reſigns the Empire, &c. and retires into a monaſtery.

What rendered the ſucceeding year moſt remarkable was, Charles the Fifth's reſignation of the Empire and all his other dominions, and retiring to a cloyſter. He ſurrendred Spain, Naples, Milan, the Low-Countries, and Burgundy, to his ſon Philip at Bruſſels, and the Empire to his brother Ferdinand King of the Romans. After which he ſailed to Biſcay in Spain, from whence he went to the monaſtery of Juſt, where he lived two years, employing himſelf in works of piety and devotion. About the ſame time, a truce was concluded between the French and Imperialiſts, by which it was agreed, each party ſhould keep what they were in poſſeſſion of.

1556.

This truce was broken the year following on the Pope's account; he was a mortal enemy to the houſe of Auſtria, and under ſome pretence of ſome inſults he had received from the Viceroy of Naples, he invited the French to come into Italy to his aſſiſtance; giving them hopes, that both Milan and Naples would now become an eaſy conqueſt. The French immediately ſent two of their Generals with a good body of troops to Rome to defend his Holineſs, who were followed by the Duke of Guiſe, and an army of between twenty and thirty thouſand men the next ſpring. The French recovered ſome of the Pope's towns, that had been taken by the Spaniards, and offered the Duke of Alva the Spaniſh General battle; but he finding the country as fatal to the French, as it had been in former enterprizes, and that their army would ſoon be deſtroyed by ſickneſs, declined fighting till the French were reduced to ſuch a condition, as to think of nothing elſe but of making good their retreat over the Alps again.

The French ſend an army into Italy again.

1557.

The French defeated at St Quintin.

In the mean time, the French army in the Low-Countries was routed near St Quintin, which event alone would have obliged their countrymen to have abandoned Italy, if no other misfortune had happened to them. The Pope, upon the French General's deſerting him, was obliged to beg a peace of the Spaniards, which was granted him upon much better terms than he could have expected, conſidering the provocations he had given them. But to be a little more particular as to the war in the Low-Countries: The French tell us, that when they made that great detachment to Italy, they did not imagine the enemy would have been ſo numerous in Flanders; they were ſurprized at the Queen of England's declaring war againſt them at this time, preſuming, that as King PHILIP was neither beloved nor eſteemed by the Engliſh, they would have left him to end his quarrels with France by himſelf. But on the contrary, about the end of July, they ſaw the Spaniſh army commanded by EMANUEL PHILIBERT Duke of Savoy, amounting to upwards of fifty thouſand men, joined by twelve thouſand Engliſh, ſet down before St Quintin, which being a place of importance, they endeavoured to throw a ſupply of forces and proviſions into the town; and, contrary to their intentions, this brought on a general battle, in which they were totally routed, their General the Conſtable MONTMORENCY, and a great number of their Nobility taken priſoners. Upon this miſfortune, the Duke of Guiſe was immediately ſent for out of Italy, and declared Lieutenant-General of the kingdom. This gentleman, to raiſe the ſpirits of the people, and eſtabliſh his own reputation, took the field in the depth of winter, and diſguiſing his intention by ſeveral marches and countermarches, ſat down before Calais, which having but a ſmall garriſon, and very ill provided with neceſſaries, (the Engliſh not expecting a viſit ſo ſoon after the loſs the French had ſuſtained at St Quintin) the garriſon was obliged to capitulate in eight days, and had no better terms allowed them than of being tranſported to England, except the Governor and fifty more, who were to remain priſoners of war. Thus was this place loſt, which was once deemed impregnable, after the Engliſh had been in poſſeſſion of it two hundred years and upwards. It is impoſſible, ſay the French hiſtorians, to expreſs the joy which this glorious conqueſt cauſed throughout the kingdom, and the ſurprize all the courts of Europe were in to ſee it effected at a time when France was thought to be at it's laſt gaſp. The King looked upon it to be ſo conſiderable, that he ſoon after made a kind of triumphant entry into Calais; and as this place rendered the Engliſh maſters of both ſides the channel, the loſs of it was extremely regretted by that nation,

1558. Calais taken by the French.

While the French were engaged in the enterprize againſt Calais, Guiſnes, and Hammes, and the other little forts about it, the Scots their faithful allies, made an incurſion into England, in order to give a diverſion on that ſide; and the April following, MARY STUART Queen of Scotland was married to FRANCIS the Dauphin, which proved a conſiderable advantage to the houſe of Guiſe, ſhe being a niece of that Duke. It was about this time, that that fatal emulation began between the families of Montmorency and Guiſe, which occaſioned infinite diſtractions in the kingdom. The change of religion alſo contributed to theſe inteſtine diviſions: the Duke of Guiſe was eſteemed the head of the Papiſts, and the Conſtable and the Admiral COLIGNI the ſupport of the Proteſtants; but both the Conſtable and the Admiral having been made priſoners at the battle of St Quintin, the Guiſes had now the adminiſtration almoſt entirely in their hands. They took this opportunity of charging Monſieur DANDELOT the Admiral's brother, who was General of the infantry, with ſpeaking irreverently of the Maſs, and procured an order from the King to commit him to priſon. About this time, the French laid ſiege to Thionville in Luxemburg, and took it; while Marſhal de Tormes, Governor of Calais, with another part of the army, ſurprized Dunkirk; but he was attacked by Count EGMONT Governor of Flanders, in his retreat near the mouth of the river Aa, on the third of July, and routed, Marſhal de Tormes himſelf being made priſoner. The French aſcribe the loſs of this battle to a ſquadron of Engliſh ſhips, which lay at that time in the mouth of the river, and cannonaded the French while they were engaged with the Spaniards.

The factions of Guiſe and Montmorency.

This ill ſucceſs of the French induced them to think of peace, tho' their writers impute it to another motive; they relate, that the Duke of Guiſe and the Cardinal of Lorrain his brother, looking upon their intereſt at court to be ſo well eſtabliſhed as to need no ſupport, treated the King's miſtreſs, the Ducheſs of Valentinois, with great inſolence; whereupon ſhe prevailed upon his Majeſty to ſend orders to the Conſtable MONTMORENCY, who was then a priſoner in Flanders, to make propoſals of peace to the Spaniard, to the end that the Conſtable might return home, and aſſiſt her againſt the power of the Guiſes. She applied herſelf alſo to the Duke of Savoy, who was General of the armies of Spain, to influence that court to enter into a treaty, aſſuring him, that his dominions in Savoy and Piedmont ſhould be reſtored him if he could effect it. But I find there was little occaſion for all this artifice to bring about a peace, for King PHILIP having juſt buried his father the Emperor, and his wife the Queen of England, and being about to return to Spain, was very deſirous

A peace between France, Spain, and England, 1559.

ſirous to leave his dominions in the Low-Countries and Italy in peace; and the French court, as has been intimated, having the worſt in the war, could not be averſe to pacifick meaſures. But however the matter was brought about, Chateau-Cambreſis was agreed on for the place of treaty the following year, where Queen ELIZABETH of England was to have her plenipotentiaries, as well as France and Spain; notwithſtanding the French had encouraged MARY Queen of Scots, the wife of the Dauphin, to take upon her the title and arms of the Queen of England: to retaliate which affront, and to ſtrengthen her intereſt, Queen ELIZABETH entered into an alliance with the Proteſtant Lords in Scotland, and had thereby a greater influence on the affairs of that nation during her reign, than their own Queen. But to return to their treaty: It was at length agreed, that the French ſhould remain in poſſeſſion of Calais for eight years, at the end of which term, they ſhould either reſtore it, or pay five hundred thouſand crowns to England: that the places taken either by the French or Spaniards ſhould be reciprocally reſtored, only the French were to remain in poſſeſſion of Metz, Toul, and Verdun: the Duke of Savoy was to be put into the poſſeſſion of his country, except Turin, Pignerol, Quiers, Chivos, and Villeneuve, which the French King was to retain till ſome pretenſions he had to the dominions of Savoy, in the right of LOUISA of Savoy, mother of FRANCIS the Firſt, were examined: and in the mean time the King of Spain was to keep garriſons in Verceil and Aſti. This peace occaſioned ſome murmurings againſt the Conſtable, becauſe the French had taken a great many more towns during the war, than the Spaniards had taken from them; it was even computed, that the French hereby ſurrendred up no leſs than two hundred towns and fortreſſes: to which the Conſtable and his friends replied, that theſe two hundred fortreſſes were moſt of them little caſtles belonging to the Lords of towns and villages, which had been ſeized in order to protect the country againſt the enemy's parties during the war; and that Calais and the towns of Picardy which were reſtored to France, were an ample equivalent for them, eſpecially if it were conſidered that France was to remain in poſſeſſion of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, with their dependencies, which were a noble augmentation to the kingdom, and covered it on the ſide of Champagne, much the weakeſt frontier they had: that the kingdom alſo received an inconceiveable advantage by removing the Engliſh to the other ſide of the water, who had been a thorn in their ſides for ſeveral hundred years paſt. For whatever they had ſtipulated concerning the reſtoring of Calais at eight years end, it is evident they never intended it: nor were the Engliſh miniſtry ſo weak as to expect they ſhould; but the Queen had ſo many difficulties to ſtruggle with at her acceſſion, on account of religion, that they were in no condition to continue the war, and only got that clauſe inſerted to ſatiſfy the populace, who were as zealous at that time for the recovery of Calais, as we are at preſent for retaining Gibraltar and the iſland of Minorca.

The King of France killed at a tournament.

There were two marriages ſolemnized at the French court afterwards, which were intended to cement this peace, viz. one between the King of Spain and the Princeſs ELIZABETH, the French King's daughter: and the other between the Duke of Savoy and the Princeſs MARGARET, the King's ſiſter. Among other ſhews and diverſions on this occaſion the King ordered a tournament to laſt three days: the King was the firſt challenger, and with the Duke of Guiſe, the Duke of Nemours and the Prince of Ferrara, engaged all that came the firſt day with abundance of applauſe. He was equally ſucceſsful the ſecond, being the thirtieth of June, till about the cloſe of the evening, when they were about to give over, he propoſed to break another launce with the Earl of Montgomery, Captain of the Scots guards. The Queen, as if ſhe had ſome foreſight of the misfortune that was to happen to him, begged of him herſelf, and employed her friends to diſſuade him from tilting any more; but he could not be prevailed upon: he entered the liſts with the Earl, they ran with all their force againſt each other, broke their launces, and a ſplinter of the Earl's pierced the King's eye through the viſor of his helmet: the blood guſhed from the wound in ſuch quantities, that no body doubted it's being mortal, and in a few days his Majeſty's life was declared to be in danger. However, he ordered that the Duke of Savoy's wedding with his ſiſter ſhould be ſolemnized in his chamber the ninth of July, and died the next day, being eleven days after he received the wound, in the forty-firſt year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign, leaving four ſons behind him, namely, FRANCIS II, who immediately ſucceeded him, CHARLES, HENRY, and FRANCIS; and three daughters, viz. ELIZABETH, Queen of Spain; CLAUDE, Ducheſs of Lorrain; and MARGARET.

FRANCIS II, 1559.

Factions in the French court.

A confederacy againſt the court.

FRANCIS the Second was in the ſeventeenth year of his age at his father's death: a Prince, ſays my author, weak both in body and mind, and by no means qualified to bear the weight of the government in his own perſon. There were three factions therefore that endeavoured to get the adminiſtration of affairs into their hands, namely, the houſe of Guiſe, that of the Conſtable MONTMORENCY, and that of the Princes of the blood. But the Queen-mother CATHERINE DE MEDICIS adhering to the Guiſes, that party carried all before them. Whereupon the Conſtable was obliged to retire from court, and live privately: ANTHONY DE BOURBON King of Navarre, firſt Prince of the blood, and the Prince of Condé his brother, were likewiſe in a manner baniſhed: the Admiral COLIGNI, and DANDELOT, relations to the Conſtable, alſo were frowned upon. Theſe gentlemen therefore, and many other perſons of diſtinction, ſoon began to form a conſpiracy againſt the court: and obſerving that the Reformed Religion began to ſpread all over the kingdom, and that thoſe who profeſſed it had been cruelly perſecuted in the late reign, chiefly by the incitement of the Guiſes, and were on that account ſufficiently enraged againſt them, they propoſed to unite their intereſt with the Proteſtants, which would in all probability render their party very numerous and formidable, and they had all the reaſon in the world to believe they ſhould be ſupported by the Queen of England, and the Proteſtant Princes of Germany. The Prince of Condé, it was agreed, ſhould have the direction of the enterprize; but he was not to appear and avow it publickly till things were brought to a certain point. In purſuance of theſe reſolutions, ſoldiers were liſted, and parties formed in every town and province of the kingdom. It was agreed they ſhould all ſet out at a certain time, and march towards Blois, where the King was, in order to make themſelves maſters of the court. As ſoon as the ſoldiers of the ſeveral provinces were within reach of joining, a numerous company without arms was to go to Blois, to preſent a petition to the King for liberty of conſcience; and as they expected the petition would be rejected, the ſoldiers were to appear in arms before the town, and oblige the King to declare the Prince of Condé Lieutenant-General of the kingdom.

The malecontents defeated at Amboiſe.

The Guiſes having intelligence of the conſpiracy that was forming againſt them, carried the King to the caſtle of Amboiſe, and aſſembled a good body of troops to oppoſe the deſigns of the malecontents, who did not give over the enterprize, notwithſtanding they had all the reaſon in the world to believe they were diſcovered. They marched boldly towards Amboiſe, and were advanced pretty near it, when they fell into the ambuſcades the Duke of Guiſe had laid for them, and were moſt of them killed or taken priſoners; many of the latter were immediately hanged up on the ramparts of the caſtle, and others thrown into the Loire and drowned; after which a pardon was publiſhed for all that would lay down their arms. Neither the King of Navarre, the Prince of Condé, the Conſtable, or the Coligni's, appeared in this inſurrection; tho' the court was ſatisfied that ſome or all of them were at the bottom of it. However, it was thought adviſable not to ſearch too far into the matter; and the Prince of Condé, who was at this time in the caſtle with the King, was permitted to retire and go to his brother the King of Navarre.

Treaty between France and England in relation to Scotland.

As the Queen of Scotland was married to the French King, the court of France looked upon themſelves to be equally concerned in defending that kingdom againſt the Engliſh as their own, and therefore ſent over four thouſand men to ſupport the party that adherred to the Queen againſt the Engliſh; while the Queen of England on the other hand ſent reinforcements to the Proteſtant Lords there, who appeared to be the prevailing faction. This induced the French to enter into a treaty with Queen ELIZABETH in relation to Scotland, wherein it was agreed, that the Proteſtants ſhould have liberty of conſcience in that kingdom; that the Queen of France and Scotland ſhould not bear the arms of England; and that the French and Engliſh ſhould each of them recall their troops from thence.

In the mean time an aſſembly of Lords, Prelates, and Lawyers was called by the French court to adviſe upon the preſent ſtate of affairs, chiefly in relation to religion; but neither the King of Navarre, or the Prince of Condé, thought fit to appear in it, being apprehenſive the court might confine them.

COLIGNI's petition to the King in behalf of the Proteſtants

The Admiral COLIGNI here preſented a petition to the King in behalf of the Reformed, telling his Majeſty, that tho' it was not ſigned by any, there were fifty thouſand in the province of Normandy only who were ready to ſign it: and the King demanding the opinion of the aſſembly upon it, the Cardinal of Lorrain ſaid, that the petition was ſeditious, fooliſh, ſcandalous, heretical, and impudent; and if there were fifty thouſand factious people who would ſign it, he would anſwer for a million of ſubſtantial perſons in the kingdom who were ready to oppoſe their inſolence. There were other very warm ſpeeches made on the ſubject, and it was concluded at length to convene the States of the kingdom to deliberate on theſe matters.

The King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé ſeized by the court.

This council or aſſembly was no ſooner broke up, but the malecontents entered into another conſpiracy againſt the government, or rather againſt the faction of the Guiſes: Lyons and ſeveral other cities were to have been ſurprized; but their deſigns were diſcovered and defeated. In the mean time the States of the kingdom were ſummoned to meet at Orleans; where the King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé venturing to attend, were both ſeized by the King's order, and the Prince was tried and convicted of high-treaſon by a ſpecial commiſſion, though he inſiſted that as a Prince of the blood he could only be tried in parliament by his peers. He had infallibly been executed, and probably the King of Navarre would have undergone the ſame fate, if the King of France had not in this very inſtant been taken dangerouſly ill; and as it was, the Guiſes preſſed the Queen to haſten the execution: but her Majeſty having an eye upon the regency in the future reign, and apprehending the readieſt way to obtain it would be to make theſe two Princes her friends, ſhe cauſed the execution to be ſuſpended, and afterwards procured both of them their liberty, which was ſuch an infinite obligation, that they could not oppoſe her taking the regency upon her at the King's death, that happened on the fifth of December 1560, after a reign of a year and half, which may with more propriety be ſtiled the reign of the Queen-mother and the Guiſes.

CHARLES IX, 1560.

CHARLES the Ninth, brother to the deceaſed King, being ten years and ſix months old at his acceſſion, the Queen-mother, CATHERINE DE MEDICIS, had the addreſs to procure herſelf to be declared Regent again; ſhe gave both parties hopes of joining with them, and by that means ſecured both of them in her intereſt.

This reign began with opening the aſſembly of the States, which had been convened in the laſt. Here the regency was confirmed to the Queen; the King of Navarre was conſtituted Lieutenant-General of the kingdom; the Conſtable Generaliſſimo of the forces, and the office of Treaſurer or Super-intendant of the Finances was conferred on the Cardinal of Lorrain.

Debates on religion in the aſſembly of the States.

As the States were aſſembled on account of religion, their debates run chiefly on that ſubject. The ſpeaker of the third Eſtate inveighed vehemently againſt the irregularities and encroachments of the clergy: the ſpeaker of the Nobility propoſed the granting of churches to the Proteſtants; while the ſpeaker of the Eccleſiaſticks on the other hand declared againſt all innovations in religion, and moved that whoever ſhould petition for any indulgence to the hereticks, ſhould be deemed a heretick himſelf, and be puniſhed accordingly; for the Admiral COLIGNI, it ſeems, had preferred a petition to his Majeſty juſt before in favour of the Proteſtants. This aſſembly broke up at laſt without coming to any reſolution. The King granted a general pardon for all that was paſſed; and the buſineſs of religion was to be further treated of in the next meeting of the States, which was appointed to be held at Pontoiſe.

About this time the Conſtable forſook the Hugonot party, and was reconciled to the Guiſes by the management of the Marſhal of St Andre; and theſe three having a great ſtroke in the adminiſtration, obtained the name of the Triumvirate.

Another petition being preſented to the King in behalf of the Hugonots by the King of Navarre, the Prince of Condé, and the Coligni's, he referred it to the parliament of Paris, who was

A conference between the Papiſts and Proteſtants.

1561.

very ſevere upon that perſuaſion. They declared it to be their opinion, that the magiſtrates ought to put the laws in execution againſt hereticks: that the cognizance of religious matters ought to be referred to the eccleſiaſtical courts, who were their mortal enemies; and that it ſhould not be lawful to preach or adminiſter the ſacraments in any other manner than was obſerved in the court of Rome. Hereupon the Proteſtant Lords propoſed a conference between their Doctors and the Catholicks, which being granted by the Queen-mother, **BEZA**, and all the moſt celebrated fathers of the Reformation, came to the French court to aſſiſt at it. Theſe conferences were opened on the ninth of September 1561, at the abbey of Poiſſy, in the preſence of the King, Queen, the Princes, and a great number of Lords, and Prelates. The King having in a few words ſignified his deſire to ſee them united in the buſineſs of religion, the Chancellor made a ſpeech, which the Catholicks did not at all approve of; and he was anſwered by the Cardinal **DE TOURNON**. Then **BEZA** was permitted to ſpeak in behalf of the principles of the Reformed; and being a man of learning and eloquence, was heard with great patience, till he came near the concluſion of his harangue, where having repeated the profeſſion of his faith agreeable to the Apoſtles Creed, and explained ſome articles of it according to **CALVIN**'s doctrine, he took occaſion to ſay, That the body of **CHRIST** was as far removed from the bread and wine in the ſacrament, as heaven was from earth; it occaſioned a general murmur, and the Cardinal **DE TOURNON** roſe up and inveighed bitterly againſt the blaſphemy, as he called it, deſiring the King not to ſuffer himſelf to be impoſed upon by theſe new Doctors, but order them to depart the kingdom immediately, where their preſence ſerved only to corrupt the people. **BEZA** preſſed the King, on the other hand, to givehim leave to reply to the Cardinal, but could not obtain it: however, he was permitted afterwards to have ſome private conferences with the Catholick Doctors, in order to prevent his publiſhing his reply. The Calviniſts ſent accounts of theſe conferences to their brethren all over Europe, which were much to their advantage: but this, ſays the Jeſuit my author, was no more than was to be expected.

An edict in favour of the Proteſtants.

1562. Soon after theſe conferences, the Guiſes and the Pope's Legate applyed themſelves to the King of Navarre, in order to draw him off from the Proteſtant intereſt. They aſſure us, that the diſputes at Poiſſy had a conſiderable effect upon him; but are ſo ingenuous at the ſame time to acknowledge, that they tempted him to change ſides by the hopes they gave him of procuring his dominions that were poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, to be reſtored him. They repreſented alſo, that he was deſpiſed even by the Hugonots themſelves, while his younger brother the Prince of Condé was adored by that faction. And by theſe and other arguments of the like nature, they prevailed on him to declare for the Triumvirate, and conſequently for the Papiſts. This alteration very much alarmed the Queen, who apprehended that party would now become ſo powerful, that ſhe ſhould in a manner be governed by them; whereupon ſhe entered into a ſtricter union than ever with the Prince of Condé and the Colignies, and publiſhed an edict, whereby the Proteſtants were permitted to meet in the ſuburbs of towns, upon condition of reſtoring to the Catholicks the churches they were poſſeſſed of in the towns themſelves.

The war breaks out between the Proteſtants and Papiſts.

The Prince of Condé's ſucceſs.

This edict enraged the Popiſh party to the laſt degree; for abundance of Proteſtants, who till then had concealed their principles, declared themſelves, and went in crowds to hear their preachers: the monks and nuns alſo, weary of their condition, left their cloyſters, pretending they had a right to enjoy the benefit of this edict, as well as others: and ſeveral prieſts took wives, and were married at the Hugonot conventicles. Theſe apoſtacies, as the Papiſts termed them, they apprehended were occaſioned in a great meaſure by the countenance that was given them by the Prince of Condé at Paris, as well as by the edict. The Guiſes therefore, the King of Navarre, and their friends, agreed to raiſe forces, and drive the Prince from that city; but as the Duke of Guiſe was bringing up a party of men in purſuance of this reſolution, and had quartered them at Vaſſi in Champagne, while he was at maſs there, ſome of his retinue went and diſturbed an aſſembly of Proteſtants, who were met together in that town for religious worſhip, which occaſioned a quarrel, wherein three or fourſcore of the Proteſtants were killed, and the reſt diſperſed; the news of which maſſacre, as their friends called it, being brought to Paris, the Prince of Condé demanded ſatisfaction of the Queen; but the King of Navarre, the Conſtable, and the Duke of Guiſe, having aſſembled their troops, ſeized upon the King and Queen-mother, and brought them from Fontainbleau to Paris. The Queen, to her unſpeakable grief, finding herſelf in the power of the Triumvirate, and in a manner diveſted of the regency, ſent courier after courier to the Prince of Condé, (who was retired from Paris to muſter his forces) to come and reſcue the King and herſelf out of their hands; but tho' the Prince was not in a condition to effect this, he made himſelf maſter of Orleans, where he permitted his party to plunder the churches of their plate, to ſupport the war; after which he publiſhed a manifeſto, and diſperſed it in all parts of the kingdom, and among the Proteſtant Princes of Germany, wherein he enlarges on the maſſacre of Vaſſi, and proteſts they had recourſe to arms purely for their defence, and to deliver the King and Queen from the captivity in which they were detained; charging the Guiſes with being the authors of the war. The Lords and others who joined the Prince, ſwore obedience to him, as Lieutenant of the kingdom till the King came of age, and promiſed to ſtand by him in protecting the King, Queen, and kingdom, at the hazard of their lives and fortunes. In the compaſs of a few weeks, a multitude of cities and towns ſubmitted to his forces, of which the chief were Blois, Tours, Poictiers, Rochelle, Rouen, Diep, Havre de Grace, Bourges, Montauban, Montpelier, Nantz, Lyons, Grenoble, and Valence; and the Cevennes and Vivarez in general came over to them. The Guiſes on the other hand ſent detachments of their forces into all the provinces, to preſerve them in their intereſts; and with a body of their army, conſiſting of ſixteen or ſeventeen thouſand men, of which one half were Swiſs, marched to attack the Prince of Condé, who not being yet joined by the Germans his confederates, ſhut himſelf up in Orleans with a good garriſon, and put the reſt of his forces into the towns of the greateſt importance; whereupon Blois, and ſeveral other towns, were retaken by the Guiſes, and they determined to beſiege the Prince in Orleans. But the Queen of England about this time ſending forces into Normandy under the Earl of Warwick, to aſſiſt the Proteſtants on

Rouen taken by the Papiſts, where the King of Navarre is killed.

that ſide, and it being apprehended if the Engliſh once eſtabliſhed themſelves here it might be difficult to remove them, it was agreed in a council of war to lay ſiege to Rouen, which was defended by the Earl of Montgomery and two thouſand Engliſh, beſides the inhabitants who were formed into companies. The town however was taken and plundered, and Montgomery found means to retire to Havre de Grace. The King of Navarre was mortally wounded at this ſiege, and died ſoon after. The Prince of Condé receiving a re-inforcement of ſix or ſeven thouſand men from Germany about this time, left Orleans, and marched up to the gates of Paris, where he hoped there might be an inſurrection in his favour in the abſence of the Guiſes; he attacked the ſuburbs, but his friends in the town not being ſtrong enough, durſt not ſhew themſelves. He determined therefore to march into Normandy, and join the Engliſh troops, but he had not marched far before he found the Conſtable and the Guiſes poſted in his way, with eighteen or twenty thouſand men, in order to prevent this conjunction; which occaſioned a general battle near Dreux, in which the Marſhal of St Andre was killed, and the Conſtable, who was General of the Catholicks, taken priſoner on the one ſide, as the Prince of Condé, General of the Hugonots, was on the other; whereupon the Duke of Guiſe took upon him the command of the Popiſh army, as Admiral COLIGNI did the command of the Proteſtants. The engagement was very bloody, and both ſides claimed the victory, but neither had any great reaſon to boaſt: certain it is, the Admiral marched afterwards to Orleans, whither he carried the Conſtable priſoner, without any interruption from the Duke of Guiſe. The Duke however receiving re-inforcements from ſeveral parts of the kingdom, found himſelf ſtrong enough in a little time after to lay ſiege to Orleans; the taking of which city, he apprehended, would be a deciſive blow, and carry with it the entire deſtruction of Calviniſm; but while he lay before the place, and was upon the point of accompliſhing his deſign, he was aſſaſſinated, being ſhot with a piſtol by one POLTROT, a young gentleman of Angoumois, upon the eighteenth of February 1563-4, in the evening. His party were of opinion, that the aſſaſſin was employed by the Admiral. This death, ſays the Jeſuit, my author, was an irreparable loſs to religion and the ſtate. The murderer was ſeized, and ſome time after executed at Paris; but I don't perceive he charged the Admiral, or any of the Proteſtants, with putting him upon it.

The battle of Dreux.

The Duke of Guiſe killed at the ſiege of Orleans.

A peace between the Proteſtants and Papiſts.

Upon the death of the Duke of Guiſe, both parties ſeemed inclined to peace, and a treaty was ſet on foot, wherein it was agreed, that the Proteſtants ſhould be allowed to hold one congregation or meeting in every bailiwick, and one or two in each town they were maſters of, but that they ſhould not perform divine worſhip in churches; that the Proteſtant nobility and gentry, who had high juriſdiction in their demeſns, might perform divine ſervice in their houſes with their vaſſals, but that the Reformed ſhould hold no meetings, or aſſemblies in Paris, or the neighbourhood of that city. The Prince of Condé had ſeveral reaſons for accepting this peace, his principal enemy was dead, he was to obtain his liberty by it, and 'tis ſaid he had ſome hopes given him of marrying the Queen of Scotland: And the Queen, on the other hand, being now out of danger of the Triumvirate, whom the war had taken off, propoſed to have the whole adminiſtration in her hands upon a peace, without controul.

1563.

The Proteſtants aſſiſt in driving their friends the Engliſh out of Normandy.

This treaty was no ſooner concluded, but the Generals on both ſides, Proteſtants as well as Papiſts, agreed to unite their forces, and drive the Engliſh out of Normandy, for the Earl of Warwick ſtill remained maſter of Havre de Grace, which had been put into the hands of Queen ELIZABETH by the Proteſtants, as a cautionary town, upon her advancing them a ſum of money towards the charges of the war, and ſhe was to remain in poſſeſſion of it till the money was repaid, or Calais reſtored to England; but the Prince of Condé and his party having ſerved their turn, and by the Queen's aſſiſtance obtained liberty of conſcience, deſerted her intereſt, and were as forward as the Papiſts in recovering that place from her; which they found very little difficulty in effecting, the garriſon being very much diminiſhed by the plague; and upon the ſurrender of the town they carried over the infection to London, where upwards of twenty thouſand people died of the peſtilence.

The following year a peace was concluded between France and England, wherein no mention was made of Calais, only it was provided that the rights of the Queen of England ſhould not be affected thereby.

1564.

The year 1564 was great part of it taken up in a journey which the King and Queen-mother made through almoſt all the provinces of France. In North France, 'tis ſaid, the court obſerved that the popiſh party was much ſtronger than that of the Hugonots; but in Lyonois, Dauphiné, and Languedoc, the Proteſtants were much more numerous than the Catholicks. While the court were engaged in this progreſs, an edict paſſed which bore very hard upon the Proteſtants, and rendred ſeveral articles uſeleſs which had been ſtipulated in their favour at the laſt peace, of which the Prince of Condé complained. Another edict or ordinance paſſed about the ſame time, which fixed the commencement of the year in January, which before began at Eaſter, in France, and was a very great inconvenience, on account of the moveableneſs of that feaſt.

An alliance between the French and Spaniards, for the extirpation of the Proteſtants at Bayonne.

Upon the King's arrival at Bayonne, he was met there by the Queen of Spain and the Duke of Alva; and it was agreed between the two courts (at leaſt the Proteſtants of all countries apprehended it ſo) to form an alliance for the extirpation of the Reformed Churches in France and the Low-Countries; and what renders this extremely probable is, the introducing the Inquiſition into Flanders ſoon after, and the ſending troops thither to dragoon them into Popery; in the laſt of which they were imitated by the French. The following year the King procured a reconciliation, in appearance at leaſt, between the Duke of Guiſe and the Admiral COLIGNI; the latter declared upon oath, that he had no hand in the death of late Duke of Guiſe, his father; and the other declared himſelf content with this ſatisfaction. In Flanders there were nothing but tumults and inſurrections at this time, on account of religion, and the invaſion of their civil liberties by the King of Spain. The Duke of Alva marched thither from Italy with an army of veterans in the year 1566, where he beheaded the Counts EGMONT and HORN, who had been governors of the country, and done the King of Spain ſignal ſervice at the battle of St Quintin, and on other occaſions, but would not tamely part with their liberties;

1565.

1566.

liberties; the Prince of Orange was ſo wiſe as to retire into Germany, where he ſtrengthened his party conſiderably.

The civil war breaks out again in France.

1567.

The Prince of Condé in the mean time obſerving the Queen's partiality to the Popiſh party in France, and the proceedings of the Duke of Alva in Flanders, made no doubt but the extirpation of the Proteſtants had been agreed upon between them at Bayonne, of which he ſent advice into Germany and England, and entered into an alliance with the Prince of Orange and the Calviniſts of the Low-Countries, who were called Guex, or Beggars, on their preſenting a petition to the court for the preſervation of their religion and liberties, becauſe ſome of the crowd appeared in a tattered condition, tho' it is certain moſt of the nobility and gentry of Flanders were in the intereſt of the Proteſtants, and nothing but a foreign force could ever have eſtabliſhed Popery there. But to proceed: When the Prince of Condé ſaw the French court, tho' they were at peace with all the world, take a great body of Swiſs into their ſervice, he no longer made any doubt of their intention. In order to their defence therefore, the Prince and the Admiral aſſembled their friends, and advanced towards Monceaux, a pleaſure-houſe in Brie, where the King then was, with a deſign, as their enemies gave out, to ſeize on the perſon of the King; but however that matter was, the Swiſs were ſo much ſtronger than the Prince's party, that he did not think fit to attack them. The King was afterwards eſcorted by the Swiſs to Paris, when ſeveral of the Hugonot parties appeared, and endeavoured to give ſome interruption to his march, but they did not come to an engagement.

A battle near Paris.

1568. A peace concluded.

The Prince being afterwards conſiderably reinforced, poſſeſſed himſelf of Montereau, Lagni, and St Denis, and blocked up the city of Paris, not ſo cloſely however but the King's troops every day entered the town, and became at length ſuperior to thoſe of the Prince, whereupon it was reſolved to give him battle. The Conſtable accordingly marched out with fourteen or fifteen thouſand men, and attacked the Prince, who had poſted himſelf ſo advantageouſly, that tho' his army did not conſiſt of more than four or five thouſand men (having detached great part of it to meet a convoy of proviſions) he maintained his ground, and the Conſtable was mortally wounded in the engagement. During the blockade of Paris, the Proteſtants had made themſelves maſters of Orleans again; and about the ſame time the Elector Palatine, and the reſt of the Proteſtant Princes of Germany, ſent a body of eleven or twelve thouſand men to the aſſiſtance of the Prince of Condé, who thereupon raiſed the blockade of Paris, and went to the confines of Lorrain to meet them. The King alſo received large reinforcements from Germany and Switzerland, ſo that the country was ravaged and plundered by foreigners as well as natives from one end to the other. Nor was this the worſt: the court were apprehenſive that the introducing ſo many foreign troops into the kingdom might in a little time endanger the State; and therefore it was reſolved to conclude a peace with the Prince on any terms almoſt, in order to rid the nation of them. A treaty was accordingly ſet on foot, whereby it was agreed, that the edict of pacification, concluded in the year 1562, ſhould be confirmed, and that the King ſhould pay the German troops that came to the aſſiſtance of the Proteſtants.

An attempt to ſeize the Prince of Condé and the Admiral at Noyers.

The war commences again.

This peace was not of long duration; for the court of France, which was at this time governed by the Queen-mother, the treacherous CATHERINE DE MEDICIS, made it with no other view than of deſtroying the Prince of Condé and the Admiral, the heads of the Proteſtant party, who were indeed ſo jealous of her, that they did not think fit to reſide at court, but retired to their reſpective eſtates, among their friends and vaſſals. The King thereupon ordered his troops to be diſpoſed in ſuch a manner that they might by degrees ſurround theſe noblemen, and make them priſoners; and the Admiral going to pay the Prince of Condé a viſit at Noyers, a large detachment of the army was ſent to ſeize them; of which theſe gentlemen having ſome intelligence, they ordered two hundred horſe to be got ready, and without communicating the reaſon of it to any of their domeſticks, they marched at the head of them on the twenty-fifth of Auguſt in the night-time, and having forded the Loir, took the road to Rochelle. This vile attempt of the court to ſurprize the Prince, when they had juſt made peace with him, alarmed the Proteſtants, and put them upon aſſembling their troops in all the provinces for their defence. The Queen of Navarre alſo came to Rochelle with a ſtrong body of troops, ſo that the Prince of Condé ſoon found himſelf at the head of a numerous army again. The Queen of England furniſhed him with conſiderable ſums of money and warlike ſtores, which were the things he moſt wanted; and the Germans promiſed him a re-inforcement of troops the following ſpring. The winter was taken up with little ſkirmiſhes, beating up each others quarters, or ſurprizing places of no great conſequence.

1569.

The Proteſtants defeated at Jarnac, and the Prince of Condé killed.

The Duke of Anjou, the King's brother, (who had had the command of the royal army, ever ſince the death of the late Conſtable MONTMORENCY, killed in the laſt battle near Paris) took the field early in the ſpring, in order to fight the Prince before he ſhould be joined by his German allies. And tho' the Proteſtants avoided coming to a general engagement all they could, the Duke fell upon them near Jarnac, and defeated them, the Prince of Condé their General being killed upon the ſpot; not accidentally, but by deſign, in purſuance of the orders of the court to their Generals, to give him no quarter if ever he ſhould be in their power. The Prince it ſeems, charging very briſkly at the head of his troops, was diſmounted, and being unable to diſengage himſelf from the enemy that ſurrounded him, ſurrendered: the Baron DE MONTESQUIOU coming up in that very inſtant, demanded who he was, and being told he was the Prince of Condé who was wounded and taken, Kill him, kill him, he cried with an oath, and immediately ſhot him through the head. The Admiral, notwithſtanding this miſfortune, made a good retreat, and put the greateſt part of the infantry which had not ſuffered much, into the fortified towns; and having ſtill with him about four thouſand horſe, marched to Tonna Charente, where he met the Queen of Navarre with her ſon HENRY Prince of Bearn, about ſixteen years of age, and Prince HENRY, ſon of the late Prince of Condé, who was about ſeventeen. Here it was agreed that the Prince of Bearn ſhould be declared head of the Proteſtant party; accordingly they all took an oath to ſtand by him with their lives and fortunes till they could obtain an honourable peace. In the mean time the Duke of Deux-Ponts entered Franche Compte at the head of twelve thouſand Germans; and notwithſtanding all the oppoſition

Admiral COLIGNI proſcribed.

He is defeated at Moncontour.

of the King's forces that harraſſed his army from time to time, he continued his march quite through France, croſſed the Loire, and was upon the point of joining the Admiral, when the Duke was taken dangerouſly ill, and died before he ſaw him; whereupon Count MANSFIELD took upon him the command of the Germans, and joined the Admiral on the twenty-third of June. The royal army was alſo reinforced by great numbers of Italians, Germans, and Swiſs, which ſtill rendered them ſuperior to the Proteſtants, but not ſo much however as to hope for a ſpeedy end of the war. The Queen-mother therefore propoſed in the cabinet council, into which the young Duke of Guiſe had been lately admitted, to proſcribe the Admiral, and ſet a price upon his head, believing if they could once procure him to be taken off, the Proteſtant intereſt muſt ſink. Whereupon the Parliament of Paris, at the inſtance of the Attorney-general, condemned the Admiral to death as a traytor and a felon, offering fifty thouſand crowns to any perſon that ſhould take or kill him; which had ſuch an influence on one of his valets, that he attempted to poiſon his maſter, and was hanged for it. This ſtratagem not ſucceeding, the Duke of Anjou aſſembled all his forces, and gave battle to the Admiral near Moncontour, and defeated him. The Admiral hereupon determined to abandon all the towns in Poitou, and to keep poſſeſſion only of St John d'Angeli, Rochelle, Angouleme, and la Charité beyond the Loire, which were in a condition to ſuſtain a ſiege; to retire to the mountains of Auvergne, Viverais, Languedoc, and Gaſcogne, and to endeavour to join the Earl of Montgomery, who had ſtill a good body of forces in Navarre; and he did not neglect to ſend couriers to England, Germany, and Switzerland, to acquaint them with his circumſtances, and deſire re-inforcements.

1570.

A peace concluded at St Germans.

The Admiral having joined the Earl of Montgomery, undertook to march quite croſs France, to meet the Germans who were coming to his aſſiſtance: but before he had effected it, terms of peace were again offered him by the court with a treacherous view indeed, which he had ſufficient reaſon to ſuſpect; but his circumſtances were ſuch (great part of the forces which were deſigned to join him from Germany being carried into the Low-Countries by the Prince of Orange) that he thought it expedient once more to enter into a treaty with the King; wherein, beſides the conceſſions made the Proteſtants by former pacifications, the towns wherein they were permitted to hold their aſſemblies for divine worſhip were ſpecified; the cities of Rochelle, la Charité, Montauban, and Coignac, were granted them for cautionary towns; the Proteſtants were declared capable of publick employments and dignities, and the Prince of Orange was put into poſſeſſion of the principality of that name; which were ſuch advantageous conditions as the Proteſtants could ſcarce have expected if their affairs had been ever ſo proſperous. This was called the treaty of St Germans, from the place where it was held.

1571.

The King's marriage.

The following year, 1571, the King ſolemnized his marriage with ELIZABETH of Auſtria, daughter of the Emperor MAXIMILIAN: and in order to draw the heads of the Hugonot party to court, about the ſame time propoſed another marriage between HENRY Prince of Bearn, ſon to the Queen of Navarre, and his ſiſter the Princeſs MARGARET, which the Queen of Navarre joyfully accepted of, and ſet out with her ſon for Paris in order to ſee it ſolemnized. The King went as far as Blois to meet her, and at the firſt interview gave her all imaginable teſtimonies of his friendſhip and confidence in her; and was ſo delighted with the treacherous part he had acted, that he aſked the Queen-mother with joy, whether he had not played his part well; the Queen anſwering it ſignified nothing to begin unleſs he finiſhed it, he replyed with an oath, that he would have them all in the net.

1572.

The next point was to draw the Admiral into the ſnare; and while they were deliberating about it, he furniſhed them with a ſpecious pretence of inviting him to court himſelf. The King, in order to induce the Proteſtants to put the greater confidence in him, had declared that he would make war on the King of Spain, which court was known to be the great ſupport of the Houſe of Guiſe, the authors of moſt of the ſevere proceedings againſt the Proteſtants in this kingdom. The King proceeded ſo far as to ſuffer the Prince of Orange to raiſe troops in France to oppoſe the Spaniards in the Low-Countries, and did many other things that looked as if he had really deſigned a rupture with Spain. Whereupon the Admiral ſent Count NASSAU to his Majeſty, to offer his advice and aſſiſtance in that ſervice: the King let the Count know, that he looked upon the Admiral as the moſt experienced ſoldier in his kingdom, and the perſon who could beſt adviſe him in an affair of this conſequence; and if he ſhould declare war againſt Spain, he would intruſt him with the command of the army, having ſome ſuſpicion of the other Generals, meaning the Guiſes and their faction, on account of the correſpondence they held with that court: but that it was neceſſary the Admiral ſhould come to him, that they might conſider together what meaſures were proper to be taken in an enterprize of that importance. Count NASSAU returning to the Admiral, conjured him to lay hold on this favourable opportunity, which tended to raiſe him to the higheſt pitch of credit and power, and put him in a condition of being ſerviceable to his friends, both at home and in the Low-Countries. The Marſhals MONTMORENCY and COSSE, wrote to the Admiral alſo, to perſuade him to come to court. After he had taken ſome little time to deliberate upon the matter, he reſolved to ſet out for Paris. The King received him in all appearance with the greateſt reſpect and kindneſs, and ordered him fifty gentlemen of his own chooſing for his guard, defrayed his charges, and admitted him into his council. He gave the Earl of Rochefoucaut, la Noue, and the reſt of his friends the like reception, and ſeemed to diſcourſe as freely with theſe Lords, as with any about the court. To diſguiſe his intentions the more, SCHOMBERG was ſent to the Proteſtant Princes of Germany to make an alliance with them. The negociation with the Queen of England concerning her marriage with the Duke of Anjou alſo was revived, and a treaty concluded with that Princeſs, purporting, that if the King of Spain ſhould ſeize or detain the ſhips of either nation in his ports, which often happened, they ſhould reciprocally aſſiſt each to procure ſatisfaction. And the King of Spain took ſuch umbrage at theſe ſteps, that he actually recalled his ambaſſador from the court of France, all which confirmed the Admiral and the Proteſtants in the ſincerity of the King's intentions. But while they were making preparations at court for the marriage of the Prince of Bearn with the King's ſiſter, the Queen of Navarre, his mother, was taken ill and died in a few days, ſuppoſed to be poiſoned. It was given out however, that ſhe died of an ulcer in her ſide on her being opened, which made the Admiral take little notice of it, any more than the Prince of Bearn her ſon, who upon her death took upon him the title of King of Navarre. But two or three days after, as the Admiral was returning home, and reading a petition that had been preſented him, a muſket was fired at him from a window, and one of the bullets ſtruck off the ſecond finger of his right hand, and the other wounded him in the left arm: upon this he ſtood ſtill, and obſerving from whence the ſhot came, This, ſays he, is the fruit of my reconciliation with the Duke of Guiſe. MANREVEL, the aſſaſſin, had a horſe ready, and fled out of the port St Antoine. The King ſoon after came to viſit the Admiral, and ſwore he would puniſh the author of this villainous attempt; and expreſſed ſo much concern on the occaſion, that the Admiral was perſuaded of his ſincerity, and would not remove into a place of ſecurity as his friends adviſed him. The reſt of the Proteſtants however were ſufficiently alarmed at the accident, and began to conſult how they might defend themſelves in caſe they were attacked; which the Queen-mother having notice of, went to the King, and told him it was now no longer time to deliberate, that his crown and life and the ſafety of the whole royal family was at ſtake, that the Hugonots were preparing to revenge themſelves on the Duke of Guiſe, and that Paris would be made a ſcene of blood and confuſion, and it was better to prevent his enemies than fall a ſacrifice to them. Thus far the Jeſuit my author, who forgets that he himſelf has told us more than once, that this ſcheme for deſtroying the Hugonots was laid long before, tho' now he would have it appear, that his Majeſty and the court only conſulted their own ſecurity; ſo barbarous did the enſuing tragedy appear, even to the Roman Catholicks themſelves, that they ſeem to acknowledge, nothing but a view to their own preſervation could juſtify the authors of it. But to proceed; a cabinet council being held upon the occaſion, it was reſolved that the Admiral and all the Hugonots throughout the kingdom ſhould be put to death, except the young King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé: and that it might be done effectually, the Duke of Guiſe, their mortal enemy, was truſted with the execution of it. The Duke, ſays the Jeſuit my author, never received a commiſſion that was more agreeable to him: he immediately ordered the Provoſt of Paris to give directions to the captains of the ſeveral wards to raiſe the citizens, and that upon the ringing the alarm-bell in the palace on the eve of St BARTHOLOMEW, they ſhould ſet up lights in their windows, break into the houſes of the Proteſtants, and murder them without mercy: all which they executed with ſuch expedition and ſecrecy, ſays the ſame writer, as nothing but the extreme hatred of the Catholick Pariſians to the Hugonots could have made them obſerve. About midnight the Duke of Guiſe, with the Duke of Aumale, the Grand Prior of France, ſeveral officers, and three hundred ſoldiers, broke open the Admiral's gates, and ſending ſome of their number directly into his apartment, they ſtabbed him in abundance of places, many of them after he was dead, and then threw his body out of the window, and afterwards cut the throats of all them that were in houſe. The like executions were made in the palace of the Louvre, whilſt the citizens and ſoldiers diſperſed themſelves through the city, and maſſacred all the Proteſtants they found in private houſes. Meſſengers alſo were diſpatched to all the great towns and provinces in the kingdom to invite the Catholicks to take up arms and fall upon the Proteſtants, which they did not fail to do in every place where they were not overpowered; but Meaux, Orleans, Troyes, Bourges, Angers, Thoulouſe, Rouen, and Lyons, ſignalized their barbarity in executing this cruel and treacherous order beyond any other places. When the fury of this maſſacre was a little over, the King ſent for the young King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé into his cloſet, and told them in a haughty tone, that he was now revenged of his enemies, who, under the umbrage of their names as Princes of the blood, had made war upon him, and would have deprived him both of his life and crown. That he required them both to return to the religion of their anceſtors, or it would not be in his power to protect them from the fury of the people The King of Navarre anſwered, he was ready to obey his Majeſty in all things; but the Prince of Condé ſaid, nothing ſhould induce him to act contrary to his conſcience: however, upon the King's threatening him that he ſhould not be alive three days if he remained obſtinate, that young Prince thought fit to follow the example of the King of Navarre.

Queen of Navarre dies.

The Admiral wounded by an aſſaſſin.

The maſſacre at Paris.

The King went to the parliament ſoon after, and acquainted them with the reaſons of this horrid execution; whereupon CHRISTOPHER DE THOU firſt preſident highly commended his prudence and conduct in this affair. The Advocate-general prayed that the Admiral and his accomplices, who were dead, might be proceeded againſt according to the forms of law; which being done, the Admiral was hanged in effigy on a common gibbet, to which the mob had ſome days before faſtened his body, and from whence it had been taken away by his friends. The court, during the conſternation this maſſacre had put the Proteſtants in, endeavoured to recover the towns that had been granted them, but Montauban and Rochelle both held out againſt their forces, whereupon the latter was beſieged in form by a numerous army, commanded by the Duke of Anjou, but the town being well ſupplyed with proviſions, and having abundance of gentlemen in it who had fled thither upon the late maſſacre, baffled all their attempts; but the Duke of Anjou being about the ſame time elected King of Poland, was glad of this pretence to raiſe the ſiege, after he had loſt twenty-four thouſand men before it. Soon after a treaty was ſet on foot with the Rochellers, the principal articles whereof were, that the Proteſtants ſhould be permitted to keep garriſons in Rochelle, Montauban, and Niſmes, but ſhould not aſſemble for divine ſervice in other towns of the kingdom.

The parliament approve the maſſacre, and attaint the Admiral and his adherents.

Rochelle beſieged, 1573.

Duke of Anjou choſen King of Poland.

A treaty with the Proteſtants of Rochelle.

The Proteſtants of the Cevennes and other parts, were not at all ſatisfied with the treaty of pacification the Rochellers had made, but petitioned the King for the publick exerciſe of their religion in purſuance of former edicts, in which they were encouraged by the Duke of Alençon, the King's brother, and the family of Montmorency, who were become malecontents, on the Guiſes engroſſing the adminiſtration of affairs to themſelves, and not on account of religion. The Court having intelligence that the Dukes of Alençon and Montmorency were upon the point of joining the Proteſtants, cauſed them both to be ſecured in

1574.

the caſtle of Vincennes, together with the King of Navarre, and proceeded to put to death ſome of the Duke of Alençon's accomplices; whereupon the ſeveral factions had recourſe to arms in many parts of the kingdom, between whom there were perpetual ſkirmiſhes, particularly in Languedoc, the Vivarez, and Normandy, and the Earl of Montgomery, who commanded the Proteſtants in Normandy, had the misfortune to be taken priſoner. In the mean time the King fell dangerouſly ill, and died on the thirteenth of May, at the caſtle of Vincennes, of which the Queen-mother ſent immediate notice to her ſon the King of Poland, adviſing him to return to France as ſoon as poſſible. The late King left only one daughter named MARY-ELIZABETH, who died about five years of age, and one ſon that he had by a concubine, who was afterwards Duke of Angouleme.

The King dies.

HENRY III. He leaves Poland privately.

HENRY the Third, at the death of his brother CHARLES the Ninth, was ſeated on the throne of Poland, where he was ſo acceptable to the people, that he deſpaired of their permiſſion to reſign that crown, and therefore ſtole away from them in the night, as if he had fled from an enemy; and thought himſelf very happy when he arrived in the Emperor's territories and had got out of their reach, as he did the next day. He paſſed through Vienna, and from thence went to Venice and ſo to Savoy, where that Duke ſo ingratiated himſelf with him, that he reſtored him Pignerol, Savillon, and Perouſe, which the French had kept poſſeſſion of to this time: he was guarded by a great body of the Duke of Savoy's troops from Turin to Lyons, becauſe the Hugonots were pretty ſtrong in Dauphiné, and had poſſeſſed themſelves of ſeveral paſſes in his way.

The Queen-mother, who had governed the kingdom during his abſence, met him at Lyons, and expreſſed the greateſt tenderneſs and affection for him imaginable, this being her favourite ſon. On the other hand he aſſured her he would continue to be governed by her counſels, notwithſtanding his advancement to the throne; which gave her a moſt ſenſible pleaſure, for no Princeſs was ever ſo fond of power as CATHERINE DE MEDICIS (ſhe had actually governed the State moſt part of the two preceding reigns, as ſhe did great part of this). Here ſhe preſented his brothers, the Duke of Alençon and the King of Navarre, to him, whom ſhe had kept in a manner priſoners till his arrival, apprehending that the diſaffected part of the kingdom would gladly have ſet the preſent King aſide, and have advanced one of theſe Princes to the throne before his arrival: the Hugonots ſhe knew were ſufficiently prejudiced againſt his Majeſty, on account of the ſhare they apprehended he had in the late maſſacre; but I look upon the Queen-mother herſelf to be the real author of that butchery, and that her two ſons were only her inſtruments in the execution of it.

The King reſolves to deſtroy the Proteſtants.

The King having conſulted with the Emperor MAXIMILIAN, the Venetians, and other Italian powers in his way home, 'tis ſaid, was generally adviſed to lenity and pacifick meaſures in the beginning of his reign, but whether he was moved by his own prejudices, or the Queen-mother's counſels, the bloody CATHERINE DE MEDICIS, he was ſcarce arrived at Paris before he took a reſolution of deſtroying the Proteſtants; to effect which, he found himſelf under a neceſſity of uniting with the Guiſes, whom he hated in his heart, almoſt as much as he did the Reformed. Whereupon the politicians, as they were called, whoſe diſaffection to the court proceeded rather from their averſion to the Guiſes, than upon account of religion, joined with the Hugonots, and their united forces became very formidable; of theſe the Marſhal DOMVILLE, brother to the Duke of Montmorency, was the chief, who being governor of Languedoc, called an aſſembly of the States of that province, declared himſelf head of an aſſociation for re-eſtabliſhing peace in the kingdom, and exhorted all good Frenchmen to join with him, in order to the obtaining a meeting of the Eſtates of the realm, for redreſſing their grievances. And now the war was actually commenced in all the provinces between the royaliſts and the faction of the Guiſes on the one ſide, and the Proteſtants and the politicians or malecontents on the other. Not a day paſſed without ſkirmiſhes, or the taking or retaking of towns; the kingdom was a ſcene of blood and confuſion. About this time died the Cardinal of Lorrain, uncle to the Dukes of Guiſe and Maine, an implacable enemy of the Proteſtants, and upon that account in great eſteem with the Catholicks, whoſe death was much lamented by them.

The civil war breaks out again.

A character of this King.

The King, before he aſcended the throne, 'tis obſerved, was a great admirer of MACHIAVEL's politicks, eſpecially that part of them where he recommends a conſtant and profound diſſimulation, and the bringing about deſigns by ways in appearance the moſt remote from them: accordingly to deceive and amuſe the heads of the ſeveral parties, he affected to appear negligent in affairs of ſtate, and to employ himſelf only in his devotions or pleaſures; but he mixed his penances and debauches ſo very oddly, that he became even in the beginning of his reign the contempt of his ſubjects and of all Europe. At Avignon he went in proceſſion with the penitents, cloathed in ſack-cloth, followed in the ſame manner by the court Lords, who were the greateſt libertines upon earth; at other times he ſhut himſelf up in his apartment with theſe lewd young fellows, who made their court to him by giving an account of their amours, and betraying the ſecrets of the ladies they had been familiar with; while he on the other hand laviſhed away his credit and treaſure upon them. This occaſioned infinite jealouſies, quarrels, and aſſaſſinations, about the court. The women, to be revenged on him for expoſing them, revealed his ſecrets in their turn, magnified his irregularities and unveiled his hypocriſy, which rendered him extremely odious to all mankind. But notwithſtanding the King was ſo much taken up with his favourites and miſtreſſes, he was married about this time to LOUISA DE VAUDEMONT, of the houſe of Lorrain, a Guiſe, whom he had ſeen in his paſſage through Lorrain to Poland, when he was much ſmitten with her beauty.

1575.

The Duke of Alençon leaves the court.

The following year a conſpiracy was diſcovered againſt his Majeſty, in which the Duke of Alençon the King's brother was concerned; but upon making his ſubmiſſion the Duke obtained his pardon: however, not thinking himſelf ſafe at court, he retired from thence, and aſſociated himſelf with the malecontents, and the Count Palatine and other Proteſtant Princes of Germany raiſed forces in order to join him: their vanguard indeed was defeated by the Duke of Guiſe, who gained a great deal of honour by it. But the Queen-mother finding the King to be in no condition to reſiſt the united forces of the malecontents and the foreign troops,

1576. A treaty between the King and the malecontents.

troops, adviſed him to clap up a peace, which ſhe negotiated in perſon with the Duke of Alençon; the conditions whereof were, that his Majeſty ſhould pay the German auxiliaries; that the Proteſtants and Malecontents ſhould be allowed eight towns for their ſecurity more than they had already; that the King ſhould diſmiſs all his troops the Swiſs and Scots guards, and that the Proteſtants ſhould have the free exerciſe of their religion in all places, except Paris and two leagues about it; that the courts of juſtice ſhould conſiſt of Proteſtant as well as Popiſh Judges; that the attainder of Admiral Coligni, and others of his party ſhould be reverſed; that Marſhal Domville ſhould have his offices, dignities, and governments, reſtored to him; that the government of Picardy ſhould be given to the Prince of Condé, and that the Duke of Alençon's appenage ſhould be augmented with the duchies of Anjou, Touraine, Berry, and Maine. Whereupon the Duke obtained the title of Duke of Anjou, and returned to court in a kind of triumph; where the King, diſſembling his reſentment, received him with a thouſand careſſes.

The King of Navarre eſcapes from court, and declares himſelf a Proteſtant.

What induced his Majeſty to make many of theſe conceſſions to the malecontents was, the eſcape of the King of Navarre from court during the negotiation: when this Prince found himſelf out of the King's reach, he declared, that the profeſſion he had made of the Romiſh religion after the maſſacre of St Bartholomew, was only the effect of fear and violence, and that he now profeſſed himſelf to be of the Reformed religion, in which he had been educated. Upon his coming into his government of Guienne, the malecontents reſorted to him in much greater numbers than they had done to the Duke of Alençon, looking upon him as a Prince that might be much more depended on, than that Duke; and this circumſtance, as has been obſerved, was one principal motive of haſtening the treaty above-mentioned, and procuring thoſe advantageous conditions for the Proteſtants and other malecontents.

The Holy-League formed by the Papiſts.

This edict of pacification, it was ſuppoſed, would have produced great quiet in the nation; but, on the contrary, it was no ſooner publiſhed than the Papiſts entered into a confederacy or aſſociation for the preſervation of their religion, and extirpation of hereſy; which alliance obtained the name of the Loly-League, and afterwards ſimply the League. Some leading man in every province aſſembled the Popiſh party, and ſaw them ſign an aſſociation, and take an oath for the maintenance of it; the King and Queen-mother encouraging or at leaſt conniving at it; for by this means they hoped to ſee the Hugonots deſtroyed more effectually, and with leſs hazard than by an open war: and if we may judge by ſome occurrences in the former reign, the laſt pacification was probably conſented to with this view; his Majeſty did not then foreſee that the leaguers would become ſo powerful, as to trample on his authority, and render him no more than the ſhadow of a King, as it afterwards happened.

Encouraged by the court.

The placing garriſons alſo in the great towns where the Hugonots were moſt numerous, and the officers of the troops ſupporting and encouraging the leaguers in their inſults on that people, leaves little room to doubt that the court were at the bottom of thoſe outrages.

The Duke of Guiſe the Head of the League.

The Duke of Guiſe, though he did not yet appear, was the chief manager and contriver of all theſe aſſociations, and entered into alliances with foreign Princes for the ſupport of them; among whom he found none more ready to eſpouſe their intereſts than Philip II, the bigotted King of Spain.

Spain the great ſupport of it.

The inſurrections and revolts of the Reformed in the Netherlands, had ſufficiently prejudiced him againſt that ſect; and he was apprehenſive, if thoſe of the ſame perſuaſion in France, ſhould once be eſtabliſhed there, they would ſupport his diſaffected ſubjects in Flanders. Thus religion, inclination, and intereſt, all contributed to render the King of Spain a zealous and faſt friend to the leaguers. But to return to France: The King having ſummoned an aſſembly of the States at Blois, made all the intereſt he could to get the friends of the League returned, and declared himſelf to be the head of it, in order, as 'tis ſaid, to prevent the party chuſing the Duke of Guiſe for their leader, of whoſe ambition he had reaſon to be jealous; and ſtill to ingratiate himſelf the more with the Papiſts, he declared, that he would ſuffer no other than the Roman Catholick religion in the kingdom for the future.

The King and the States make an edict againſt any toleration of the Proteſtants.

When the States of Blois were met, he procured petitions to be preſented to him to the ſame effect: and it was accordingly carried in that aſſembly by a great majority, that the King ſhould be addreſſed to reunite all his ſubjects in the Catholick Apoſtolick Roman religion, by the beſt and moſt wholeſome methods: that the exerciſe of the pretended Reformed religion ſhould be prohibited both in publick and private, and that the Preachers, Deacons, and Overſeers of their congregations ſhould depart the kingdom within a limited time, notwithſtanding any former edicts to the contrary. Whereupon the deputies of the King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé, proteſted againſt the aſſembly as an unlawful convention, not having been called or choſen according to the laws of the kingdom; and indeed their adverſaries ſeem to admit, that there was a great deal of foul play in returning the deputies or repreſentatives.

The League confirmed.

This proteſt was very little regarded: on the contrary, the Holy-League was confirmed and ſigned by the King, the Duke of Anjou, and moſt of the Catholick Lords and Princes aſſembled.

War declared again the Proteſtants.

And the war was immediately declared and begun on all ſides againſt the Proteſtants; the Duke of Anjou commanding one of the armies againſt them, though in the late war he was engaged on the Proteſtant ſide.

1577. Peace concluded again with them.

But notwithſtanding the King had acted with all this ſhew of zeal againſt the Hugonots, either through want of money to maintain the war, or that he dreaded the foreign troops, which the Reformed had deſired of the Queen of England and the German Princes, or whatever elſe was the motive, he thought fit to conclude a peace with the King of Navarre and the malecontents the following year; the terms whereof differed but very little from the laſt. The Queen-mother afterwards made a journey to the court of the King of Navarre, to invite him to come to Paris; but that Prince had ſo narrowly eſcaped the laſt maſſacre, that ſhe could not with all her cunning prevail upon him to venture his life in her power again. The old Queen afterwards viſited other parts of France, and ſeems to have a much greater ſhare in the adminiſtration at this time than her ſon: he was content to let her take all the fatigue of government upon her, that he might indulge in pleaſure.

1579.

At her return to court in the year 1579, ſhe found he had been trifling away his time in her abſence with his miſtreſſes and favourites; and three of the latter having loſt their lives, two in a duel, and a third by aſſaſſination,

1580.

aſſaſſination, he was inconſolable; and the manner of expreſſing his grief for them, 'tis ſaid, was much beneath his royal dignity. The latter end of this year the leaguers obliged the King to come to a rupture with the Proteſtants again, and ſeveral towns were taken on both ſides; but by the mediation of the Duke of Anjou this breach was made up in a few months: for the Duke had two great deſigns carrying on at this time abroad, which were not conſiſtent with the depoſing the Proteſtant intereſt in France. The one was a treaty of marriage with the Queen of England; and the other the obtaining the ſovereignty of the Netherlands, which was offered to him by the Prince of Orange and the malecontents there. In both which views he was ſupported by the court of France.

1581. The Duke of Anjou offered the Sovereignty of the Netherlands.

The Low-Countries having withdrawn their allegiance from the King of Spain, and invited the Duke of Anjou to take the Government of thoſe provinces upon him, he marched with a gallant army to the relief of Cambray in the year 1581, which was then beſieged by the Spaniards, commanded by the Duke of Parma; and the ſiege being raiſed on his approach, the inhabitants received him with joyful acclamations, and here he began to take the government of the Low Countries upon him; but becauſe he looked upon this as the key of the country, he withdrew the Walloon garriſon, and placed one of French in the room of it, which rendered his new ſubjects a little jealous of him.

He makes his court to the Queen of England.

He afterwards embarked for England, where he was received by the Queen, as the French hiſtorians relate, with all the moſt tender marks of affection: and the matter proceeded ſo far, that on the twenty-ſecond of November, in the preſence of the French ambaſſador and ſeveral Engliſh Lords, ſhe put a ring upon the Duke of Anjou's finger, and told him, ſhe betrothed him that moment: ſhe ordered an inſtrument to be drawn up in Latin, containing the form that ſhould be obſerved in celebrating their marriage, namely, the terms the Duke of Anjou was to make uſe of in eſpouſing the Queen, and the words which were to be pronounced by her Majeſty in accepting the Duke of Anjou for her huſband. This inſtrument, they add, was ſigned by the Biſhop of Lincoln, and ſeveral Engliſh Lords, and the Ambaſſador gave advice of it to the King of France; inſomuch, that the affair was looked upon as concluded, both in France and England. But the Duke of Anjou going to viſit the Queen the next day, ſhe told him, ſhe had paſſed the night in great uneaſineſs, and that three ſuch nights would bring her to her grave: ſhe mentioned a great many ſcruples ſhe had, and HATTON, one of the privy-council, added many more. Some Engliſh Preachers had inveighed vehemently againſt the marriage, by a private order of the Queen, (as was ſuppoſed) and given her ſome pretence for this conduct; while the Catholick Doctors at Paris appeared no leſs zealous againſt the match, than the Proteſtants were in England, declaring, that this alliance of the preſumptive heir of the crown of France with an heretical Queen, was a certain prelude to the deſtruction of religion in that kingdom. The Queen however amuſed the Duke for three months with hopes of ſucceeding; and when ſhe permitted him to return to Flanders, it was upon condition he ſhould come over again within a month; and promiſed him, that ſhe would conſtantly preſevere in her reſolution of marrying him. Thus far the French account of that match.

There is no doubt but Queen ELIZABETH made the moſt of the treaties of marriage that were propoſed between her and the Dukes of Anjou, (for HENRY III, when he was Duke of Anjou, had made love to her as well as his brother;) ſhe ſeems to have kept them in ſuſpence upon political views. It was the hopes of ſucceeding in theſe treaties, that prevented the French and Spaniards joining in the extirpation of hereſy (as they called it) in purſuance of the agreement at Bayonne. The Queen of England here ſhewed herſelf ſuperior to CATHERINE DE MEDICIS, the Queen-mother of France, and her two ſons, who were all three of them bent upon the deſtruction of the Proteſtants, as well as the King of Spain and the Pope, and could not have been diverted from it by any other means, than the hopes they had of adding England to their Empire by this match. And when the Queen of England could no longer prevent the ruin of the Proteſtants by her treaties, we ſee her aſſiſting them with arms, in France, the Low-Countries, Germany, and Scotland. To her addreſs therefore in a great meaſure is to be aſcribed the eſtabliſhing of the Proteſtant religion in Europe.

The Reformed in France, the Low-Countries, and Scotland, had infallibly been cruſhed in their infancy, if they had not been ſupported by the Queen of England: and as to her amuſing the Dukes of Anjou, and keeping them long in ſuſpence to obtain ſo glorious an end; this rather advances than leſſens her character, in the opinion of all wiſe men. I don't find any thing criminal on her part in theſe tranſactions, as they are related by our own hiſtorians. It appears indeed, that there was once articles of marriage ſigned between the Queen and the laſt Duke of Anjou; but then they were to be void unleſs they were ratified by the French King, and that Prince refuſed to ratify them. 'Tis admitted alſo, that ſhe did once, in a merry mood, put a ring upon the Duke's finger, but uſed no ſuch words as the French recite, That ſhe betrothed him with it, or indeeed any other words, that were ſerious, on that occaſion. It is ridiculous, to think, that the Queen ſhould ſeriouſly uſe the words of eſpouſal, without the Duke's reciting his part of the contract, which it is not pretended he did; and conſequently ſince it was not reciprocal, by their own account, very little ſtreſs could be laid upon it. The Roman Catholicks no doubt, were ſufficiently exaſperated againſt her, and did all that was in their power to blaſt her memory; ſhe prevented their religion becoming univerſal, and 'tis natural to expect they ſhould frame ten thouſand falſhoods in relation to this tranſaction; but thoſe who are of opinion that the world was at all bettered by the Reformation, muſt for ever applaud her conduct.

1582. The Duke of Anjou declared Duke of Brabant and Earl of Flanders.

The Duke of Anjou returning to the Low-Countries, was met by the Prince of Orange and the States at Fluſhing, and being conducted to Antwerp, was there declared Duke of Brabant, and afterwards at Ghent, Earl of Flanders. In the mean time, the King of Spain ſet a price upon the Prince of Orange's head, promiſing a reward of twenty-five thouſand crowns to the Perſon (or his heirs) that ſhould deſtroy him; whereupon JOAUNAEL JAUREGNI, a Biſcayner, undertook to aſſaſſinate him, and having obtained leave to preſent a petition to the Prince, fired a pocket-piſtol cloſe to his head while he was reading it, and one of the balls went through both his cheeks, and the aſſaſſin was immediately cut to pieces; but the wound not being mortal, the Prince of Orange ſoon recovered. It was reported immediately among the mob, that the Duke of Anjou had been the author of this attempt, in order to take off the Prince, who, he thought, had too much authority among the Flemings; whereupon all the French were ſeized and diſarmed, and the Duke of Anjou himſelf was in danger of being pulled in pieces, if the Prince of Orange had not ſent a letter to aſſure the people, that neither the Duke, or any of the French were concerned in the attempt, but that the authors of it were diſcovered by papers found upon the aſſaſſin.

The Duke of Anjou attempting an unlimited power, is expelled the Low-Countries.

The Duke of Anjou, however, being joined by ſome re-inforcements from France ſoon after, was the author of another attempt, which quite ruined his intereſt among the Flemings. He was really piqued to ſee the Prince of Orange govern all in the Low-Countries, while he himſelf had ſcarce any authority amongſt them, to ſupport the glorious titles they had given him of Duke of Brabant and Earl of Flanders. He determined therefore in a council he held with his own officers, to make himſelf maſter of the principal towns, and garriſon them entirely with French forces; and on a day prefixed, viz. the thirteenth of January, they were at one and the ſame inſtant to have ſeized Antwerp, Bruges, Dunkirk, Dendermonde, Vilvorde, and other places, and expelled the Prince of Orange's troops. But at Antwerp, which he deſigned to have ſeized himſelf, and in moſt other towns, the French were overpowred by the Flemings, and great numbers of them killed. They were ſucceſsful only at Dunkirk, Dixmude, and Dendermonde, and theſe places they were forced 1583. to abandon ſoon after; whereupon the Duke of Anjou retired into France, and notwithſtanding the French King ſent Ambaſſadors to the States, and offered his mediation to reconcile theſe differences, the Flemings were ſo alarmed at the attempt to ſeize their towns, that they would not admit the French among them again. This diſſenſion between the French and Flemings was an advantage to the Duke of Parma the Spaniſh General, as if he had obtained a victory: he took Dunkirk, and many other places, and prevailed on the provinces of Flanders, Artois, and Hainault, to return to the obedience of their Sovereign the King of Spain; and the ill ſucceſs of the Duke of Anjou, together with his diſappointment in England, 'tis ſaid, had ſuch an effect upon him, that it broke his heart. But however that was, certain it is, the Duke died at Chateau Thierry, on the tenth of June 1583; upon whoſe death the King of Navarre, the next Prince of the blood, became preſumptive heir to the crown of France, to the no ſmall mortification of the Leaguers, this Prince being a Proteſtant.

1585. The Pope declares it lawful to take up arms againſt the King.

The Cardinal de Bourbon's declaration in behalf of the League.

1584. The Heads of the League therefore aſſembled on this occaſion, under pretence of preſerving the Catholick religion, and reſolved that in caſe of the King's death, the Cardinal de Bourbon, brother to the Prince of Condé, ſhould be acknowledged King of France; and that in the mean time all thoſe who had ſigned the League ſhould be ready to take up arms. They applied alſo to the Pope, the King of Spain, and other Catholick Princes, who promiſed them their aſſiſtance; the Pope particularly declared, that the Catholick Princes might take up arms for the defence of the Catholick religion in France: That a war againſt the Hugonots was juſt and lawful; and that it was not only allowable to make war upon them, but upon all thoſe who favoured and aſſiſted them, even tho' they bore the royal character (meaning the French King). The Duke of Guiſe alſo put the Cardinal of Bourbon upon publiſhing a declaration, wherein he and his aſſociates ſay, that, the King having no children, they were in danger of ſeeing an heretical and apoſtate Prince King of France, notwithſtanding the oath of their Kings at their coronation, obliged them above all things to maintain the Catholick Apoſtolick and Roman Religion. Then they proceed to villify and aſperſe the King and his adminiſtration in a moſt ſcandalous manner, inſinuating, that he was a debauchee and favourer of hereticks; and for theſe weighty reaſons, adds the Cardinal, We CHARLES of Bourbon, firſt Prince of the blood, aſſiſted by the Princes, Cardinals, Peers, Prelates, Governors of provinces, cities, and others the ſoundeſt and beſt part of the kingdom, do declare and have ſworn not to lay down our arms till our religion ſhall be ſecured, the taxes taken off, which have been introduced ſince the reign of CHARLES IX, &c. The names of the King of Spain and a great number of Catholick Princes, who had entered into this aſſociation, being placed at the head of the declaration. This made an impreſſion on the minds of the Catholicks of all conditions; many of whom left the court to repair to the Heads of the League, who proceeded immediately to action, and beſides the towns that their friends were already maſters of, they ſurprized Lyons, and ſeveral others.

The King makes peace with the Leaguers.

The Pope depoſes the King of Navarre, and abſolves his ſubjects from their allegiance.

The poor indolent King was ſo frighted at theſe proceedings, that he empowered the Queen-mother, who, at bottom, was a friend to the Leaguers, to make peace with them an any terms: and it was agreed between them, and there ſhould be but one religion in France; that the Hugonot preachers ſhould leave the kingdom within a month, and all other hereticks within ſix months; that they ſhould be incapable of any office or dignity, and that they ſhould be deprived of the cities that had been yielded to them; that the King and all the ſocieties and corporations in the kingdom ſhould confirm it by their oaths, and that the Cardinal of Bourbon, the Duke of Guiſe, and other heads of the League, ſhould have cities and guards aſſigned them for their ſecurity, which the King ſhould maintain, and alſo advance them a conſiderable ſum of money. And Pope SIXTUS V, tho' he is repreſented as no friend to the League, publiſhed a bull, whereby he excommunicated the King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé, and deprived them and their heirs of all their eſtates, particularly of their right of ſucceſſion to the crown of France, and abſolved their ſubjects and vaſſals from their oaths and allegiance.

The Proteſtants obtain a victory over the Leaguers.

The Leaguers at the ſame time compelled the King to enter into a war with the Proteſtants, to recover the towns they were poſſeſſed of; but the King of Navarre defended them ſo well, that the Leaguers gained few advantages of them this campaign; one reaſon might be, that the King was not very deſirous at this time of ſeeing the Hugonots exterminated, 1586. and therefore carried on the war but faintly. 1587. The year 1586 was as favourable to the Proteſtants. And the following year, 1587, the King of Navarre obtained a compleat victory over one of the armies of the Leaguers near Coutras; he is extremely blamed however, that he did not afterwards endeavour to meet the German

man auxiliaries; who, to the number of thirty thouſand and upwards, were marching to join him, but ſuffered them to be ſurrounded and diſperſed by the Leaguers, and rendred perfectly uſeleſs, without ever coming to a battle. About this time the Prince of Condé died, whoſe ambition and jealouſy of the King of Navarre, it is obſerved, prevented his doing his party the ſervice he was capable of.

The Leaguers drive the King from Paris.
1588.

Beſides the general League, there was a particular league or aſſociation entered into by the citizens of Paris, who were ten times more zealous for the deſtruction of the King and the Proteſtants, than the reſt of the Catholicks in the kingdom. The univerſity and preachers there maintained publickly, that Princes might not only be depoſed for hereſy, but for male-adminiſtration, with which they made no ſcruple to charge the King; and his Majeſty ſhewing ſome reſentment at theſe proceedings, they ſent for the Duke of Guiſe, and, by his aſſiſtance, fairly drove his Majeſty out of Paris, who thereupon retired the Rouen. The Queen-mother was again employed to negotiate a peace between the King and the Leaguers, which ſhe ſoon effected, by granting them whatever they demanded. After which the King went to reſide at Chartres, refuſing to return any more to Paris, where he had been ſo notoriouſly inſulted, and his authority trampled upon: tho' he gave them no other reaſon for his reſiding at Chartres, but that he ſhould be nearer Blois, where he had ordered the States of the Kingdom to meet the September following. The Queen-Mother, the Cardinal de Bourbon, and the Duke of Guiſe went to pay their compliments to him at Chartres; he received them with all the outward marks of eſteem imaginable, declared the Cardinal firſt Prince of the blood, and heir to the crown, and the Duke of Guiſe Lieutenant-General of the kingdom; after which he ſet out for Blois to meet the States, being followed thither by the Duke of Guiſe.

He ſtudies the deſtruction of the Leaguers.

The King, notwithſtanding the favours he had ſo lately heaped upon the heads of the League, hated them heartily, and having choſen a ſelect council at Blois, the firſt thing he determined (after opening the aſſembly of the States) was the death of the Duke of Guiſe. The moſt convenient time to diſpatch him was held to be as he came into the council-chamber, when he would have diſcharged his domeſticks of courſe. The King committed the execution of it to an officer and fifteen or twenty of his guards. On the morning he ſummoned the Duke to council he told them, that that day either the Duke of Guiſe or he muſt periſh, that his own ſafety and that of France was in their hands, that he ſhould owe his crown and his life to them if they ſucceeded, and that his gratitude ſhould be ſtinted by no bounds.

They all aſſured him, they would act anſwerably to the truſt he had honoured them with; whereupon he ſent for as many daggers as there were men, and on delivering them into their hands ſaid, That this was an execution of juſtice, which he committed to them upon the moſt criminal perſon in his kingdom, whom he had a right, both by the laws of God and man, to puniſh; and ſince it could not be done by the ordinary methods of juſtice, he authorized them to do it by virtue of his royal prerogative.

The Duke of Guiſe had ſome intimation, that there was a deſign upon his life, and was adviſed by his friends to retire; but he anſwered, he was too far advanced to go back, that the King and he were like two great armies facing one another, and that if one retreated, the other would have the victory. The very day before the execution, ſitting down at table, he found a note under his napkin, adviſing him to take care of himſelf for that there was ſome treacherous deſign formed againſt him; which when he had read, he took his pencil and wrote underneath, *They dare not*, and threw it under the table. At other times, he declared to his friends, that he laid no manner of ſtreſs on the profeſſions of kindneſs the King made him, he was ſenſible of his diſſimulation; but the King knew very well, that if any attempt was made upon his perſon, it would infallibly deſtroy himſelf.

The Duke of Guiſe murdered.

But to proceed: The Duke of Guiſe being come to court, and attending in the antichamber, one of the Secretaries of State came to acquaint him that the King wanted him in his cloſet, and in his way thither, being to paſs through a door where he was obliged to ſtoop, as he was lifting up the hanging to enter it, he received ſix ſtabs from the guards, who were ranged on each ſide under pretence of doing him honour, and had only time to ſay, *Lord have mercy upon me.* The King, having notice he was diſpatched, went out of his cloſet, and the Lords about the court being aſſembled, he told them, that he was now King, and would have his enemies learn by the example he had juſt made, that the ſame vengeance hung over their heads, if they durſt attempt to leſſen his authority. He afterwards went down to the Queen-mother's lodgings, who lay dangerouſly ill, and acquainted her with what had happened; in anſwer to which ſhe only demanded, if he had conſidered the conſequences of the Duke of Guiſe's death, and made proviſion for all events. He afterwards ordered the Cardinal de Guiſe to be diſpatched; which made the court of Rome ſet all their engines on work to deſtroy him. He afterwards endeavoured to ſeize the Duke of Maine, brother to the Duke of Guiſe; but this gentleman had the good fortune to eſcape to Paris, where he was adored by the Leaguers, as well on his brother's account as the zeal he had ſhewn for the cauſe. About this time died the Queen-mother, who had had a very great ſhare in the adminiſtration, in this and the two former reigns; tho' 'tis ſaid, that the King, for ſome time before, did not ſhew that regard to her advice as he uſed to do; which proceeded poſſibly from the diſcoveries he made of her promoting the deſigns of the Leaguers underhand.

The fury of the Leaguers againſt the King.

The death of the Duke of Guiſe was ſo far from terrifying the Pariſians, that their council of ſixteen, and their bigotted preachers, incited the mob to revenge themſelves on their Sovereign by all the ways imaginable: they defaced his ſtatues and pictures, publiſhed the moſt ſcandalous invectives againſt him, and propoſed it to the faculty of Theology as a caſe of conſcience, whether the people of France might not take up arms, raiſe money, and unite in the defence of the Catholick religion, againſt a Prince who had violated the publick faith at the aſſembly of the States, and whether this did not diſcharge them from their oaths of allegiance? which was reſolved in the affirmative. After this, they no more gave him the title of King, or mentioned him in their publick prayers, but as a perjured, excommunicated perſon, an heretick, and the moſt deteſtable of mankind. They ſwore upon a crucifix never to depart

1589.

Paris beſieged by the King.

The King aſſaſſinated.

depart from the League, but to purſue, with the utmoſt vengeance, all that had been concerned in the death of the Duke or Cardinal de Guiſe. They declared the Duke of Maine Lieutenant-General of the royal ſtate and crown of France, and veſted him with almoſt ſovereign authority. The King hereupon found himſelf under a neceſſity of uniting his forces with the King of Navarre and the Proteſtants, who received him with open arms. The two Kings, after having ſecured the Cardinal de Bourbon in the caſtle of Chinon, and made themſelves maſters of ſome towns in their way, marched and inveſted the city of Paris, into which the Duke of Maine had thrown himſelf (after ſome conqueſts he had made in Normandy) with a numerous garriſon. The King took up his quarters during the ſiege at St Cloud, and the King of Navarre at Meudon; and it was very likely that the city of Paris would have been obliged to ſurrender in a ſhort time for want of proviſions; but JAMES CLEMENT, a young dominican fryar, who had been worked up by the preachers of Paris to a belief that it was lawful, and even meritorious, to deprive a tyrant of his life, and eſpecially a favourer of hereticks, as they had repreſented his Majeſty to be, found means to be admitted to the King, by virtue of credential letters which he pretended he had brought from HARLAY the firſt preſident of the parliament of Paris. While his Majeſty was examining theſe credentials, having only two perſons with him in his cloſet, from whom he withdrew to a little diſtance on the monk's telling him that he had ſomething to ſay to him in private, the villain, at that inſtant, drew a knife out of his ſleeve, and having ſtabbed the King in the belly with it, left it there: his Majeſty took the knife out of the wound himſelf, and ſtruck the aſſaſſin in the eye with it, who was immediately knocked down and cut in pieces by the guards, who came running in on hearing the noiſe, and he was afterwards thrown out of the window.

He leaves the crown to the King of Navarre.

The ſurgeons were immediately ſent for, and found the wound four fingers below the navel, and about a finger's length, the gut, part of which came out at the orifice, not being hurt; but the pain, and a cold ſweat which ſucceeded, with the alteration of the King's pulſe, gave little hopes of his life. The King of Navarre therefore coming to wait on his Majeſty, he told him he left the crown of France to him as his lawful ſucceſſor, but aſſured him he never would enjoy it quietly unleſs he became a Catholick, which he exhorted him to be: after this he called for the Lords about the court, and commanded them to acknowledge the King of Navarre for their lawful Sovereign if he did not recover, which they all ſwore to do. His Majeſty's fever increaſing, he received the Viaticum, declaring he died in the faith of the Catholick Apoſtolick Roman Church, and afterwards expired on the ſecond of Auguſt about four in the morning; in whom ended the branch of Angouleme, which was a part of the houſe of Orleans, and all the race of Valois, who had ſwayed the ſcepter for two hundred and ſixty years, and now left it to HENRY King of Navarre, of the family of Bourbon, ſtiled HENRY the Fourth.

HENRY IV, 1589

HENRY of Bourbon derived his pedigree from ROBERT Count of Clermont, Lord of Bourbon, the fifth and youngeſt ſon of ST LEWIS. He was the head of the branch of Bourbon-Vendome, and neareſt in blood to the crown after the extinction of the houſe of Valois, by the death of HENRY III.

Some of the King's troops deſert him on account of his being a Proteſtant.

The late King was no ſooner dead, but the popiſh Lords about the court came to his Majeſty with the Duke of Longueville at their head, and preſſed him to profeſs the Roman Catholick religion: to whom the King anſwered, that he was not obſtinate in his preſent perſuaſion, but that ſo ſudden a change would induce all conſidering men to think that he had in reality no religion at all, and that they muſt give him time to conſider of a point of ſuch importance; with which anſwer many of the popiſh Lords were ſatisfied, and took the oaths of allegiance upon his Majeſty's promiſing to ſupport the Catholick religion: but there were others, of whom the Duke of Eſpernon was the chief, who retired with their troops in diſcontent into their reſpective provinces, and left the King's army ſo thin that he was ſoon obliged to raiſe the ſiege of Paris; and had not the body of Swiſs been kept in good humour by the addreſs of the Marſhal DE BIRON, he would have run a great riſk of falling into the hands of his enemies.

The Pariſians were ſo elated at the deſertion they obſerved among the King's troops, that they talked of nothing leſs than ſetting up another upon the throne. They looked upon JAMES CLEMENT as a martyr to their cauſe, comparing him to EHUD, and others whom God had raiſed up to deliver his people the Jews from the tyranny of their oppreſſors. The Duke of Maine made his advantages of the fury he ſaw the people in. He wrote to the towns and governments devoted to the League, exhorting them to improve the opportunities that providence had put into their hands for the advancement of religion, which he inſinuated was upon the point of being extirpated. He wrote alſo to the bigotted King of Spain, deſiring him to ſupport them with his forces, whereby he might prevent hereſy gaining a ſuperiority in France, as it had done in England and Germany.

The Leaguers defeated near Diep.

Queen ELIZABETH ſends a reinforcement to the French King.

The King in the mean time finding his army ſo much weakened by deſertion, put garriſons into the moſt conſiderable towns in his intereſt, and with a very ſmall body of horſe and foot, bent his march towards Diep in Normandy, to wait for a reinforcement that was promiſed him by the Queen of England. The army of the League being increaſed at this juncture to thirty thouſand men, the Duke of Maine followed his Majeſty into Normandy, and finding him intrenched about a league from Diep, attacked him very briſkly, but was repulſed with very great loſs. It is not to be conceived what a reputation this ſucceſs gave his Majeſty at the beginning of his reign: his friends magnified his courage and conduct to the laſt degree, and his enemies were ſufficiently terrified, when they had ſeen him with an army of ſeven of eight thouſand men defeat one of four times that number. Soon after this battle the King being joined by four thouſand Engliſh and ſome national troops, marched and inveſted Paris again, to the no ſmall ſurprize of the citizens, who had been made to believe that if he was not fled beyond ſea into England, they ſhould have ſeen him at this time led as a priſoner through their ſtreets in triumph by the Duke of Maine. The King attacked the ſuburbs and carried them, and was very near entring the town itſelf with the flying enemy; but the Duke of Maine throwing himſelf into the city with an army equal, if not ſuperior to the King's, his Majeſty drew off his troops, and marching to Touraine, and from thence into Normandy, made himſelf maſter of a great many conſiderable towns. This Prince's moderation, (ſays my author) the exact diſcipline he made his ſoldiers obſerve, the care he took to prevent the plunder of the churches, and perſerve the privileges of the clergy, contributed very much to thoſe ſudden conqueſts he made.

The Leaguers proclaim Cardinal Bourbon King.

In the mean time the Leaguers obſerving that the want of royal authority was a conſiderable diſadvantage to their cauſe, propoſed the ſetting up a King in whoſe name they might act. But in this they were very much divided. The Spaniards propoſed the marrying ſome Prince to the Infanta, and declaring them King and Queen of France; the Duke of Lorrain made intereſt for his ſon, and the Duke of Guiſe would gladly have uſurped the throne himſelf, but he did not think his intereſt ſtrong enough to carry that point, and therefore ſet up CHARLES Cardinal of Bourbon, the next in blood to the crown, if the Proteſtant Princes were excluded. He was a poor decrepid old man, and impriſoned by the royal party at that time, and therefore could be of no other uſe to the Leaguers than by affording them his name, and keeping out a foreigner, whom the Spaniards and ſome of the moſt furious of that party had agreed to ſet up. The Cardinal was accordingly proclaimed, all publick acts run in his name, and he is by ſome hiſtorians ſtiled CHARLES the Tenth, but not generally placed in the catalogue of their Kings; this perhaps would have been diſagreeable to the preſent royal family, who look upon themſelves to have been poſſeſſed of the throne of France ever ſince the death of HENRY III.

Miſunderſtandings between them.

1590.

The King gains a victory at Ivry.

This ſtruggle about the choice of a Sovereign among the Leaguers, ſet the King of Spain and the Duke of Maine at variance. The council of ſixteen at Paris, and all the furious part of the Leaguers, were in the intereſt of Spain; while the parliament and the politicians, as the more moderate were called, followed the directions of the Duke. The King of Spain made large promiſes of aſſiſtance to the Leaguers, but afforded them no more from time to time than he thought was neceſſary to keep them from ſinking, that they might find themſelves under a neceſſity at laſt of throwing themſelves under his protection; and by this means he propoſed, either to give France a ſovereign, or to unite that kingdom to his own. The Duke of Maine, on the other hand, endeavoured to ſtrengthen himſelf againſt the King by the re-inforcements he received from Spain, but never deſigned to put himſelf or the kingdom in the power of this Prince: and theſe different views occaſioned both parties to have a jealous eye on each other. The Duke found means at length to diſſolve the Council of Sixteen, which had given him the greateſt uneaſineſs, and took upon himſelf the exerciſe of the whole regal power, under colour of his being elected Lieutenant of the kingdom at the ſame time the Cardinal DE BOURBON, in whoſe name he acted, was proclaimed King. His authority being thus eſtabliſhed, in order to procure the eſteem of the Pariſians, he took the field and made himſelf maſter of Pontoiſe, the caſtle of Vincennes, and Meulan; and the King having beſieged Dreux, a town of importance, he immediately marched to it's relief; whereupon a battle was fought on the fourteenth of March, 1590, near Ivry, in which the Duke of Maine was entirely defeated, and the King gained abundance of honour, as his army was much inferior in numbers to that of the enemy. The ſame day the King's troops in Auvergne obtained another victory over the Leaguers.

Paris blocked up, and reduced to great extremity.

The Duke of Parma relieves Paris.

Upon theſe repeated ſucceſſes, ſeveral towns opened their gates to his Majeſty, and 'tis thought if he had marched immediately to Paris, that city would have ſurrendred; but the Swiſs mutinying for want of pay, he was forced to remain inactive for ſome time, and the people had pretty well recovered their conſternation before his Majeſty inveſted the town: it was, however, at length blocked up, and the Royaliſts having made themſelves maſters of all the rivers above and below Paris, ſo that no proviſion could be brought thither, the place was reduced to great extremity by famine; for the King's army not conſiſting of above fifteen or ſixteen thouſand men, and there being eight thouſand foreign ſoldiers in the place, beſides a great many thouſand citizens who were ſo well diſciplined by the continuance of the civil war, that they were not much inferior to regular forces, the King did not propoſe to make himſelf maſter of the city itſelf any other way than by ſtarving it, tho' he had carried the ſuburbs and quartered his ſoldiers in them. The beſieged, to ſupply the want of other food, eat dogs, cats, rats and leather, and, 'tis ſaid, made a kind of paſte of dead-men's bones ground to powder; ſo zealous were they in defence of their ſuperſtitions, which, they imagined, would be aboliſhed if the King ſhould take the town. The Duke of Nemours, the Governor, is much admired for the many expedients he found out to keep up the ſpirits of the people in this diſtreſs; notwithſtanding there was ſo great a ſcarcity of proviſion, he took care to ſee thoſe ſupplyed who were in the greateſt reputation among the people, that they might keep up the courage of the reſt. The Governor alſo perſuaded the nobility and wealthy citizens to ſell their plate and jewels to ſupply the ſoldiers wants, and the Spaniſh Ambaſſador imitated them; nor did the Duke of Nemours fail to make his advantage of the madneſs and bigotry of the clergy and religious, the preachers were extremely uſeful to him in declaiming againſt hereſy, and the King as the great ſupporter of it; they aſſured the people that they fought in the cauſe of heaven, that thoſe of them who ſurvived would infallibly be conquerors, and if they died under their ſufferings, they would be rewarded with the crown of martyrdom: in ſhort, according to the Turkiſh doctrine, they might depend upon glory in this world or paradiſe in the next. And thus the courage of the Pariſians was buoyed up by their leaders, till the Duke of Parma, the Spaniſh General, came from the Netherlands with an army of veterans to their relief, who being joined by the Duke of Guiſe, the army of the Leaguers was much ſuperior to that of the Royaliſts, and his Majeſty found himſelf under a neceſſity of raiſing the ſiege; after which he divided his forces, ſending detachments into the ſeveral provinces to ſupport his intereſts, and only kept a flying army about his perſon, to march wherever his preſence ſhould be moſt neceſſary, and harraſs the enemy. The Duke of Parma having introduced a ſufficient quantity of proviſions into Paris, and taken ſome towns upon the Seine which opened their communication with the neighbouring country, returned to Flanders, leaving a large detachment of his forces with the Duke of Guiſe and the Leaguers.

While the two principal armies were employed in the attacking or relieving Paris, the civil war was carried on with great fury in other parts of the kingdom: the Royaliſts had generally the advantage in Maine, where ſeveral bloody engagements happened: on the other hand, the Duke of Mercœur, one of the heads of the League, having married a lady whom he pretended to be a deſcendant of the antient Dukes of Britany, attempted to make himſelf Sovereign of that province in her right, and being aſſiſted in his pretenſions by the Spaniards, the Leaguers became much ſuperior to the King's forces there. At the other end of the kingdom, the Duke of Savoy made himſelf maſter of great part of Province, and attempted the conqueſt of Dauphiné, but was defeated in ſeveral engagements by LESDIGUIERES the King's General. The Duke at firſt only aſſiſted the Leaguers, but having got footing in France, claimed the ſovereignty of what he poſſeſſed himſelf of. So that there were three armies in this part of the kingdom in as many different intereſts, and conſequently, the inhabitants miſerably harraſſed amongſt them.

The Cardinal de Bourbon dies.

About this time died the Cardinal DE BOURBON, whom the Leaguers had acknowledged for their King by the name of CHARLES the Tenth, and notwithſtanding the Duke of Maine derived his authority from this pretended Prince, his death made no alteration in their affairs, the Duke of Maine continued to exerciſe ſovereign authority over his party as before. 1591. The ſame year died Pope SIXTUS V, who was ſucceeded by URBAN the Seventh; but this Pontiff not living above thirteen days, GREGORY the Fourteenth was advanced to the papal chair, a perſon entirely devoted to the Spaniſh intereſt and the League: he ſent them forces and money, excommunicated the King and all that adhered to him, deprived him of his dominions, as far as lay in his power, and abſolved his ſubjects from their allegiance. Theſe violent proceedings of his Holineſs gave the Royaliſts ſome diſturbance, but the diviſions among the Leaguers made them an ample amends: the council of ſixteen, after the ſiege of Paris and the abſence of the Duke of Maine, had regained their former authority and influence, and were become ſo arbitrary, that they hanged up the firſt Preſident of the parliament and two other members of that body without bringing them to a trial; which ſo terrified the principal citizens, who began to look upon their lives as very precarious under ſuch a tyranny, that they ſent to the Duke of Maine to march to their relief. The Sixteen did deſign to have oppoſed his entrance into Paris, but he was ſo expeditious, that he arrived before they had taken their meaſures to prevent it; and having called an aſſembly in the Hôtel de Ville, and heard the complaints of the citizens on this head, he cauſed four or five of the principal members of the Council of Sixteen to be apprehended that night, and hanged them in the hall of the Louvre; ſome others who had been equally criminal eſcaped out of town: and tho' the Duke eſtabliſhed his authority for the preſent by this act of juſtice, the greateſt advantage accrued to the Royaliſts, who gathered ſtrength by the miſunderſtandings among the Leaguers.

Both parties call in foreign forces.

In the mean time both parties having called in foreign troops to their aſſiſtance, the Pope's nephew, the Duke of Monte Marciano, marched from Italy at the head of ten thouſand Italians and Swiſs to join the Leaguers. 1592. The Queen of England on the other hand ſent the King a ſupply of money, ammunition, and ſix thouſand men, and the Proteſtant Princes of Germany furniſhed him with another body of troops; whereupon his Majeſty laid ſiege to Rouen, but was obliged to raiſe it by the Duke of Parma, who again marched into France at the head of a powerful army of Spaniards and Walloons on this occaſion. The King's forces under the command of LESDIGUIERES in Dauphiné and Provence had much better ſucceſs, driving the Duke of Savoy out of thoſe provinces, and carrying the war into his own country.

The King forced to raiſe the ſiege of Rouen.

The year 1593 was more memorable for the meeting of the States at Paris than for military exploits. 1593. The King of Spain had obliged the Duke of Guiſe to aſſemble them (at leaſt ſuch of them as were not in his Majeſty's intereſt) in order to chuſe a ſovereign, or rather to confirm one of his nomination; for he inſiſted that the perſon whom the Infanta of Spain married ſhould be their monarch, and afterwards let them know that he deſigned the Archduke ALBERT for her huſband: but moſt of the chiefs of the League oppoſed him. The King ſo far acknowledged this aſſembly of the States, (though no ſuch body could be legally convened without his ſummons) that he permitted the Catholicks of his party to invite thoſe at Paris to a conference upon the affairs of religion and the ſtate; which being agreed on accordingly, the commiſſioners on both ſides met at Surenne, a village about a league and half from Paris; and the King, to facilitate matters, thought fit about this time to declare himſelf a Catholick, at which the Proteſtants being alarmed, he gave them a promiſe under his hand, that whatever the neceſſity of his affairs might oblige him to, they ſhould be ſecured in the profeſſion of their religion and liberties purſuant to former edicts. A truce was ſoon after concluded between the Royaliſts and the Leaguers, and the King made his abjuration of the Proteſtant religion openly in the Abbey of St Dennis, on the twenty-fifth of July 1593, of which he ſent advice to all the parliaments in the kingdom. He alſo ſent an Ambaſſador to the Pope, to deſire abſolution, and to be reconciled to the Church. His Holineſs was extremely pleaſed with the news of his converſion, but refuſed to give the Ambaſſador audience for fear of incurring the diſpleaſure of the Spaniard.

The King declares himſelf a Roman Catholick.

Whereupon many towns declare for him.

The King's declaring himſelf a Catholick had a mighty effect on the people in general, and the cities of Meaux, Lyons, Orleans, Bourges, and many others, ſoon after ſurrendered to him; upon which ſucceſs the King was crowned, or conſecrated, in the French phraſe, at Chartres, on the twenty-ſeventh of February 1594; 1594. and inſtead of the holy oil of Rheims, which was then in poſſeſſion of the Leaguers, they made uſe of that which is kept in the convent of Marmoutier, and ſuppoſed to confer equal bleſſings on the Sovereign. Soon after this ſolemnity, the gentlemen of the other party deſerted over to him in troops, and all the great towns ſeemed ready to declare for him. The Duke of Guiſe obſerving the like inclinations in the people of Paris, thought it no longer ſafe to reſide among them, and therefore retired from thence with his family to prevent his being delivered up to his enemies; but before he left the town, he procured a promiſe from the Count DE BRISSAC the Governor, to have a watchful eye over the Royaliſts, and do all that was in his power to defend the place againſt them. BRISSAC notwithſtanding obſerving that the kingdom was generally diſpoſed to ſubmit to his Majeſty, and that it would not be in his power long to hinder the revolt of the city, agreed with the commiſſioners appointed

Paris delivered up to the King by BRISSAC the Governor.

to treat with him to deliver it up into the King's hands, which was effected on the twenty-ſecond of March, with ſome little reſiſtance from the Spaniſh forces who were in garriſon here, of whom there were about three or four-ſcore killed, the reſt were permitted to return to their own country. VILLARS, Governor of Rouen, followed the example of BRISSAC, and ſurrendered that city to his Majeſty, making advantageous terms for himſelf, as the Governors of the reſt of the great cities had done who were ſo wiſe as to ſubmit in time. The great men in ſuch revolutions as theſe generally have foreſight enough to make their own fortunes, whatever becomes of the cauſe or the people they have deluded. The young Duke of Guiſe came to an accommodation with his Majeſty the ſame year. There were ſome deſperado's however left among the malecontents, who could never patiently ſubmit to a Prince whom they were perſuaded was ſtill a heretick in his heart, and whom they had been taught it would be meritorious to deſtroy. One of theſe having got into the preſence-chamber while his Majeſty was ſurrounded by the Lords of the court, made his way through them, and ſtabbed his Majeſty in the mouth with a knife, and had he not ſtooped forward at that very inſtant to ſalute a Nobleman, the knife had been in his breaſt; but the greateſt damage he received by the blow, as it happened, was the loſs of one of his teeth. The aſſaſſin was a draper's ſon of Paris, who being examined concerning the fact, confeſſed that he had received his education among the Jeſuits; from whence, and other circumſtances, it was concluded he had been encouraged to commit this villainous attempt by that order; at which the King's friends were ſo exaſperated, that they procured an edict for baniſhing them the kingdom. One, of whom they had the greateſt ſuſpicion, was put to death, and others were impriſoned, without ever having been heard in their defence, if we may believe their friend DANIEL.

An aſſaſſin attempts to murder the King.

1595.

The King receiving very little hurt by the blow the aſſaſſin gave him, ſoon after took the field in order to reduce the Duke of Maine, who was ſtill at the head of an army in the province of Burgundy, of which he was governor; and the Duke declining to come to an engagement, moſt of the towns revolted to his Majeſty. The King afterwards marched into Provence, where the Leaguers were ſtill in arms, and met with the like ſucceſs. The Pope apprehending that the whole kingdom was upon the point of ſubmitting to his Majeſty, thought fit to ſend him his bull of abſolution, which was publiſhed with great ſolemnity, and the King from that time eſteemed a true ſon of the Church.

In the mean time the King's arms were unſucceſsful in the Netherlands; the Spaniards made themſelves maſters of Cambray, Dourlens, and ſeveral other fortreſſes; and the Duke of Mercœur ſtill maintained himſelf in Britany, againſt the utmoſt efforts of the Royaliſts. On the other hand a peace was concluded this year between the King and the Duke of Lorrain, whereby France was delivered from the miſeries of war on that ſide. The Proteſtants could not conceal their uneaſineſs, however, at the partiality that was ſhewn the Catholicks, and what made them more ſo was his Majeſty's taking the young Prince of Condé out of their hands, who was the preſumptive heir of the crown, in order to breed him up a Papiſt; but this, it ſeems, was one of the conditions on which the Church of Rome was reconciled to him, and granted him abſolution.

1596. The Duke of Maine and other chiefs ſubmit.

The year 1596 was remarkable for the ſubmiſſion of the Duke of Maine, the Duke of Joyeuſe, the Duke of Nemours, and ſeveral other great men, to whom the King was pleaſed to grant very advantageous conditions, in order to reſtore peace to his dominions. He ſeems to have been governed by the ſame principle the court of England was at the Reſtoration, of forgiving and preferring his enemies, while his friends, many of them, were left in a ſtarving condition. It was thought ſufficient for the Proteſtants, who had run all hazards for him, and ſupported him in the moſt calamitous circumſtances with their lives and eſtates, that they were permitted to enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion, and that but for a little time. That very houſe of Bourbon, which they raiſed to the grandure we ſee it at this day, in a few years ungratefully deſtroyed that people which had advanced them to the throne, and laviſhly ſquandered away their poſſeſſions upon thoſe men that had been the moſt obſtinate rebels to their family. From this, and many other inſtances of the like nature, methinks men would do well to conſider before they engage in the quarrel of any Prince upon earth; and if they do it out of principle rather than affection or intereſt, let them expect no other reward than what uſually attends on ſuch uncommon virtue. But to proceed: The city of Marſeilles, which had, during the civil war, ſet up for an independent State under the protection of the King of Spain, and had a Spaniſh garriſon in it, was about this time reduced to the King's obedience by the conduct of the Duke of Guiſe, who kept a correſpondence with ſome of the leading citizens; whereupon the Duke of Eſpernon, who was at the head of a body of malecontents in that part of France, was induced to lay down his arms, and was received into favour, notwithſtanding he had continued long obſtinate to all the offers of peace the King had made him.

The Spaniards were ſtill ſuperior to the French on the ſide of the Netherlands and Picardy, and took from them this campaign the towns of Calais and Ardres, which occaſioned an offenſive and defenſive alliance between France, England, and Holland, againſt Spain. The King's ill ſucceſs in Picardy is charged upon the obſtinacy of the Hugonots (by their enemies) who refuſed to aſſiſt him in that war; but admitting this to be true, they ſeem to have had ſufficient reaſon for their diſcontents; they found themſelves under great diſcouragements, while thoſe who had been the greateſt enemies to the crown, were poſſeſſed of the moſt conſiderable employments in the State: but from what occaſion ſoever the King's ill ſucceſs proceeded, the Spaniards remained maſters of the field in the year 1597, and took Amiens the capital of Picardy, though 'tis true the king had the good fortune to retake it the ſame campaign; and about this time LESDIGUIERES obtained a victory over the Duke of Savoy, who ſtill refuſed to hearken to propoſals of peace. 1597.

1598.

The following year the King marched at the head of his army into Britany, and reduced that province to his obedience, obliging the Duke of Mercœur, who had commanded the forces of the League, and made ſome pretenſions to that duchy in his wife's right, to ſurrender to him in form; whereupon the King was pleaſed to marry CÆSAR, one of his illegitimate ſons, to the Duke's only daughter, and give him the government of that province. By the ſubmiſſion of Mercœur the League was entirely deſtroyed; and while the King remained at Nants the capital of Britany, to ſatisfy the Hugonots in ſome meaſure, he paſſed that famous irrevocable edict, as the French Proteſtants term it, called THE EDICT OF NANTS; whereby they were ſecured in the free exerciſe of their religion in all parts of the kingdom, except Paris and the neighbourhood of it.

The edict of Nants paſſed.

This year alſo a peace was concluded at Vervins in Picardy between France and Spain, whereby the Spaniards reſtored Calais, Ardres, and the reſt of the towns they had taken on the frontiers of France, and Spain was confirmed in the poſſeſſion of the county of Charolois in Burgundy. The Duke of Savoy thought it time alſo to conclude a truce now France had no other enemy, and was content to relinquiſh all the conqueſts he had made during the civil war in Provence and Dauphiné; whereby Henry the Fourth became entire maſter of all the French dominions.

1599. The King was now at leiſure to indulge his pleaſures, eſpecially with the ladies; and indeed he was never without a variety of miſtreſſes, even in his moſt calamitous circumſtances. This ſeems to be a foible which moſt of his predeceſſors were guilty of; but he proceeded farther, and ſollicited the court of Rome for a diſſolution of his marriage with Queen Margaret, ſiſter to King Henry the Third, with whom he had lived for many years, under pretence ſhe was forced to marry him, by her brother Charles the Ninth, and as ſhe was prevailed upon to give her conſent to it, the Pope made no ſcruple to declare the marriage null; whereupon the King found himſelf at liberty to look out for another, by whom he might have iſſue, for he deſpaired of having any by this. The Ducheſs of Beaufort, his miſtreſs, dying about the ſame time, he drew up with Madam d'Entragues, and proceeded ſo far as to give her a promiſe of marriage under his hand, which created him very great difficulties afterwards, for 1600. he married Mary of Medicis, daughter of Francis late Duke of Tuſcany, and niece to Ferdinand the reigning Duke, the following year; and having children by her, their legitimacy was diſputed by ſome on account of the pre-contract with Madam d'Entragues. In the mean time the truce with the Duke of Savoy was turned into a peace, whereby he yielded Breſſe, comprehending Bugey and Le val Romey to the King, in exchange for the marquiſate of Saluces, which he retained; whereby France was entirely freed from foreign as well as civil wars, with which ſhe had been afflicted for many years.

1601. A Dauphin born.

A Dauphin being born on the twenty-ſeventh of September 1601, it occaſioned a great deal of joy in the French court, which was however interrupted by a conſpiracy formed by the Marquis of Biron, the Duke of Bouillon, the Count d'Auvergne, and ſeveral others of the prime nobility, who had laid a ſcheme to erect the great governments of France into ſo many principalities, which were to be no further dependent on the King, than the Princes of the Empire are on the Emperor. And 'tis ſaid, they had agreed to depoſe the preſent King, and ſet the Count de Soiſſons, a Prince of the blood, upon the throne: and they were to have been ſupported in this enterprize by the King of Spain and the Duke of Savoy.

Marſhal Biron's conſpiracy.

1602. La Fin, a confident of Marſhal Biron, diſcovered the whole matter to the King; whereupon his Majeſty ſent for the Marſhal to court, and told him that if he would make a full confeſſion, it ſhould coſt him nothing but the repentance of his faults: but he having been aſſured by La Fin that there was no evidence againſt him, anſwered in a haughty manner, that he had no need of a pardon for he had committed no fault. The King, 'tis ſaid, having no mind to deſtroy him, ſpoke to him in the ſame manner the next day, after he had given him time to conſider of it, but could obtain no other anſwer; whereupon he ordered him to priſon, where he was put to the torture, and afterwards condemned and executed. The King pardoned the Count d'Auvergne, as 'tis ſaid he deſigned to have done the Duke of Bouillon; but he not caring to venture it, fled firſt to Geneva, and afterwards to the court of the Elector Palatine, for he was a Proteſtant. The crime muſt certainly have been very great, and the evidence exceeding plain, or the King could never have taken away the life of Biron, a man who had done him more ſervice than any perſon in the kingdom; he had commanded his armies from firſt to laſt, and generally been ſucceſsful: but great men frequently take diſguſt unaccountably; and Princes as often take an occaſion to ruin their officers and miniſters who have been moſt ſerviceable to them, either thro' pique, or an apprehenſion that they aſſume too much, when in reality they have been guilty of no more than common failings. But however the fact was, 'tis impoſſible to read this piece of hiſtory, without being ſenſibly grieved to ſee the man who had the greateſt ſhare in fixing his Prince upon the throne, and had accompliſhed it by innumerable hazards and hardſhips, ruined in a moment by that very Prince, and thoſe who were his Majeſty's greateſt enemies, loaded with all the favours and honours he could beſtow upon them.

He is executed.

1603. The year 1603 was moſt remarkable for the reſtoration of the Jeſuits in France, and the death of the Queen of England, who was ſucceeded by James the Sixth of Scotland, and firſt of England, by virtue of an inſtrument (if we may credit the French hiſtorians) in which Queen Elizabeth appointed him her ſucceſſor: but this inſtrument I believe no Engliſhman ever ſaw. The French and Dutch renewed their alliances with England on this occaſion, in order to put themſelves in a condition to oppoſe the power of Spain, which was then looked upon to be as exorbitant and dangerous as that of France proved afterwards.

1604. Several conſpiracies againſt the government.

Not long after another conſpiracy was diſcovered againſt his Majeſty, in which the Spaniards had, 'tis ſaid, engaged the King's miſtreſs Madam d'Entragues and her father, with the Count d'Auvergne and others; but he pardoned them all, which gave ſome people occaſion to ſuſpect it to be a ſham plot, eſpecially ſince the King contented himſelf with only taking away the written inſtrument from Monſieur d'Entragues which he had given him, containing a promiſe to marry his daughter, and which the Spaniards gave out they would one day make uſe of againſt the iſſue he had by his Queen. But there were another ſet of conſpirators who had agreed to deliver up Guienne and Gaſcony to the King of Spain, who did not experience ſo much mercy, for he ordered ten of the principal of them to be beheaded. The Baron de Mairargues alſo, one of the moſt conſiderable Lords in Provence, was the next year beheaded for treating with the Spaniards to deliver up Marſeilles to them. Thus was this Prince exerciſed

1609.

with continual plots after the concluſion of the civil war till the year 1604: from that time to the end of this reign the nation ſeems to have enjoyed perfect tranquillity; unleſs it be that in 1609 the King entered into a confederacy with the Dutch, to prevent the Archduke ALBERT's poſſeſſing himſelf of the duchies of Cleves and Juliers. But his Majeſty purſued his amorous intrigues to the laſt moment of his life. The Prince of Condé was ſo alarmed at the complaiſance he ſhewed his ſpouſe, daughter to the Conſtable MONTMORENCY, that he carried her away with him on a ſudden to the Low-Countries, and afterwards to Milan, and did not think fit to return into France till after the King's death.

1610. The King aſſaſſinated.

The latter end of this year and part of the next was taken up with raiſing a numerous army, ſuppoſed to be deſigned againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but the villain RAVAILLAC, a monk, put an end to this and all other deſigns of this great King, by ſtabbing him to the heart in his coach in the ſtreets of Paris, on the fourteenth of May 1610. The aſſaſſin was taken with the knife in his hand, and afterwards put to the torture in order to compel him to diſcover his accomplices; but his confeſſion was part of it made a ſecret: ſome charge the Spaniards, and even the Queen, with being concerned in it, to which they tell us ſhe was provoked by his being falſe to her bed; but this ſeems to be mere conjecture. It is much more probable to be done by this enthuſiaſtical friar on the ſcore of religion, to which he apprehended the King an enemy; for it is obſerved that he had eſcaped from above fifty conſpiracies, moſt of them contrived by prieſts or votaries of Popery, who queſtioned the ſincerity of his converſion. He died in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and thirty-eighth of his reign, as King of Navarre; and in the twenty-firſt year after his acceſſion to the throne of France.

His iſſue.

He had no children by Queen MARGARET, ſiſter of HENRY the Third; but by his ſecond wife MARY de Medicis he had three ſons, viz. LEWIS the Thirteenth, who ſucceeded him; the Duke of Orleans his ſecond ſon, who died at four years of age; and GASTON-JOHN-BAPTIST, Duke of Anjou, afterwards Duke of Orleans, who ſurvived him many years. He had alſo three daughters, namely, ELIZABETH, married to the Prince of Spain, afterwards PHILIP the Fourth; CHRISTINA, married to VICTOR-AMADEUS, afterwards Duke of Savoy; and HENRIETTA, married to CHARLES the Firſt, King of England. He had beſides theſe, natural children in abundance by his ſeveral miſtreſſes.

LEWIS XIII, 1610.

LEWIS the Thirteenth was almoſt nine years of age at the death of his father, being born on the 27th of September, 1601. The Queen-Dowager his mother was adviſed by her friends in the miniſtry to dry up her tears as ſoon as poſſible, and procure herſelf to be declared regent during the minority of her ſon in the abſence of the Princes of the blood. The Dukes of Guiſe and Eſpernon, noblemen of an unbounded ambition, thought that in doing the Queen ſo ſingular a piece of ſervice, as ſhe was a ſtranger, and unacquainted with the art of government, they ſhould thereby entirely engroſs the adminiſtration of affairs in their own hands. Having aſſembled therefore the provoſt of the merchants, the ſheriffs, and other magiſtrates of Paris, they harangued them in ſuch a manner, that they gave their conſents to the Queen's being declared regent, and the parliament followed their example; though there were ſome in the aſſembly who lamented the misfortune of their country, in being left at the diſcretion of an Italian, a profuſe and unexperienced regent, who would probably be influenced by GALIGAI and CONCHINI her huſband, the Queen's chief confidants, and creatures of the court of Spain, and who were ſuſpected of ſuborning RAVAILLAC to aſſaſſinate his late Majeſty.

The Queen mother declared Regent.

The Count de Soiſſons, ſecond Prince of the blood, was extremely ſurprized to find the regency diſpoſed of on his arrival at Paris; but the Queen gave him the government of Normandy to pacify him. The Dukes of Guiſe and Eſpernon, who had been ſo ſerviceable at this juncture, ſhe rewarded according to their reſpective inclinations and circumſtances. To Guiſe, who wanted money to pay his debts the moſt of any thing in the world, ſhe gave two hundred thouſand crowns. The haughty Eſpernon ſhe loaded with honours, ordered him an apartment in the Louvre, and that the Secretaries of ſtate ſhould communicate all their diſpatches to him.

The trial of RAVAILLAC.

In the mean time the parliament were taken up with the trial of RAVAILLAC. By the interrogatories and depoſitions that are left upon record, it appears that he was an enthuſiaſt, and apprehending that the King was about to make war on the Pope, and encourage the Hugonots, he took up the reſolution of killing him. He had imbibed an opinion, that it was lawful for any private man to kill his prince if he was an enemy to his Holineſs. He told the judges that to make war againſt the Pope was to make war againſt God, becauſe the Pope was God, and God was the Pope. He conſtantly averred to his laſt breath, that no man, neither French or foreigner, had incited him to commit this murder. He was broke alive upon the wheel on the 27th of May, in purſuance of his ſentence. The ſame day the parliament ordered the faculty of Paris to revive their cenſure againſt thoſe who teach, That a private ſubject may and ought to deſtroy tyrants by all the ways they can, and that ſuch an action is not contrary to the oath of allegiance the ſubject takes. And however clear the Jeſuits may be of the late King's murder, the preachers at Paris inveighed ſeverely againſt them at the time of his funeral.

The match with Spain propoſed.

It was propoſed at the begining of this reign to proceed in the double match with Spain, that had been concerted in the time of HENRY IV; namely, of the preſent King with the Infanta, and of the Prince of Spain with the eldeſt daughter of France. The Queen being prepoſſeſſed by the Italians about her, whom the Court of Spain had corrupted, laid it down as a maxim that the eſtabliſhment of her authority depended on a good underſtanding with the Pope and King of Spain. The court of Rome did not doubt to find their account in this double alliance, as believing it the moſt effectual way to ruin the Proteſtants: as the one deſtroyed them in Germany and the Low-Countries, they projected that the other might extirpate the Hugonots in France, if they were united in their councils. The Queen however, in order to keep all quiet in the beginning of her adminiſtration, thought fit to iſſue a proclamation confirming the edict of Nants, and to relinquiſh or leſſen ſeveral of the taxes which were grievous to the ſubject, particularly that of ſalt was abated a fourth part.

While things were in this ſituation, the Prince of Condé returned to court from Milan, whither he had retired with his wife to prevent the late

King's abuſing his bed. The Spaniards upon the death of Henry the Fourth would have perſuaded him to take the title of King, inſinuating that the marriage of his late Majeſty with Mary of Medicis was void, on account of his former marriage with the Princeſs Margaret, who was then living, and his contract with Madam d'Entragues, and conſequently his iſſue by Mary were illegitimate: but the Prince ſlighted the propoſal, chuſing to reſt ſatisfied with his preſent circumſtances rather than hazard all in the uncertain purſuit of a crown. He ſhewed the ſame moderation or meanneſs of ſpirit, as ſome were pleaſed to term it, on his arrival at Paris; when the Dukes of Bouillon and Sully, and other chiefs of the Proteſtants, offered to aſſiſt him in obtaining the regency, and removing his enemies from about the King, he ſuffered the Queen quietly to enjoy the regency he found her poſſeſſed of. It is obſerved of him, that his avarice much exceeded his ambition. He continued however for ſome time head of a party, in oppoſition to Count Soiſſons; Conchini, now Marquiſs d'Ancre, the Queen's favourite, playing one of theſe Princes againſt the other, that they might not be at leiſure to animadvert on his conduct, and made himſelf the umpire of their differences: however, he ſeemed to court the favour of the Prince of Condé moſt.

Conchini ſets the Princes of the blood at variance.

The French and Dutch take the city of Juliers.

The Emperor, upon the death of the laſt Duke of Cleves and Juliers, deſigning to annex thoſe countries to his hereditary dominions, had ſent the Archduke Leopold to take poſſeſſion of them, under pretence of ſequeſtring them till the ſeveral claimants ſhould have made out their reſpective titles. He poſſeſſed himſelf accordingly of the ſtrong city of Juliers; but the French and Dutch, whoſe intereſt it was to prevent the aggrandizing of the houſe of Auſtria, laid ſiege to Juliers, and took it, delivering it into the hands of the Elector of Brandenburgh and Duke of Newburgh, who pretended to it by virtue of their having married two of the daughters of that houſe: and thus theſe countries became involved in the war of the Netherlands, to which they lie contiguous. But to return to the French court: 1611. The favourite Conchini took care to keep the principal nobility at conſtant variance, to prevent their intermeddling too much in the adminiſtration; however, both Condé and Soiſſons united in getting the Duke of Sully diſgraced, and Marſhal de Bouillon, tho' a Proteſtant, contributed all he was able to have that great man removed from his poſts of ſuperintendant of the finances, &c. It was the miſunderſtandings between theſe Proteſtant Lords that at length proved their ruin. Their numbers and their quality were ſo conſiderable, that they could never have been depreſſed, if they had not by their unſeaſonable quarrels done their enemies work for them.

An aſſembly of the Proteſtants at Saumur.

The Proteſtants had been allowed their general aſſemblies in the reign of Henry the Fourth, where they uſed to draw up repreſentations of their grievances, and elect ſix deputies, of whom the King choſe two, theſe were conſtantly to attend the court, and take care that nothing paſſed to the diſadvantage of their religion. Such an aſſembly was permitted to meet this year at Saumur by the Regency, at which the Dukes of Sully, Rohan, Trimouille, Soubize, Chatillon, la Force, and the Marſhal Bouillon were preſent, the laſt of which noblemen expected to have been choſen preſident; but being oppoſed by the reſt, the choice fell upon the celebrated du Pleſſis Mornay, at which Bouillon was ſo diſguſted, that he is ſaid to have done the Proteſtants many ill offices at court afterwards. This gentleman ſeems to have been more concerned to render himſelf the head of a party, than to promote the intereſts of the religion he profeſſed. The general aſſembly were ſo ſenſible of the ill conſequence of theſe diviſions among their chiefs, that they propoſed a reconciliation, and in outward appearance effected it between Sully and Bouillon; who ſeemed to be the moſt exaſperated againſt each other; but it did not prove ſincere, at leaſt on Bouillon's part. This aſſembly not receiving any ſatisfactory anſwer to the repreſentations they made of their grievances, renewed their uſual oath, namely, That they would die in defence of their faith, and never depart from their allegiance due to the King; with which they were afterwards reproached, as entring into a ſeditious engagement.

The Proteſtants prepare for their defence on the concluſion of the double match with Spain.

In the year 1612, the double marriage between France and Spain was agreed on. The Queen ſquandered away incredible ſums at the rejoicings that were made on this occaſion, while the Proteſtants were under the utmoſt conſternation, believing their ruin to be chiefly intended by this union of the two crowns. They endeavoured therefore again to reconcile the Lords of their communion, and procured a promiſe from them to forget their former quarrels, and to aſſiſt each other as far as religion and their allegiance to their Prince would allow, and to do nothing that might prejudice the union and uniformity of the doctrine and diſcipline eſtabliſhed in the reformed churches of France. The Dukes of Rohan and Sully, the Marſhals Bouillon and Lesdiguieres, Chatillon, Soubize, la Force, and du Pleſſis Mornay, ſigned this agreement, and ſent it to the Governors of the towns given them for their ſecurity, and to the gentlemen of diſtinction of their perſuaſion in the ſeveral provinces; who all ſubſcribed this engagement. 1612.

Provincial aſſemblies held by the Proteſtants prohibited.

The national aſſembly held in the year 1610, having been diſſolved before they could obtain any redreſs of their grievances from the court, provincial aſſemblies were afterwards held without a licence from the court, and two deputies from each of the eight provinces were ſent to Paris, to ſollicit for a favourable anſwer to the repreſentation that had been made by the laſt national aſſembly; but the court refuſed to give them audience, under pretence that theſe provincial aſſemblies were illegal, not having been convened by the King's authority; and did not only prohibit the holding ſuch aſſemblies for the future, but alſo national ſynods, where any other perſons beſides their preachers and elders ſhould be preſent, or any thing treated of but what concerned the doctrine and diſcipline of the reformed churches of France; and the general aſſemblies held ſince that of Saumur were declared unlawful. However, that thoſe who had been at them might not be under any uneaſineſs, the King declared, that as he did not believe they had any ill deſign in attending thoſe aſſemblies, he would grant them a pardon for it The Proteſtants were more offended than pleaſed with this pardon: they inſiſted they had committed no crime; and at a national ſynod that was held this year at Privas, they made a ſolemn proteſtation, that the provincial aſſemblies had not been held illegally, and that the Reformed looked on the pardon his Majeſty had granted them as a diſgrace, that they ſhould never make uſe of it, and would diſown ſuch Proteſtants as did.

And the regency not caring to irritate the Hugonots at this time, publiſhed another declaration in ſofter terms, which was called an explanation of the former.

1614. The Prince of Condé &c. cabal againſt the court.

The Prince of Condé finding himſelf ſlighted at court, and that Conchini had the adminiſtration ſolely in his hands, retired in diſguſt, and was followed by the Dukes of Nevers, Maine, Vendoſme, Longueville, &c. The reaſons they gave for their diſcontents were the waſting of the publick revenues, the beſtowing the higheſt dignities on foreigners and worthleſs perſons, the arbitrary power of the miniſtry, the little regard had to the Princes of the blood, and Peers of the kingdom, the controlling the parliaments in the exerciſe of their juriſdiction, the exceſſive price demanded for offices of judicature, the deſtruction of the nobility and oppreſſion of the people, and the precipitate concluſion of the King's marriage before his coming of age. To theſe complaints, which were moſt of them juſt, were added ſome demands, ſuch as the calling a convention of the Eſtates within three months, the ſuſpending the King's marriage and his ſiſter's, and the employing men of integrity about the King's perſon.

The Queen, in anſwer to this declaration, publiſhed a manifeſto, wherein ſhe obſerves, that the covetouſneſs of the Prince of Condé and the other great Lords, had forced her to conſume a great part of the treaſure left by the late King; that they continually formed cabals and fomented inſurrections, which obliged her to diſtribute money amongſt them to keep them quiet; that the irreſolution and ſoftneſs of the Prince made him the tool of all the factions at court; that ſhe was ready to aſſemble the States of the kingdom, and redreſs whatever was amiſs; and in the concluſion, offered the malecontents terms of accommodation. She did not neglect, however, to raiſe a body of troops and ſtrengthen herſelf, in order to give her commiſſioners the greater weight at the treaty which was agreed on. The Prince of Condé, on the other hand, aſſembled his friends, and invited the Proteſtants to join him; but they had no great opinion of his conduct, and generally excuſed themſelves. At length a peace was concluded between the Court and the Prince of Condé; ſome of the malecontents accepted money, and others preferments: as to the publick good, which was the pretence of the inſurrection, that was neglected as uſual. The convention of the Eſtates, which was the only thing of moment this treaty produced, was ſo modelled and managed by the miniſtry, that they effected little of any moment. It was in this aſſembly that the famous Richlieu, Biſhop of Lucon, firſt appeared upon the ſtage, being one of the repreſentatives of the clergy, and had a commiſſion to preſent a paper to the King on the breaking up of the States, at the delivery whereof he made a ſpeech of an hour long, and was heard with great attention.

An accommodation between the Court and the Prince.

Richlieu firſt appears upon the ſtage.

1615. The parliament oppoſe the arbitrary meaſures of the court.

The people remained ſtill generally diſcontented that none of their grievances were redreſſed in the aſſembly of the States, and murmured that the Marſhal d'Ancre had ſtill the diſpoſal of every thing. The parliament of Paris alſo publiſhed an arret, wherein they invited the great men, and all that were well-affected to their country, to join them in maintaining the liberties of the nation. Whereupon the council iſſued a declaration in the King's name, making the ſaid arret of parliament void, and prohibiting all people under ſevere penalties to intermeddle with affairs of ſtate. The parliament not then uſed to ſuch haughty treatment, preſented a remonſtrance to the King, wherein they took a great deal of freedom, and adviſed him not to make uſe of abſolute commands in the firſt year of his majority (for he was now in his fourteenth year). The Prince of Condé, Marſhal Bouillon, and the reſt of the malecontents, alſo had again recourſe to arms; but laid them down ſoon after upon advantageous conditions offered them by the court, leaving the Proteſtants, who were their principal ſupport, to ſhift for themſelves. This peace was called the treaty of Loudun, from it's having been concluded there.

The court ſtill remained in great confuſion, and ſeveral removes were made of the great officers. Biſhop Richlieu took this opportunity of ſolliciting the Marſhal d'Ancre for ſome preferment, and having contracted a friendſhip with one of his creatures, procured the place of grand almoner to the Queen-conſort Anne of Auſtria. The Marſhal finding him to be a man of parts, conſulted him on the moſt important affairs, and at length advanced him to the degree of a privy counſellor and ſecretary of ſtate. And it was by his advice, 'tis ſaid, that he reſolved to ſeize the Prince of Condé, and all the diſaffected Lords; in purſuance of which, the Prince was actually made priſoner, and confined in the caſtle of Vincennes; but the reſt had notice of the deſign againſt them, and made their eſcape.

1616. Richlieu made ſecretary of ſtate.

The Prince of Condé made priſoner.

1617.

The Marſhal had ſtill ſo many enemies left, that by means of Luines, who uſed to attend the King in his ſports, and had ſome influence on him, they gave his Majeſty a jealouſy of this miniſter, and procured an order to take him off; though ſome ſay they were only to have apprehended him, and that the captain of the guards, who had a commiſſion to ſeize the Marſhal, ſhot him under a pretence of the reſiſtance he met with. Thus fell Conchini, Marſhal d'Ancre, a Florentine, after he had tyrannized over the French nobility and parliaments for near ſeven years, and inſpired that court with arbitrary views; which his ſucceſſors in the miniſtry ſo improved, that before the end of this reign the French were in a manner deprived of their liberties.

Marſhal d'Ancre murdered.

1618. Richlieu turned out.

The Queen-mother confined.

Luines prime miniſter.

Upon the death of Marſhal d'Ancre all his creatures were turned out, particularly Richlieu: the old miniſters reſumed their places. The Queen-mother was ordered to retire to Blois, where ſhe was confined; and Richlieu ſerving her there in quality of ſteward of her houſe, Luines, who ſucceeded Conchini in the King's favour, being apprehenſive of the buſy active genius of this prelate, ordered him to retire to Avignon. In the mean time he entertained the King with childiſh diverſions, or exerciſes of devotion, to which this Prince was naturally addicted, while he governed the State in as deſpotick a manner as his predeceſſor Conchini had done, not ſuffering any perſon to approach his Majeſty till he was accquainted with their buſineſs.

1619.

The year following the Queen-mother, by the aſſiſtance of the Duke of Eſpernon, made her eſcape from Blois; which gave Luines great uneaſineſs, apprehending ſhe would one time or other ruin him by her intrigues. Richlieu ſending him a ſubmiſſive letter about this time, and offering to ſerve this miniſter without reſerve, he laid hold of the opportunity, and ordered him to attend the Queen again, and acquaint him from time to time with the meaſures ſhe was about to take, but not to let her Majeſty know he had any correſpondence with the court; and according as he diſcharged this truſt, gave him hopes of preferment.

RICHLIEU employed by LUINES to diſcover the Queen-mother's intrigues.

This order RICHLIEU very readily obeyed, and played his game ſo well, that he was relied on by both parties, of which he afterwards made his advantage. The Queen particularly looked upon him as her moſt faithful ſervant: that he had hazarded every thing to attend her in her diſtreſs, and therefore communicated her moſt important ſecrets to him. A treaty was ſoon after ſet on foot between the King and his mother, and all their differences in a manner adjuſted; but RICHLIEU diſſuaded her from going to Paris, unleſs ſhe could be admitted into the adminiſtration as formerly. In the mean time LUINES apprehending he might want a ſupport if the Queen-mother returned, propoſed the making a friend of the Prince of Condé, by reſtoring him to his liberty; and accordingly procured it for him of the King, after he had been a priſoner upwards of three years: whereupon the Prince in gratitude promiſed to ſupport his intereſts, and gave him all the aſſiſtance that lay in his power in the adminiſtration of the government. LUINES about the ſame time procured a patent to be made a Duke and Peer of France.

The Prince of Condé ſet at liberty.

The Queen and diſaffected Lords take the field.

The Queen ſtill remaining at a diſtance from court, was applyed to by the Hugonots and diſaffected Lords to oppoſe the arbitrary proceedings of the miniſtry; and her party at length became ſo numerous, that it made the prime miniſter tremble: nor was it long before they took the field. As to the King, their hiſtorians inform us that he was an indolent Prince, and applyed himſelf to nothing. That he had neither reſolution to undertake any thing himſelf, or conſtancy to purſue good advice when it was given. That he wanted an able miniſter poſſeſſed of the royal qualities of which he was deſtitute: whereupon every great man about the court knowing his weakneſs, pretended to the direction of affairs, and this occaſioned thoſe diviſions that frequently diſtracted the ſtate.

1620. The King marches againſt them.

While LUINES, who was more a ſportſman than a ſoldier, was confounded at the repeated advices he received of the ſtrength and numbers of the malecontents, the Prince of Condé adviſed the King to take the field as ſoon as poſſible, and attack his enemies before they had aſſembled their whole force. He aſſured his Majeſty that if this conduct had been obſerved in thoſe inſurrections in which he was concerned, he muſt have ſubmitted. The King it ſeems at this time was ſo wiſe as to follow the Prince's advice; and giving him the command of the army, marched with him in perſon into Normandy, where the Duke of Longueville and the malecontents were reported to be very ſtrong; but they retired upon his approach, and the King with very little difficulty made himſelf maſter of Rouen, Caen, and moſt of the towns in that province. From hence he continued his march againſt the Queen, who had aſſembled a great body of troops in Anjou. At the ſame time he ſent to offer her terms of accommodation, and a treaty was actually ſet on foot between them. The King ſtill advancing, the Queen was adviſed to ſend to the Dukes of Maine and Eſpernon to join her with their forces; but RICHLIEU apprehending that if thoſe two noblemen were about the Queen, he ſhould loſe that influence he had on her Majeſty's affairs, and not be able to play the game he intended, perſuaded her that ſhe was ſecure with the forces ſhe had at Angers, and procured an order from her that thoſe Lords ſhould remain in the provinces where they were; and by this means ruined the affairs of her Majeſty and her confederates: for the King's troops having a great ſuperiority, ſoon after fell upon a body of the Queen's, and defeated them; which ſo terrified her, that though ſhe had inſiſted on very extravagant terms before, ſhe was now content with ſuch as the King was pleaſed to grant. There was one ſecret article however conſented to in favour of RICHLIEU, which let people into the myſtery of the matter: he had made a merit of betraying his miſtreſs, and thereby obtained a promiſe from the King to procure him a Cardinal's cap of the Pope. When people ſaw therefore the whole body of malecontents ruined by the advice of this Prelate, the Queen obliged to return to court, and ſeveral Princes and great Lords excluded out of the treaty, and none of them any gainers by it but himſelf, they made no doubt of his having betrayed the Queen to whom he was ſo infinitely obliged, both before and afterwards. They were further confirmed in this conjecture, when they ſaw the Biſhop's niece married to the ſon of the Duke of Luines the prime miniſter: but the Queen was ſtill ſo far from believing him falſe to her, that ſhe made a conſiderable addition to his niece's portion.

The Queen compelled to accept a diſadvantageous peace by the treachery of RICHLIEU.

To proceed: The Dukes of Eſpernon and Guiſe, and the reſt of the malecontents, having laid down their arms, the Pope's nuntio uſed all his intereſt with the Duke of Luines to fall upon the Hugonots: and though this miniſter ſeemed to diſapprove of it, yet there were ſo many perſons about the court for ſuppreſſing them, that it was reſolved about this time to ſtrike at the whole body. They determined to begin with the province of Bearn, where the Proteſtants were moſt numerous: accordingly the King marched thither from Poictiers, where he then was with his army; but meeting with no reſiſtance, he contented himſelf with ordering maſs to be ſaid in the principal churches of the province, after it had been aboliſhed about fifty years.

Popery eſtabliſhed in Bearn again.

1621. An inſurrection by the Proteſtants of Bearn. An army ſent againſt them.

The Duke of Luines the following year procured a patent to be Conſtable of France; and the people of Bearn making an inſurrection on account of their religion, he ſent the Duke of Eſpernon, who was a mortal enemy to that perſuaſion, to ſuppreſs them. He found on his arrival that they had abandoned all their towns and villages, and were fled to the mountains: but the General ordering his ſoldiers not to hurt any of them, and obſerving an exact diſcipline, many of the people returned to their houſes again. However, theſe two attempts alarmed the Proteſtants pretty much; and as their churches at Tours, Poictiers, and other places had been burnt by the popiſh mob with impunity, they were pretty well aſſured there was a deſign formed againſt them to diveſt them of thoſe privileges they enjoyed by the edict of Nants.

A war commences between the Papiſts and Proteſtants.

The Proteſtants hereupon called a general aſſembly to conſult of their defence: the King ordered them to break up, but they refuſed, which was interpreted an overt-act of rebellion, and the court determined to ſeize on thoſe cities and towns which had been given them for their ſecurity. The Proteſtants on the other hand had recourſe to arms, and did not fail to retaliate the injuries they received. Towns were taken and retaken, and thus a war was on a ſudden commenced on all ſides. The firſt place that made any conſiderable defence againſt the Royaliſts was that of St John de Angeli, which held out a ſiege of two months, and then ſurrendered on condition of preſerving their religion, lives, liberties, and eſtates; but the houſes had been in a manner deſtroyed by the beſiegers, and the King razed their fortifications. After this the royaliſts took ſeveral other places, and being encouraged by their ſucceſs, laid ſiege to the ſtrong town of Montauban, but were forced to raiſe it after they had lain three months before the place, and loſt an incredible number of men; the diſgrace whereof is ſaid to have affected the Duke of Luines to that degree, that it threw him into a fever, of which he died.

LUINES the prime miniſter dies.

1622. The Queen-mother comes into the adminiſtration again. The Chiefs of the Hugonots forſake them.

The Queen-mother was about this time re-admitted into the council, in order to balance the Prince of Condé, who was thought to bear too great a ſway in it. Both of them were very zealous in proſecuting the war againſt the Hugonots, who being deſerted by moſt of their Chiefs, had the worſt of it every where. SULLY, BOUILLON, LESDIGUIERES, and CHATILLON, all went over to the court: they alledged, that their party would be under no government; that their general aſſemblies, and even ſynods of the clergy, pretended to direct their military operations; and that it was impoſſible to hope for ſucceſs where anarchy and confuſion reigned. However, a great part of the country was deſtroyed by the continual ravages of the one or the other party, the taxes conſequently fell ſhort, and the King was forced to take ſome extraordinary ways to raiſe money; ſome of which appeared ſo illegal and oppreſſive, that the parliament of Paris refuſed to ratify them, till the King coming thither in perſon, with the Princes of the blood, and great officers of ſtate, terrified them into a compliance. In this reign, it is obſerved, their parliaments had but very little authority; the court made no other uſe of them than to record the acts of the King and Council.

The parliament compelled to ratify the acts of the council.

The royaliſts went on ſucceſsfully, taking one place after another from the Hugonots. The Marquis de la Force alſo, who commanded their troops in Guienne, thought fit about this time to reconcile himſelf to the court, receiving of the King a Marſhal's ſtaff, and a conſiderable ſum of money, in conſideration of his deſerting his party, and delivering up the town of St Foy. The war yet continued very bloody: the town of Negrepeliſſe particularly having been taken by the royaliſts, and the garriſon afterwards over-powered and put to the ſword by the inhabitants; the King, upon the retaking it, ordered all the people in the town and caſtle to be maſſacred, except the women, who were nevertheleſs expoſed to the brutality of the ſoldiers. Cruelties of this kind were exerciſed in ſeveral other places; no wars, 'tis obſerved, being ever carried on with that rage and violence as thoſe which are occaſioned by difference in religion: murder and rapine are ſanctified in the opinion of both ſides, by the righteouſneſs of the cauſe.

The civil war very bloody.

A peace concluded.

About this time LESDIGUIERES was made Conſtable of France, on account of his ſkill in military affairs, and his complaiſance to the court in turning Papiſt: and the Proteſtants being induced by their ill Succeſs to deſire peace, the Conſtable procured them a pardon and liberty of conſcience, which put an end to the war; though there were ſome of the Miniſters whom nothing would ſatisfy but a total extirpation of the Hugonots.

RICHLIEU made Cardinal.

RICHLIEU this year received his Cardinal's cap by the ſollicitations of the Queen-mother, for which he promiſed everlaſting gratitude; tho' it is obſerved, his gratitude and acknowledgments laſted no longer than her friendſhip was advantageous to him. She would have procured him alſo a place in the council, but was not able to effect it till near two years after, the Miniſtry had ſuch a jealouſy of him; whereupon he ſtill continued to exerciſe the office of Steward of the Queen's houſe, and made his court to her with his uſual diligence.

1623.

The kingdom now enjoying peace at home and abroad, nothing remarkable happened this year, unleſs ſome changes in the Miniſtry; Count SCHOMBERG was turned out of his places of Superintendant of the finances, and Grand Maſter of the ordnance, and the old Chancellor SILLERY was obliged to reſign.

1624. Cardinal RICHLIEU admitted into the council of ſtate. Becomes prime Miniſter. The match between the Prince of Wales and the Princeſs Henrietta.

The year 1624 was propitious to Cardinal RICHLIEU, who, at the repeated inſtances of the Queen-mother, was admitted into the council of ſtate, where there being ſcarce any perſon of great experience or capacity at this time, he ſoon obtained the entire diſpoſal of publick affairs. One of the firſt things that fell under his management was the match between CHARLES Prince of Wales, and the Princeſs HENRIETTA the King's ſiſter. The principal articles the French inſiſted on were liberty of conſcience for the Engliſh Catholicks; a church for the Princeſs's retinue, who were to be all Catholicks, and the education of the children of this marriage in the ſame religion. The two firſt were abſolutely refuſed by the Engliſh Ambaſſadors; and as to the laſt it was agreed, the children ſhould remain in the hands of the Princeſs till ten years of age, and that ſhe might have the direction of their education in the mean time. The French were to pay eight hundred thouſand crowns for her marriage-portion, one half at London the evening before the marriage, two hundred thouſand crowns a year afterwards, and the remainder ſix months after that. Her jointure was agreed to be ſixty thouſand crowns per ann. which is but a trifle to that ſettled on the preſent Queen of England, tho' voluntarily granted after marriage, without any conſideration had to the marriage-portion.

France and Spain diſpute the poſſeſſion of the Valteline.

The affair of the Valteline came upon the carpet next: The Spaniards, it ſeems, in the reign of HENRY IV, had built the Fort of Fuentes in the Valteline, which belongs to the Griſons, to preſerve their communication between Germany and Italy, that they might not be always obliged to aſk leave of the Swiſs or the Griſons when they had occaſion to march their troops that way. France and Italy were both alarmed at this ſtep, imagining the houſe of Auſtria had ſome great deſign in view; but the Spaniards pretended they had built this fort only to protect the Catholick religion in the Valteline, which they apprehended would be extirpated by the Griſons, who were Sovereigns of it. This appeared afterwards only a ſham to lull the Italian States aſleep, the Spaniards proceeding to build four other forts, in order to make themſelves entirely maſters of this valley, which is a country about thirty miles in length, and naturally ſo well defended by rocks and precipices, that whoever poſſeſſes it, may, with a ſmall force, prevent the greateſt armies paſſing between Germany and Italy.

The French ſpent a great deal of time in treaties and negotiations to prevail with the Spaniards to demoliſh theſe forts, which they often promiſed to do, but never effected. An alliance was thereupon

upon entered into between the French, the Duke of Savoy, and the Venetians, in the year 1623, to compel them to quit the forts, and reſtore the Griſons to the ſovereignty of the Valteline. The Spaniards finding it would be difficult to maintain their ground, put their forts into the hands of the Pope, aſſuring his Holineſs they had no other deſign than the preſervation of the Catholick religion; and by this artifice they avoided a war, and engaged the Pope on their ſide. In the mean time the paſſes remained open to their troops, and they did not doubt the getting the forts out of the hands of the Pope again, as ſoon as the alliance above-mentioned ſhould be diſſolved. When the Cardinal came into the miniſtry, he determined to ſpend very little time in negotiations on this affair: the Spaniards and Pope refuſing to demoliſh the forts, he immediately hired ſix thouſand Swiſs and Griſons, and ſent them into the Valteline, under the command of the Marquis de Cœuvres, to endeavour to recover the poſſeſſion of it. The Pope's troops were ſo terrified at their approach, that they abandoned moſt of the forts, and gave the Marquis an opportunity of ſeizing the beſt part of the country, which he held a conſiderable time with the conſent of the Griſons, who were glad to ſhake off the Auſtrian yoke, and recover their ſovereignty. In the mean time, the Pope made loud complaints of the injuſtice and diſhonour that was done him at the court of France, which were not much regarded by the Cardinal.

1625. The French and the Duke of Savoy attempt the conqueſt of the ſtate of Genoa.

Another enterprize was concerted the following year between the Cardinal and the Duke of Savoy, which made a great noiſe. The French and the Duke having each of them their pretenſions on the Republick of Genoa, it was agreed privately to raiſe an army of thirty thouſand men, and attempt the conqueſt of that country; and if they ſucceeded, to divide it between them. The Genoeſe, and the reſt of the Italian Princes, obſerved the preparations of war that were making on their frontiers, but imagined they were deſigned to ſupport the French troops in the Valteline, till they ſaw them join and march directly for Genoa. The country being utterly unprovided againſt ſuch an invaſion, they made themſelves maſters of all the towns in the Genoeſe territories, except the capital and Savona: but the Conſtable LESDIGUIERES, who commanded the French, and the Duke, falling out about dividing the ſpoil, and the Spaniards ſending an army of thirty thouſand men at the ſame time to the aſſiſtance of the Genoeſe, the French and Savoyards were forced to abandon their conqueſts with the ſame ſpeed that they made them. The French might have ſupported their troops in the territories of the Genoeſe indeed by timely reinforcements, but they had no mind to enter into a formal war with the Spaniards, while the Rochellers and the reſt of the Hugonots were in arms.

The war breaks out again between the Hugonots and Papiſts.

The French court, it ſeems, on the concluſion of the laſt peace with the Rochellers, had ſtipulated to demoliſh Fort Lewis near that city, which was built in order to block them up on the land-ſide. The government taking no care to put this part of the treaty in execution, the Rochellers preſented a petition to his Majeſty on that ſubject, and meeting with nothing more than fair words, were reſolved to do themſelves juſtice forthwith; whereas, ſays my author, had they waited till the King had been engaged in a war with Spain, which ſeemed almoſt inevitable at this time, neceſſity would have obliged him to have kept his word with them; but being governed more by their paſſions than good policy, they aſſembled a fleet to make repriſals, and giving the command of it to SOUBIZE, he ſeized upon ſeven of the King's ſhips in the port of Blavet or Breſt. They afterwards attempted to ſurprize Fort Lewis, in which they did not meet with ſo good ſucceſs. However, they made frequent excurſions, and ravaged all the country round in the poſſeſſion of the royaliſts, which the Governor of Fort Lewis was not able to prevent. SOUBIZE alſo poſſeſſed himſelf of the iſlands of Rhee and Oleron, on the laſt of which he built three forts for the defence of it. The Hugonots alſo in Languedoc, being aſſembled by the Duke of Rohan, had frequent ſkirmiſhes with the royaliſts.

The French hire Engliſh and Dutch ſhips againſt the Rochellers.

The French King about this time hired twenty or thirty ſhips of the Hollanders, and procured ſeven or eight more of the court of England, to be employed in the expedition againſt Genoa; but the Rochellers being maſters of all the ſea-coaſts, ſo that no ſhips could go in or out of their ports without danger of falling into their hands, the King determined to ſend the ſhips he had procured of the Engliſh and Dutch, to ſuppreſs the naval power of the Rochellers, and deprive them of the iſlands they had poſſeſſed themſelves of. The Engliſh mariners underſtanding they were to fight againſt their friends the Rochellers, left their ſhips, of which ſeven were merchant-men, and the other a man of war, with the French Admiral, and returned to England, where great complaints were made to the government againſt the court of France for abuſing the Engliſh, in employing their ſhips againſt Rochelle, which were lent for another ſervice. The King of England however being juſt married to the Princeſs HENRIETTA a daughter of France, and entered into an alliance with that crown againſt Spain, did not think it proper immediately to break with his brother-in-law, till he had firſt expoſtulated the matter with him by way of negotiation.

The Hollanders were not ſo ſcrupulous as the Engliſh on this occaſion; for tho' the Rochellers were Calviniſts, of the ſame communion with themſelves, yet in conſideration of a penſion of ſix hundred thouſand crowns per annum, which they annually received of the French King, and in hopes of his entering into an alliance with them againſt their old enemy the Spaniard, they ſuffered their admiral and his whole fleet to aſſiſt in the deſtruction of their Proteſtant brethren. They put themſelves under the command of MONTMORENCY, the French Admiral, and having aſſiſted THOYRAS, Governor of Fort Lewis, in his deſcent on the iſles of Rhee and Oleron, out of which he beat SOUBIZE, they afterwards ruined the beſt part of the Rochelle fleet, and among the reſt their Admiral who periſhed bravely however; for three of the enemies ſhips being grappled with him, he ſet fire to his powder, which blew them all up into the air together.

1626.

The Rochellers being reduced to very low circumſtances, blocked up on the land-ſide by the forts which had been built by the royaliſts, deprived of the ſupplies of proviſions they uſed to receive from the iſles of Rhee and Oleron, and uncapable of procuring ſupplies by ſea on the loſs of their fleet, ſent deputies to the French King, imploring his mercy, and deſiring peace on almoſt any terms. However, as nothing leſs would ſatisfy the court than the ſurrender of their town, and the demoliſhing the fortifications, they returned home with out effecting any thing. But the court of England, about this time, demanding the reſtitution of the ſhips that had been lent the French King, which were refuſed, and reſolving to aſſiſt the Rochellers, the Cardinal was inclined to grant that people better terms: He inſiſted on no more at this time, than that the Roman Catholicks ſhould be allowed the free exerciſe of their religion in Rochelle, and that the eſtates and goods of the Eccleſiaſticks ſhould be reſtored to them: and, on the other hand, he agreed the Hugonots ſhould have the benefit of the edict of Nants, and ſhould not be moleſted by Fort Lewis, or any of the forts erected in the iſles of Rhee or Oleron, but might peaceably enjoy the eſtates they had there. And when the Cardinal was reproached with being a friend to Hugonots on this occaſion, becauſe he would not extirpate them when it was in his power, he let thoſe he was moſt intimate with underſtand, that he fully intended to deſtroy them, and only granted them this peace (which he deſigned to break the firſt opportunity) till he had ſettled ſome foreign negociations: and the Proteſtants themſelves were ſo ſenſible of this, that they ſent **Soubize** to England notwithſtanding the peace, to ſollicit for a re-inforcement. The Cardinal had two great inducements for concluding this agreement with the Hugonots; one of them was, that he might make the better terms with Spain, which court remained very intractible while they found France engaged in a civil war: the other was the breaking of the power of the Princes of the blood and great Lords, who, from the beginning, were uneaſy to ſee the adminiſtration of the government entruſted ſolely in his hands by the King.

Peace with the Rochellers again.

Peace with Spain.

The peace with Spain he accompliſhed the ſame year; the principal articles whereof were, that the Valteline ſhould be put into the ſame condition it was in the year 1617; that the ſovereignty of that country ſhould be left to the Griſons; that they ſhould be maſters of the paſſes as formerly, but that the Roman Catholick religion only ſhould be exerciſed in the Valteline; that they ſhould be at liberty to chuſe a Catholick Griſon Governor, and their Magiſtrates alſo be all Catholicks; that the forts in the Valteline ſhould be immediately razed, and that neither party ſhould give any aſſiſtance to their allies who refuſed to acquieſce in this treaty.

The Cardinal ſets himſelf to depreſs the power of the Princes of the blood and great men.

The Cardinal being arrived to ſuch a degree of power at this time, that more court was made to him than to the King or the Princes of the blood, began to think how he might eſtabliſh his grandeur, and prevent the cabals of the great men againſt him. The perſon he was moſt apprehenſive of, was the Marſhal d'Ornano, Governor to the King's brother the Duke of Orleans: for the King being infirm, and having no children at this time, the nation began to caſt their eyes upon the Duke, as like to ſucceed to the crown; and as d'Ornano was obſerved to have no leſs influence over that Prince, than **Richlieu** had over the King, the Cardinal at firſt propoſed the making d'Ornano his friend, not doubting, if he was ſupported by the favourite of the firſt Prince of the blood, the preſumptive heir of the crown, he need not be concerned at the envy of the reſt of the Grandees. But **Richlieu** not finding d'Ornano tractable, or diſpoſed to ſupport his tyranny, began to look upon him as his enemy, and it was not long before he reſolved his deſtruction; to effect which, he made uſe of Father **Joseph**, a Capuchin, who pretended a great eſteem and friendſhip for the Marſhal, led him into diſcourſes which rendered him obnoxious to the government. He alſo put him upon demanding of his Majeſty, that Monſieur the Duke of Orleans might be admitted into the council, and made General of the army; with which the King immediately accquainted the Cardinal, and demanded his opinion. This Prelate put the moſt odious conſtructions imaginable upon theſe propoſitions; and as he knew his Majeſty to be of a fearful jealous temper, he ſaid the Marſhal had inſpired too ambitious thoughts into his brother, who was immediately to ſucceed to the crown, in caſe his Majeſty had no children; that he demanded the command of the army only to make uſe of it againſt him that gave it, or at leaſt, that he might ſhare the government with him; and that the Marſhal would infallibly, one time or other, draw Monſieur into ſome deſtructive ſcheme againſt the ſtate. He acquainted the King alſo with ſome arguments which was reported d'Ornano had uſed to diſſuade Monſieur from marrying Madamoiſelle de Montpenſier; as that if he eſpouſed one of the King's ſubjects, he would himſelf become more a ſubject than before, and his fortune would be abſolutely in the hands of the King's Miniſter; whereas if he made a foreign alliance, it might be of uſe to him if the King gave himſelf up to the haughty and violent ſpirit of the Cardinal.

The King giving credit to theſe inſinuations, in order to take Monſieur out of the hands of d'Ornano, admitted him voluntarily into the cabinet-council; whereupon the Marſhal deſired, that he might be admitted alſo as had been promiſed him under the miniſtry of **Luines**, or at leaſt that he might ſtand by him in council as one of the Secretaries; but both were denied him: whereupon 'tis ſaid, he ſhewed his diſcontent in terms very diſpleaſing to his Majeſty, and two days after he was arreſted with ſome other of Monſieur's officers, and carried priſoner to the caſtle of Vincennes, being charged with conſpiring againſt the King and the prime miniſter, in order to render himſelf maſter of the government. But whether the Marſhal and his friends were in any plot or not, 'tis certain, this violent proceeding againſt him occaſioned a plot againſt the Cardinal, which was very near being fatal to him.

A conſpiracy againſt the Cardinal.

For Monſieur having notice of the impriſonment of the Marſhal, went to his Majeſty and demanded the reaſon of it, and told him, if he put the Marſhal to death, who was an innocent man, he would die with him; that he ſaw he was fallen into the ſnare his enemies had long laid for him, and he hoped, that the juſtice of his Majeſty would not abandon his brother, and an officer of the crown, to the fury of their enemies. That if he ever diſcovered the author of the Marſhal's impriſonment, nothing but the arms of his Majeſty ſhould ſave him from his revenge. Theſe tranſports only ſerving to augment the diſtruſt, which the Cardinal endeavoured to raiſe in the King's mind againſt Monſieur; and there being no hopes of procuring d'Ornano's liberty, nine or ten perſons of diſtinction, friends to the Duke of Orleans, entered into a reſolution to aſſaſſinate the Cardinal at Fleury, where he then was. The Marquis de Chalais, who was one of the number, diſcovered the deſign to **Valencay**, one of his intimate friends, in hopes he would have engaged with them; but **Valencay**, on the contrary cenſured the enterprize, and aſſured him, that he would diſcover it to the Cardinal, unleſs he would do it himſelf, and thereby make his peace with that Prelate. Whereupon they went together to Fleury, where Chalais made ſuch a diſcovery of the matter as he ſaw fit; particularly he told the Cardinal, that Monſieur, under pretence of coming to dine with him the next day, would ſend his officers early in the morning in order to provide a dinner for him, but that the true deſign was to increaſe the ſtrength of the conſpirators. Accordingly at three of the clock in the morning, Monſieur's people came to Fleury, as if they were to prepare a dinner; whereupon the Cardinal left his apartment, and with a numerous retinue came to Fontainbleau, where the King then was. He went immediately to Monſieur's chamber, who was juſt riſing, and extremely ſurprized to ſee him there; he expoſtulated with him, that he would not permit him to get a dinner for him, and told him, that he had left his houſe to the Duke's people as ſoon as they appeared. The Cardinal's enemies could not apprehend how he had diſcovered the deſign, there being none concerned in it but thoſe whom they believed they might rely upon. The Cardinal, to conceal the perſon he had it from, pretended he had received the intelligence from abroad, and ordered Count Chalais to diſſemble himſelf to be of the ſame party ſtill, that he might the better penetrate into the depth of his enemies deſigns. Chalais accordingly deceived his friends a ſecond time; he confeſſed he had made a diſcovery in part, to prevent Valencay's doing it before him, but that he would ſtill be faithful to them, and aſſiſt in the execution of the matter.

Beſides the Duke of Orleans, ſeveral others of the firſt quality were accuſed, as Count Soiſſons another Prince of the blood, the Duke of Longueville, the Duke of Vendoſme, the Grand Prior of France, the Duke of Eſpernon, the Duke of Chevreuſe, the Marquis de Valette, and many more; of whom the Grand Prior, the Duke of Vendoſme, and ſeveral others were apprehended and carried to the caſtle of Vincennes. Monſieur hereupon was about to withdraw himſelf from the court; but the Cardinal apprehending this might be to the diſadvantage of his projects, employed ſome of his agents to divert him from it; and having ſufficiently terrified him with the threats of the King's diſpleaſure, offered him at length, that if he would deſert the party, who had put him upon the late attempts againſt his perſon, he would become his faſt friend, and procure him whatever he could deſire of his Majeſty. The Duke of Orleans conſidering, that if he complyed with the Cardinal, he ſhould not only eſcape a proſecution, which might be fatal to him, but be reſtored to the King's favour, and might advance his intereſt in many other particulars; let that Prelate know, that if he would ſtay the proceedings againſt Marſhal d'Ornano, and increaſe his revenue an hundred thouſand florins per ann. and admit him to marry whom he pleaſed, he would unite his intereſts with him. The Cardinal, after ſome conſideration, agreed to indulge him in all theſe particulars.

The Duke of Orleans becomes dependent on the Cardinal.

Richlieu tries the great men by an extraordinary commiſſion.

In the mean time a ſpecial commiſſion was iſſued for the trial of Count Chalais; for tho' Richlieu had promiſed him his favour on making a full diſcovery, and his teſtifying ſome particulars which he had ſuggeſted to him, yet under pretence he had not been ingenuous in his confeſſion, he reſolved to proceed with the utmoſt ſeverity; and becauſe he was apprehenſive, that the parliaments or ordinary courts of juſtice might not convict him, or rather, ſays my author, to let the great men ſee, that if they caballed againſt him, there was no way of avoiding his revenge, he inſtituted this new method of trial, which the Miniſters frequently made uſe of afterwards to deſtroy thoſe that oppoſed them. And it ſeems the Cardinal had prevailed upon the Duke of Orleans himſelf to teſtify, that Chalais had adviſed him to withdraw from court, and offered to furniſh him with the means of doing it. It was depoſed againſt him alſo, that he had reconciled himſelf to the party that were to deſtroy the Cardinal, and engaged in that deſign a ſecond time. To which the priſoner anſwered, He had indeed pretended to do ſo, but it was in order to ſerve the Cardinal, and by his and the King's particular orders. But however that matter really was, it ſeems, he thought it convenient to take Chalais off; and ſentence being paſſed on him to loſe his head, this Miniſter ſuffered it to be executed. So dangerous is it to play a double game; or rather, ſo little dependance is there to be had on the promiſe of a Miniſter.

Among other diſcoveries that, 'tis ſaid, were made on this occaſion, it is reported, that d'Ornano had told the Queen-conſort, that if the King died, the Duke of Orleans might lawfully marry her: nay, that they had talked of declaring the King impotent, and putting him into a monaſtery, and even of marrying her to Monſieur his brother, in his life-time. But theſe probably were ſuggeſtions of Richlieu's, to render his Majeſty's neareſt relations ſuſpected, that he might depend ſolely on the prime miniſter. And indeed Count Soiſſons, one of the Princes of the blood, having ſeen the fate of Chalais, and been charged with a deſign of going to Rochelle, to put himſelf at the head of the Hugonots, as many other of the Nobility were with other crimes, they thought fit to leave the kingdom, or retire and live privately on their eſtates: ſo that the Cardinal had now a clear ſtage; ſcarce any of the Grandees were left at court, except the Duke of Orleans, and him he had made dependent on him. As to d'Ornano, he died in the caſtle of Vincennes of a fever, as it was given out, tho' ſome reported he was poiſoned. In his laſt moments, being about to take the ſacrament, he ſwore upon his ſalvation, that the Duke of Orleans had never harboured a thought againſt the King's perſon as he could perceive, and that thoſe about him had never given him any ſuch advice; but that the Duke ſeeing himſelf entirely excluded from the government, which was paſſed into the hands of the Cardinal, had only ſought means to leſſen the exceſſive power of that Miniſter, and to obtain a ſhare of it himſelf. That whatever more had been ſaid was falſe, or never came to his knowledge.

The Duke of Orleans marries.

Richlieu having reconciled the King to his brother the Duke of Orleans, and made him his friend, in appearance at leaſt, procured his Majeſty's conſent for his marrying Madamoiſelle de Montpenſier. The King alſo gave his Highneſs the duchies of Orleans and Chartres, with the county of Blois, beſides five hundred and ſixty thouſand livres annual penſion; and his wife brought him an eſtate of three hundred and thirty thouſand livres per ann. and being poſſeſſed of ſo noble a revenue, this Prince now thought of nothing but indulging his pleaſures, and ſeemed to have forgot the ill uſage he had received: but he was the only perſon, it is obſerved, that was concerned in the conſpiracy againſt the Cardinal, that did not ſuffer either in his perſon, his fortune, or reputation. Even the Queen-conſort was brought before the Council, and reproached by the King, for entertaining thoughts of a ſecond huſband in his life-time.

A guard appointed the Cardinal.

As the Cardinal had exaſperated the Princes of the blood, and acquired the hatred of moſt of the Nobility by his arbitrary and contemptuous behaviour towards them, he was ſenſible this would not be the laſt conſpiracy formed againſt him. He procured the Pope's Nuncio therefore to repreſent to his Majeſty the danger he had incurred by the zeal he expreſſed for his ſervice; whereupon the King appointed him guards like a ſovereign Prince for his ſecurity, believing that his crown and government depended entirely on the life of this Prelate. He ordered alſo, that whoever had any buſineſs with him, ſhould firſt apply to ſome other miniſter, from whom he was to obtain a licence in writing to ſee the Cardinal, before the Captain of his guard might permit the perſon to enter his gates.

Thus having fortified himſelf againſt all ſurprize, he determined to render the King (or rather himſelf) abſolute in his dominions. And firſt he ſummoned an aſſembly of the Notables, to approve and give a ſanction to his adminiſtration. This aſſembly conſiſted of Monſieur the Duke of Orleans, Preſident; the Cardinal de la Valette; the Marſhals de la Force and Baſſompierre; the firſt and ſecond Preſidents of the parliament of Paris; of the firſt Preſidents of the eight other parliaments of the kingdom; of the Procurators, or Attorney-Generals; of the firſt and ſecond Preſidents of the chambers of accounts of Paris, Rouen, and Dijon, with their Attorney-Generals, and thoſe of the three courts of aids; the Lieutenant-civil of Paris; ſix Knights of the order of the Holy Ghoſt; ſix of the Council, and twelve Prelates.

An aſſembly of the Notables called.

Antiently when the ſtate of the kingdom was to be conſidered, new laws made, or taxes raiſed, it had been uſual to convene the three eſtates of the kingdom, that is, the repreſentatives of the Clergy, Nobility, and great towns, without whoſe approbation nothing paſſed into a law. But the Cardinal deſpairing of having his meaſures approved by theſe, reſolved entirely to diſuſe it, and convene the Notables, who were ſometimes alſo called together upon emergencies, when there was not time or opportunity for a meeting of the States: and the court being at liberty to pick out whom they pleaſed to conſtitute theſe aſſemblies, ſeldom failed of having their conduct approved by them. Theſe therefore the Cardinal did not doubt of modelling according to his wiſhes, and to make them ratify whatever he had tranſacted.

His Majeſty being preſent at the opening of the aſſembly, acquainted them, that he had called them together to remedy the diſorders of the ſtate; and that the Keeper of the Seals would further declare his pleaſure. The Keeper MURILLAC thereupon ſaid, that the King had convened them to receive their advice on the important affairs of the government, in imitation of his predeceſſors, who ſometimes aſſembled the three Eſtates, and ſometimes the Notables (or Perſons of Diſtinction) conſiſting of a leſs number: then having made a panegyric on his Majeſty, he thanked heaven for the diſcovery of the conſpiracies formed againſt him (or rather the Cardinal). He let them know that the government was greatly in debt, by the charges the civil war had occaſioned, and the penſions given to the allies of the crown and the great men of the kingdom. That the King had been obliged to raiſe money by various means, and yet the treaſury was above fifty millions in debt, from the conſtant deficiencies of thoſe ſupplies. That his Majeſty would endeavour to retrench his private expences, and regulate his finances; but ſtill means muſt be found out to augment his revenues, and to put him into a condition to repreſs the frequent conſpiracies and rebellions formed againſt the government; and that his Majeſty would order the eſtimates for theſe purpoſes to be laid before the aſſembly. The reader will forgive me reciting the heads of this ſpeech for the reſemblance it has to ſome more modern ſpeeches, that have been frequently made in a neighbouring kingdom.

1627. The Notables grant all the taxes and forces the court demands.

When money, the ultimate end of all ſpeeches of this nature, was propoſed to be raiſed, it was with the greateſt readineſs agreed to be done by the creation of a multitude of new offices, or a charge upon thoſe that were already in being; by cuſtoms and duties on goods, manufactures, and the produce of the earth, ſuch as were never known before. And one deſign of aſſembling the Notables, no doubt, was, that the people might diſcharge their rage upon them for theſe oppreſſions, while the Miniſtry, who were the contrivers of them, eſcaped their cenſure. The Notables ſhewed an equal zeal to raiſe what forces the court demanded for ſea and land-ſervice; and, in ſhort, like ſome other aſſemblies in theſe days, denied nothing that was demanded of them. Nor is it to be ſuppoſed they ſhould, when moſt of them had places or penſions; and while they gave the King with one hand, received part of the ſupplies they granted with the other. The intereſt of the nation, we may be ſure, was much ſtudied by theſe mercenary creatures.

There was a great deal of talk, ſays my author, of re-eſtabliſhing navigation and commerce, of which Cardinal RICHLIEU was made ſuperintendant; but his projects produced very little fruit, any more than a great many others that were ſet on foot during his adminiſtration to amuſe the nation and render him popular. The ſubjects were exhauſted and impoveriſhed by taxes, to maintain unprofitable wars while he was at the helm, and conſequently foreign trade could not be carried on to any great advantage.

War between France and England.

In the mean time there happened ſome miſunderſtandings between the courts of France and England, which at length broke out into an open war. The French had employed the Engliſh ſhips which were lent them to aſſiſt in the ſiege of Genoa againſt the Rochellers, and refuſed to reſtore them, as has been obſerved already; whereupon the Engliſh made repriſals, by ſtopping ſeveral French merchant-ſhips in the ports of England. The court of France on the other hand ſeized the effects of the Engliſh merchants in that kingdom to the value of two or three hundred thouſand pounds. But theſe differences had been accommodated, and the ſhips and merchandizes reciprocally returned. A further breach however was made between the two nations the following year 1627, by the indiſcretion of ſome of the Queen of England's ſervants, that did ill offices between the two courts. The Queen, as has been mentioned already, was allowed, by the articles of marriage, to entertain French Roman Catholicks

and

Inſolence of the popiſh prieſts in England.

and popiſh prieſts in her ſervice; who were ever endeavouring to promote the intereſt of their country and religion, and making what proſelytes they could to their faith; which gave great offence to ſome Engliſh Proteſtants, and occaſioned ill-natured reflections on his Majeſty, as his being inclined to popery, encouraging it, &c. But the prieſts in the Queen's retinue ſtill gave the King greater occaſion to complain, when they engaged her Majeſty to walk to the common gallows at Tyburn, to adore the ſaints and martyrs of her religion, who had been executed there in the two precedings reigns. This, and the differences they daily created between the King and her, occaſioned his Majeſty to diſmiſs them all at once, to the number of two hundred and twenty; among whom was the Biſhop of Mende. They received, however, in wages and preſents, the value of two and twenty thouſand pounds and upwards, before they were ſent back.

The French King complained of this tranſaction as a breach of the articles of marriage, and ordered the Engliſh ſhipping in his ports to be detained, tho' the King of England ſent over the Lord CARLETON to repreſent the neceſſity of proceeding in this manner for the peace of the nation, as well as that of the royal family.

The King of England. ſends relief to the Rochellers.

The French court remaining inexorable, the court of England hearkened to the ſollicitations of SOUBIZE in behalf of the French Proteſtants, and determined to ſend a fleet of ſhips to the aſſiſtance of the Rochellers, who were in a manner blocked up by the forts built about their town; and a declaration was drawn up in the name of the Duke of Bucks, who was appointed both Admiral and General in the expedition, wherein there are three motives mentioned for entring into this war:

Declaration of war againſt France.

1. That the French having entered into an alliance with the Engliſh for the reſtoration of the Elector Palatine, and agreed to join their forces with thoſe of his Britiſh Majeſty, and march in conjunction into Germany to his aſſiſtance, the French did not only fail in furniſhing their quota of troops for that expedition, but denied the Engliſh forces that came over to Calais in order to join them, the liberty of landing there; whereby moſt of the forces periſhed on board, and the expedition was ruined. 2. That the French King, contrary to his treaties with his Proteſtant ſubjects, of which the King of England was guarantee, had blocked up their towns and forts. And, 3. That he had ſeized all the Engliſh ſhipping and merchandize in his ports. But whatever were the declared or concealed reaſons for aſſiſting the Rochellers, the Duke of Bucks with a fleet conſiſting of an hundred ſail of men of war and tranſports, ſet ſail from Portſmouth the ſeventh of June, and came before Rochelle about a month afterwards, when they refuſed to admit him or any of his people into the city, notwithſtanding they had ſent SOUBIZE, brother to the Duke of Rohan, over into England to implore aid of the Engliſh court; nor could SOUBIZE with all his importunity prevail with the Rochellers to act in concert with the Engliſh fleet. They ſaid, they thanked his Britiſh Majeſty and the Duke for their kind intentions; but as there was a treaty of union between them and the reſt of their brethren in the ſeveral provinces of France, they durſt not accept of foreign ſuccours till they knew their reſolutions. But this ſurely ſhould have been thought of before they had put the Engliſh to the charge of this great armament, and drawn them into a war againſt this kingdom; and no doubt the Proteſtants of the other provinces had long ſince been conſulted upon that point: but the true reaſon of this abundant caution, was certain advice they had received from their brethren the Engliſh ſectaries, that King CHARLES either deſigned to make himſelf maſter of their city, and perhaps introduce epiſcopacy there, which they dreaded equal to popery; or that the King of England would make peace with France, and deliver them up to the mercy of their enraged Sovereign. The Duke might juſtly have been provoked at the fickleneſs and unkind ſuſpicions of the Rochellers, and left them to ſhift for themſelves; but becauſe he was unwilling to return to England without effecting any thing, after the kingdom had been at ſuch a vaſt expence to ſend relief to the French Proteſtants, he determined to land his forces on the iſle of Rhee, which lies near Rochelle, to give the citizens time to conſider their true intereſt. I don't doubt but SOUBIZE repreſented to him how ungovernable the Hugonots generally were, even when they were commanded by thoſe of their own nation of the firſt quality: that their preachers would frequently defeat the beſt-laid deſigns of their Generals, through their ſuperſtition and bigotry: that his father, the Duke of Rohan, who was at that inſtant drawing their forces together to oppoſe the Prince of Condé, was far from being obeyed as he ought, and as the neceſſity of their affairs required; and that moſt of the heads of their party had gone over to the court, as deſpairing of ſucceſs where the multitude were under no command; but that they were a well-meaning afflicted people, and it would be glorious to him if he ſhould attempt to deliver them from the tyranny and oppreſſion they laboured under, even without their concurrence.

The Duke of Bucks makes a deſcent on the iſle of Rhee.

Theſe conſiderations, or ſomething of the like nature, was probably ſuggeſted to the Duke by the French Proteſtants on board the fleet, or he would not have made a deſcent on the iſle of Rhee, where there was a conſiderable body of French troops drawn together to oppoſe his landing. The French hiſtorians ſay he was repulſed three times, in which he loſt a great many brave men, but carried his point at laſt, and obliged THOYRAS, the Governor, to retire into the caſtle of St Martin's, and other forts upon the iſland, with his troops. Had the Duke immediately laid ſiege to the caſtle, it is computed he might have carried it in a fortnight's time: but he ſeems to have been totally unprovided for a ſiege, and therefore propoſed only to block up the forts, and prevent any ſupplies of ammunition and proviſion being thrown into them, till he could be furniſhed with materials proper for a ſiege from England or Rochelle. And indeed the Rochellers, when they had conſidered the advantage the poſſeſſion of the iſle of Rhee would be to them, that many of their eſtates lay there, and they had great part of their proviſion from thence, they did vouchſafe to ſupply the Duke with ſome forces and other neceſſaries towards the reducing of St Martin's. But it was now too late: Cardinal RICHLIEU had found means to tranſport ſuch numbers of troops into the iſland, that the French were become much ſuperior in numbers to the Engliſh.

He reimbarks his troops.

Whereupon the Duke, after having remained there three months, found himſelf under a neceſſity of raiſing the ſiege, and re-imbarking his troops for England; which was done with leſs loſs than could have been expected, conſidering they were to retire in the face of a numerous enemy. According to the Engliſh account, which ſeems to be the trueſt, they loſt two thouſand men in this expedition; but the French ſay eight; which is near as many as they had when they made the deſcent. The Rochellers, now ſenſible of the ſincerity of the Engliſh, parted good friends with the Duke of Bucks; and he promiſed to return with a more powerful reinforcement to their aſſiſtance the next ſpring.

One great occaſion of the Duke's not carrying the caſtle of St Martin's, and making himſelf maſter of the iſle of Rhee, was the dilatorineſs of the Earl of Holland; who being intruſted to carry the neceſſary ſtores and ammunition to the iſle of Rhee for a ſiege, had got no further than Plymouth with them when the Duke returned to England; and it was by no means adviſable to hazard ſo great a fleet as the Duke had with him, longer upon the French coaſt in winter, if there had not been an army to oppoſe the operations: but as he began to want all neceſſaries, and the French troops were much ſuperior to thoſe he had with him, the Duke's retreat does not ſeem to deſerve any manner of cenſure, tho' the fanaticks, and the reſt of his domeſtick enemies, uſed him very ſcurrilouſly on this occaſion.

The French King continues the blockade of Rochelle.

1628.

A ſecond fleet ſent to the relief of Rochelle.

The French continued the blockade of Rochelle after the retreat of the Engliſh fleet, and during the winter built forts on the lines of circumvallation at little diſtances, which entirely cut off all communication between Rochelle and the country on the land ſide; and as the mouth of the harbour was about a mile in breadth, they began an amazing work, a ſtone wall twelve fathom wide at the foundation, and ſtrengthened with huge piles on each ſide, which was to be extended from either ſhore ſo far into the ſea, as to leave only a ſmall ſpace for the flux and reflux of the tide, in which they deſigned to ſink ſo many veſſels, as ſhould render the entrance into the harbour impracticable. The Rochellers obſerving they were in danger of being ſhut up by ſea and land, begged of the court of England to haſten their preparations, before theſe works were finiſhed. They repreſented that if this ſhould once be effected, no proviſions could be got into the town, and all the ſtrength of Europe would not be able to deliver them; they muſt be forced to ſubmit to a victorious and exaſperated Prince. Whereupon the King of England gave orders to work night and day on the fleet deſigned for the relief of Rochelle, which actually ſet ſail from Plymouth, under the command of the Earl of Denbigh, about the middle of April 1628, and arrived before Rochelle on the firſt of May. Notwithſtanding the wall or barricado above-mentioned gradually decreaſed in thickneſs as it was raiſed in height, yet was it broad enough at the top to erect little works upon it, to ſhelter the ſoldiers who were placed for the defence of it, and they ranged armed veſſels along the ſide of this mole for it's greater ſecurity. The French alſo had now ſo good an underſtanding with the Spaniards, that they procured a large ſquadron of men of war of them, which, joined with their own, compoſed a fleet of an hundred ſail, that prevented a great convoy of proviſions the Engliſh had got ready during the winter being put into the town. The Earl of Denbigh alſo found the works at the mouth of the harbour ſo far advanced, and the paſſage blocked up by veſſels that were ſunk in it, that if it had not been defended by the French fleet, yet would it have been impoſſible for his large ſhips to have entered it; whereupon after ſome fruitleſs attempts againſt the works, he was forced to return back without effecting any thing. The French Hugonots were very angry with the Engliſh that they had not ſent ſhips of leſs burthen, which they obſerved might have got into the harbour at this time, tho' theſe great veſſels could not; which poſſibly would have been complyed with, if the Rochellers had given them a particular account of their circumſtances: but it would not certainly have been prudent to have gone to the relief of this town only with ſmall ſhips, when the Engliſh court had received certain advice that the French and Spaniards lay before it with a fleet of an hundred ſail. But to return to the French army which blocked up Rochelle by land: The Cardinal, to animate the ſoldiery, who were almoſt wearied out with the length of the ſiege, prevailed upon the French King to remain with his army in perſon great part of the year; but the King having waited ſeven months, and there being ſtill no proſpect of the town's ſurrendering ſuddenly, he pretended extraordinary buſineſs, and returned to Paris, giving RICHLIEU a commiſſion, though a Cardinal and a Biſhop, to be Lieutenant-General of his armies, laying his commands on the Duke of Angouleme, the Marſhals BASSOMPIERRE and SCHOMBERG, and the reſt of his officers, to obey the Cardinal as they would his Majeſty if he were actually preſent.

RICHLIEU made Commander in chief of the army.

The Cardinal, though he underſtood very little of the conduct of an army, yet as he was of an active penetrating ſpirit, was very capable of receiving the advice of the Generals, and diſtinguiſhing what was feaſible and what not; nor would he refuſe the being concerned in perſon in the moſt difficult and hazardous enterprizes, tho' very foreign to his profeſſion, if he might be indulged with the ſupreme command and ſuperintendency of the affair. And how incongruous ſoever it might ſeem to make a Biſhop General of an army, as he was apprehenſive the ſiege might miſcarry in his abſence by the miſunderſtandings or private views of the general officers, thoſe that ſaw fartheſt into things thought he could not more effectually advance the ſervice than by taking the commaad upon himſelf. When the King left the army, he expreſſed the greateſt concern imaginable, that his affairs would not ſuffer him to take the Cardinal with him, and charged him not to be too prodigal in expoſing his perſon in the trenches every day as he was uſed to do, intimating that he could not live without him.

RICHLIEU apprehending that the army would ſuffer pretty much by a winter's campaign, took care that they ſhould be well paid and cloathed, and the camp always abounded with plenty of proviſions, which were brought in from the neighbouring country; his troops obſerved ſo exact a diſcipline, that the peaſants brought corn, wine, and fleſh, thither with as much ſecurity, and were better paid for it than they could expect to be in another market.

At the time the Engliſh fleet was expected under the command of the Earl of Denbigh, (as has been mentioned already) the Cardinal thought it adviſable that the King ſhould return to the camp for the encouragement of the ſoldiers, and his Majeſty accordingly arrived before Rochelle again on the 24th of April. When they ſaw the Engliſh ſquadron, and obſerved they were compoſed of large veſſels, they ſoon conjectured they would be able to do them very little hurt, becauſe there was not water enough at the entrance of the harbour for veſſels of that burthen to ride in: and ſo it proved; the Engliſh were obliged to retire without introducing any ſupplies of men or proviſions into the place, as has been related above.

The Duke of Bucks prepares for the relief of Rochelle again.

He is aſſaſſinated.

The Duke of Buckingham, notwithſtanding this diſappointment, was determined to attempt the relief of Rochelle in perſon once again: accordingly he gave orders for a greater ſea-armament than ever; he looked upon his reputation to be at ſtake, and ſeems reſolved to carry his point or periſh in the attempt; and as he apprehended it to be an enterprize of infinite difficulty and hazard, ſince ſuch ſtupendous works had been raiſed both on the ſea and land-ſide of the town, he took leave of his friends, as our hiſtorians inform us, as if he never expected to ſee them any more: particularly when he parted from Biſhop LAUD, it is reported that he deſired him to put his Majeſty in mind to be good to his wife and children; ſoon after which he repaired to Portſmouth, in order to go on board the fleet, but was ſtabbed there on the twenty-third of Auguſt by that aſſaſſin FELTON, a violent enthuſiaſt, who had been taught by the fanaticks his brethren, that the killing the Duke would be acceptable to God, and the greateſt ſervice he could do his country.

A third fleet ſent to Rochelle.

Rochelle ſurrenders.

The King ſtill purſued the deſign of relieving Rochelle, and made the Earl of Lindſey commander of the fleet, which ſet ſail from Portſmouth on the eighth of September; but when they arrived there, they found the huge wall at the mouth of the harbour finiſhed, and all the ſhore covered with French troops, and batteries raiſed at every place where there was any poſſibility of landing. The Earl, however, made ſeveral brave attempts to force his paſſage, but could not break through. Whereupon the Rochellers, who were now reduced to the laſt extremity (no leſs than fifteen thouſand of them having periſhed by famine) deſpairing of relief, thought fit to capitulate, and ſurrendered the eighth of October. The beſt terms they could obtain were a general pardon, and ſecurity as to their lives, liberties, and eſtates, upon which they were to deliver up the town, and take an oath never to bear arms againſt his Majeſty again. Nor had the terms been ſo good, but that the Engliſh fleet ſtill remained upon the coaſt, and there was ſome expectation that the tides, which are very high at the approach of the winter ſeaſon, might have demoliſhed part of the barricado at the mouth of the harbour, and given admiſſion to the Engliſh fleet. They were obliged conſequently to his Britiſh Majeſty for the enjoyment of their lives and eſtates, which had not been granted them, but for the countenance the royal navy of England gave them. And ſurely no Prince ever met with harder uſage than King CHARLES did on this occaſion: his own Proteſtant ſubjects thought it a ſufficient cauſe to enter into a rebellion againſt him, becauſe he did not ſupport the Proteſtant intereſt ſo effectually as they apprehended he might have done; and the French Catholicks thought themſelves juſtified in fomenting the inſurrection of his ſubjects, becauſe he had ſo ſtrenuouſly ſupported the Proteſtant Rochellers. It is agreed on all hands that the taking of this place gave the greateſt blow to the civil liberties of France, as well as to the Proteſtant religion there; for no ſooner were the Proteſtants diſarmed, and their cities, of which this was the moſt conſiderable, reduced, but the court found themſelves in a condition to put what terms they pleaſed on their fellow-ſubjects: whereas if the miniſtry were guilty of any acts of tyranny before this misfortune, the people, by the aſſiſtance of the Proteſtants, were generally able to make a ſtand, and defend their invaded liberties: and this was indeed the true reaſon that Cardinal RICHLIEU was determined to put them out of a condition of reſiſting again: till he had effected this, he could never hope to eſtabliſh a deſpotick power in that kingdom.

The deſtruction of the Calviniſts in France is generally aſcribed to the mercenary temper of their chiefs, and the ungovernable diſpoſition of their people. The court, by offering penſions and places to the grandees, drew off many of them; and the reluctance of the generality of the Hugonots to be under any command or government, diſguſted many more. When their Generals had concerted ſchemes for their advantage, is was ten to one but they were controuled and defeated by their ignorant enthuſiaſtical preachers, under pretence that God did not approve either of their perſons or their conduct; and thus the beſt-laid deſigns were often blaſted. Ambition and Emulation among their leaders for the ſupreme command, contributed alſo in a very great degree to the ruin of this people. But to proceed in our hiſtory: The King having taken poſſeſſion of Rochelle, publiſhed a declaration, whereby he reſtored the publick profeſſion of the Roman catholick religion in that city, and the country of Aunis contiguous to it. He ordered that the demoliſhed churches ſhould be rebuilt, and their revenues reſtored to the clergy. That a croſs ſhould be erected in the ſquare of the caſtle, with an inſcription ſhewing the time and manner of the reduction of the city. That the church where the Hugonots were uſed to aſſemble for divine worſhip in the caſtle, ſhould be converted into a cathedral, and the city by the Pope's permiſſion made a Biſhop's See. That the offices of Mayor and Sheriff ſhould be ſuppreſſed, and the corporation entirely diſſolved, and the city for the future governed by an intendant of juſtice appointed by his Majeſty. And finally, that the walls and fortifications ſhould be demoliſhed.

Compliments were made his Majeſty on the reduction of Rochelle by the Pope and other ſovereign Princes; an event, ſays my catholick author, of the utmoſt importance for the ſecurity of the King's dominions; a mortal blow to Calviniſm, and the moſt glorious to Cardinal RICHLIEU's adminiſtration.

The war in Languedoc.

While the King was at the ſiege of Rochelle, the Prince of Condé and the Duke of Montmorency, each of them, commanded an army in Languedoc againſt the Duke of Rohan and the Proteſtants who were in arms there; where being much ſuperior to their enemies, they ravaged the country, and uſed the poor Hugonots in the open towns very barbarouſly, but did not make themſelves maſters of Montauban, Niſmes, or any of their ſtrong places, which held out till the King returned victorious from the war in Italy, of which I am next to give an account.

The war in Italy on account of the ſucceſſion to Mantua.

VINCENT Duke of Mantua and Montferrat, dying in the year 1627 without iſſue, his honours and territories devolved on the Duke of Nevers; but the Spaniards being averſe to the ſucceſſion of a French nobleman, favoured the pretenſions of CÆSAR DE GONZAGA, Duke of Guaſtalla, who pretended alſo to be heir of the late Duke, and prevailed with the Emperor to grant him the inveſtiture of the duchy of Mantua. The French

King was no leſs zealous in ſupporting his ſubject the Duke of Nevers, than the Spaniards were in the behalf of the Duke of Guaſtalla; but being engaged in the ſiege of Rochelle, could afford him no other aſſiſtance at preſent than what was to be procured by negotiations with the Pope, the Venetians, and other Italian Princes. In the mean time the Spaniards and the Duke of Savoy ſeized on the greateſt part of the Montferrat, and agreed to divide it between them; ſcarce any conſiderable place except Caſal held out for the Duke of Mantua in that territory, and the Duke was reduced to great extremity in Mantua itſelf by the Emperor, who required him to ſequeſter the territories of Mantua into the hands of Count NASSAU, till his Imperial Majeſty ſhould have determined the right of the ſeveral pretenders.

The ſiege of Rochelle being now over, the King was determined to ſend an army to the relief of the Duke of Mantua, of which he at firſt declared the Duke of Orleans Lieutenant-General and Commander in chief: but his Majeſty, 'tis ſaid, envying his brother the glory of the enterprize, or rather the Cardinal not daring to truſt his Royal Highneſs at the head of ſo powerful an army, perſuaded the King to take the field in perſon; whereupon his Majeſty begun his march towards Italy on the ſixteenth of January 1628-9. The Duke of Orleans attended him as far as Lyons, and then returned to Paris, declaring he would not ſerve in an army where the Cardinal would command both him and the King.

The King marches at the head of his army to Italy.

1629. The French force the paſs of Suza.

The army being arrived at the foot of the Alps, his Majeſty ſent to the Duke of Savoy to demand paſſage for his troops into the Montferrat; but the Duke refuſed it, and began to fortify the paſs of Suza againſt him: whereupon the King attacked it, and having ordered part of his forces to climb the mountains and charge the Piemontois in flank, they immediately took to their heels, making but a very poor reſiſtance. The next day his Majeſty continued his march to the city of Suza, which ſurrendered upon the firſt ſummons. And now the Duke of Savoy, finding himſelf unable to defend his country, thought fit to enter into a treaty with his Majeſty, whereby he obliged himſelf to give free paſſage for the French troops thro' his territories into the Montferrat, and to furniſh them with proviſions: that he would prevail with the Spaniſh General Don GONZALES to raiſe the ſiege of Caſal, and withdraw his troops out of the Montferrat, and leave the Duke of Mantua in the peaceable poſſeſſion of his dominions; and that he would enter into an alliance with the Pope, the King, the Venetians, and the Duke of Mantua, for the defence of the Duke's territories. And the French King on his part promiſed to obtain of the Duke of Mantua for the Duke of Savoy, the town of Trino in the Montferrat, and lands to the value of fifteen thouſand crowns per annum.

A treaty between France and Savoy.

A war againſt the Hugonots in Languedoc.

The French King having relieved Caſal, and put the Duke of Mantua into the poſſeſſion of the reſt of the Montferrat, returned over the mountains with his army and marched into Languedoc, in order to give the finiſhing ſtroke to the Hugonot war. The Duke of Rohan was not ſtrong enough to keep the field, and therefore diſtributed his forces in the towns of ſecurity, which ſtill remained in the hands of the Proteſtants. The King thereupon laid ſiege to Privas in the Vivarez, which was garriſoned by ſome of the braveſt troops the Duke of Rohan had, and defended the place admirably well; but looking upon their ſtrength to be greater than it really was, they neglected to capitulate till all their works were taken, and could obtain no terms: they were obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion, and moſt of them cut in pieces, or executed in cold blood. One occaſion whereof might be, that after the town was taken, and in a manner in poſſeſſion of the Royaliſts, one of the ſoldiers of the garriſon ſet fire to the magazine of powder, and blew up a great many of them. From hence the army marched to Alets or Alais in the Cevennes, which being terrified by the fate of Privas, ſurrendered after a ſhort reſiſtance, as did ſeveral other ſmall places. Upon theſe repeated ſucceſſes the Cardinal ſent to the Duke of Rohan, adviſing him to ſubmit to his Majeſty, and not expoſe himſelf and his party to inevitable ruin. He promiſed to the Duke himſelf, his brother SOUBIZE, and the reſt of the Proteſtants, a pardon, and ſecurity for their eſtates and religion, on condition they would demoliſh the fortifications of Niſmes, Caſtres, d'Uſez, and Montauban, which were ſtill in their power: and the Proteſtants conſidering their low circumſtances, thought fit to comply with theſe terms. The treaty was ſigned at Alets on the 27th of June 1629. After which, the Duke of Rohan, with his Majeſty's conſent, left the kingdom, and retired to Venice, obliging himſelf not to return without his permiſſion. Soon after, the fortifications of the Proteſtant towns being demoliſhed in purſuance of the ſaid treaty, the Cardinal made his entry into Montauban, where he was complimented, and even flattered by the Hugonot clergy to a very high degree. The Cardinal thereupon let them know, it was not the cuſtom of France to receive them as the body of a church on any occaſion whatever, but he received them as men of learning; that under that notion they ſhould always be welcome to him, and he ſhould endeavour to demonſtrate, on all occaſions, that the difference of religion ſhould never hinder his doing them all manner of good offices. But the Hugonots having parted with their cities of ſecurity, and depending ſolely on the pleaſure of the miniſtry, who never kept their words with them any farther than they conceived it for their advantage, the party decreaſed inſenſibly; and notwithſtanding the ſubmiſſion and ready obedience they ſhewed to the commands of their ſovereign, he laboured continually to ruin them, under a notion that he was bound in conſcience to do it as ſoon as he had an opportunity; tho' it was not effected abſolutely till the repeal of the edict of Nants in the next reign.

They ſubmit, and deliver up their towns of ſecurity.

Miſunderſtandings in the royal family.

While the King was engaged in the wars of Montferrat and Languedoc, there happened ſome miſunderſtandings in the royal family, which afterwards occaſioned great alterations at court: the Duke of Orleans, having buried his firſt wife, entered into a new amour with the Princeſs MARY GONZAGA, daughter of the Duke of Nevers and Mantua; to which match the Queen-mother ſhewed an unalterable averſion, pretending that this Princeſs was of an unhealthful conſtitution, and not likely to have any children: though the true reaſon of her oppoſing it, was Monſieur's refuſing to marry one of the daughters of the Duke of Florence, her near relation; by which ſhe propoſed to ſupport her intereſt at court in caſe of the King's demiſe. The Queen, whom his Majeſty had conſtituted regent in his abſence, to prevent the match with the Duke of Mantua's daughter,

daughter prevailed on him to ſend for her into Italy, of which the Duke of Orleans receiving intelligence, laid a ſcheme to intercept her in the journey and marry her. The Queen having notice of his deſign, ſeized on the Princeſs of Mantua and the Ducheſs of Longueville, and confined them both in the caſtle of Vincennes. The Duke of Orleans, vexed at this diſappointment, and diſguſted becauſe the Cardinal had deprived him of the command of the army in Piedmont, retired to Nancy in Lorrain. However, being ſoon made ſenſible that the Cardinal equally deſigned his ruin and the Queen's, he was reconciled to her Majeſty, and ſent to the Duke DE BELLEGARDE to court to deſire the Queen-mother not to be reconciled to the Cardinal, of whom he was determined to be revenged for the many affronts he had received, and to aſſure her he would marry into what family ſhe pleaſed. He offered the miniſtry alſo to return to court, on condition they would augment his revenue an hundred thouſand livres per ann. which at length was complyed with. But to return to the war in Italy.

The war in Italy.

The Cardinal was no ſooner returned over the Alps with his army into Languedoc, but the Emperor's General, the Count DE MERODE, entered the country of the Griſons with an army of twenty thouſand men, and poſſeſſed himſelf of the paſſes of the Valteline, whereby he ſecured the communication between Germany and Italy again. The motive of this expedition he declared was, that he might be in a condition to decide the differences concerning the ſucceſſion to Mantua and Montferrat, which were fiefs of the Empire. And the Imperial Generals having ſummoned the Duke of Mantua to ſurrender his territories into their hands till the Emperor had determined the right, on his refuſal to comply with them, they took poſſeſſion of the greateſt part of his country.

The Cardinal hereupon raiſed another army to march to the relief of his Italian allies, of which the King did not only give him the command, but the honour of repreſenting his perſon with the title of Generaliſſimo, which at this time, 'tis ſaid, was firſt made uſe of to ſatisfy his vanity, and give him the ſuperiority of the Marſhals of France who ſerved under him. The army being arrived at Lyons, the Cardinal ſent to the Duke of Savoy to demand a paſſage through his country, and that he would unite his forces with thoſe of France, as he had promiſed, to recover the Mantuan and Montferrat from the houſe of Auſtria. The Duke of Savoy denied he had made any ſuch promiſe. However, he agreed to give the French paſſage, rather than come to a rupture with them : but the Cardinal reſolving to put it out of the power of the Duke to prevent the French armies entring Italy for the future, or to cut off their retreat from thence, on ſome other trivial pretence, took an occaſion to quarrel with the Duke, and ſurprized the fortreſs of Pignerol, which opened a way to the French to enter Italy when they pleaſed, and rendered the Duke of Savoy dependent on them.

1630. The French take Pignerol.

The Cardinal, who was Generaliſſimo in this expedition, as has been related already, when he paſſed the river Dore at the head of the army, was dreſſed in bright armour, his hat adorned with plumes of feathers, and a brace of piſtols before him, and ſeemed to take a pleaſure in ſhewing the ſoldiers how dextrous he was in managing the fine horſe he rode upon, prancing before the ranks, and bidding the officers take notice of his ſkill ; and indeed this prelate had been taught theſe exerciſes before he was deſigned for holy orders. But to proceed in our hiſtory: The French were not content with the taking of Pignerol, but made a conqueſt of all Savoy except Montmelian ; they ſeemed to have forgotten their original deſign of relieving the Duke of Mantua, ſuffering the Imperialiſts to take his capital city, and drive him entirely out of his territories, except the city of Caſal, which was ſtill in the hands of the French. It is ſaid, they looked upon the taking of Pignerol, and the reducing Savoy, of much greater conſequence to them, than the marching to the aſſiſtance of that Prince: or rather, the Cardinal foreſaw that he ſhould be able to relieve him by another method, for it was about this time that the celebrated GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS invaded Germany, with whom the Cardinal entered into a confederacy, and engaged to give that Prince four hundred thouſand crowns per annum towards the charges of the war. He renewed the alliance alſo with the Proteſtant Princes of Germany, by whoſe means he ſo diſtreſſed the Emperor, that his Imperial Majeſty found himſelf under a neceſſity of withdrawing his troops from Italy, and of coming to terms concerning Mantua. The Emperor promiſed to grant the inveſtiture to the Duke of Nevers, on condition of his giving a ſum of money to the other pretenders.

The French in alliance with GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, and the Proteſtant Princes of Germany.

About this time CHARLES-EMANUEL Duke of Savoy died, leaving his dominions to his eldeſt ſon VICTOR-AMADEUS, brother-in-law to the French King LEWIS the Thirteenth, between whom, and the French and Spaniards, the Pope's Nuntio MAZARIN negotiated a treaty, by which the French were great gainers ; and this, 'tis ſaid, laid the foundation of MAZARIN's greatneſs in France. By this treaty the Spaniards agreed to evacuate Mantua and Montferrat, on condition of the French King's evacuating Savoy and Pignerol : but the French, by MAZARIN's addreſs, found means to purchaſe Pignerol of the Duke of Savoy ; and if they had not had it this way, it ſeems the Cardinal was determined never to part with it, he apprehended it to be of ſuch importance to France.

A treaty concluded by the mediation of MAZARIN the Pope's nuntio.

A cabal againſt the Cardinal.

During theſe tranſactions the King of France and the Court were at Lyons, where his Majeſty fell dangerouſly ill, inſomuch that his life was deſpaired of. The Queen-mother and Queen-conſort thereupon, 'tis ſaid, entered into a cabal with the two MARILLACS, (one of whom was Keeper of the Seals, and the other a Marſhal of France) the Princeſs of Conti, the Ducheſs of Elbeuf, VAUTIER the King's firſt phyſician, and others, to ruin the Cardinal ; of which that Prelate having intelligence from the ſpies he always kept about his Majeſty, he determined, upon the King's recovery, which happened not long after, to endeavour the deſtruction of all that had been concerned in the deſign againſt him, and few of them eſcaped his vengeance.

The Cardinal gets the better of the Queen-mother.

The Queens did not want ſufficient provocations to ſtudy the ruin of the Cardinal; he was perpetually ſuggeſting to the jealous timorous King, that they had a deſign againſt his Majeſty ; that the Queen-mother had more affection for the Duke of Orleans than for him, and was perpetually conſulting fortune-tellers to know when he ſhould come to the crown ; that the Queen-conſort was uneaſy at her having no children, and had thoughts of marrying the Duke of Orleans in caſe of the King's death : and his Majeſty really believed theſe calumnies; while, on the other hand, all that the two Queens could ſay againſt the Cardinal had no effect upon him. The Court being arrived at Paris, things came to an open rupture between the Queen-mother and the Cardinal; ſhe proceeded ſo far as, in the King's preſence, to call him cheat, ingrate, malicious, the wickedeſt man in the kingdom, and diſturber of the publick peace; and turning to the King told him, that was the man who would take the crown from his head and give it to Count SOISSONS, who was about to marry his neice. But the King replied, the Cardinal was an honeſt man, and had ſerved him faithfully; that ſhe had diſobliged him, and put him to the utmoſt torture, and he could never forget the affliction ſhe had given him. Whereupon the Cardinal retired, and the King ſoon after followed him, ſaying, as he left her cabinet, that he had had too much patience.

1631. The Queen-mother ſeized.

The King ſoon after came to a reſolution to make the Queen-mother priſoner; but as ſhe had a great authority in Paris, the Cardinal adviſed his Majeſty to remove to Compeigne, where it would be much eaſier to ſeize her; and the Queen, who had no ſuſpicion of the deſign, followed the King thither. On the 23d of February 1630-31, the King and Cardinal returned early in the morning to Paris, having ordered five hundred horſe to ſurround Compeigne, and not permit the Queen to ſtir from thence. When the Queen was informed the Court was gone without her, and ſaw herſelf ſurrounded with ſoldiers, ſhe was out of all patience, and vented her ſpleen againſt the Cardinal in ſuch terms as the caſe deſerved. She wrote to the King alſo to juſtify her conduct; but he was ſo influenced by the Cardinal and his creatures, who continually beſieged his Majeſty, that he would not open her letters. The Queen receiving intelligence that the Cardinal was ſending twelve hundred horſe to remove her from Compeigne to ſome other place, where ſhe ſhould be more cloſely confined, found means to make her eſcape, and retired to Flanders, where ſhe was kindly received by the Infanta, who had the government of the Netherlands. This, 'tis ſaid, was what the Cardinal moſt deſired; for having charged her frequently with being in the Spaniſh intereſt, the King looked upon her retiring to Flanders to be a demonſtration of it. The Cardinal had ordered the guards, it ſeems, to give the Queen an opportunity of eſcaping, or it had been very eaſy for him to have prevented it; but he thought ſhe would be able to do him leſs miſchief abroad than at court. The Duke of Orleans alſo retired out of France about the ſame time, having firſt ſent a memorial to the parliament of Paris, wherein he declares the reaſon of his leaving the kingdom to be the attempts the Cardinal had made againſt his perſon, and that of the Queen-mother, in order to render himſelf maſter of the kingdom.

She eſcapes to Flanders.

The parliament forbid to meddle with affairs of ſtate.

The King having publiſhed an edict declaring the adherents of the Queen-mother and the Duke of Orleans guilty of high-treaſon, ſent it to the parliament of Paris to be confirmed; which they refuſed to comply with, till the parties charged with the crime had been heard before them. Whereupon RICHLIEU prevailed with the King to ſend for the parliament to the Louvre, and the Keeper in his Majeſty's name let them know, that their authority extended only to private right, and not to matters of ſtate, the cognizance whereof belonged only to their Sovereign. Then the King ordered a decree of the council to be entered in the parliament regiſter, which prohibited that court to deliberate for the future on declarations concerning affairs of ſtate: and to ſhew his diſpleaſure at their preſumption, ſuſpended and baniſhed two of the Preſidents of the chamber of inqueſts. The King alſo ſtrictly forbid all perſons to keep any correſpondence with the Queen-mother or the Duke of Orleans, and declared all their manors, lands, and tenements, forfeited to the crown.

The Cardinal created a Duke and Peer.

The Cardinal having thus gratified his revenge on the Queen-mother and Monſieur, obtained a grant of the King for erecting his lands of Richlieu into a duchy and peerage. He was alſo made Governor of the province of Britany, which he ſuggeſted was very proper for him, as he was ſuperintendant of trade and navigation, becauſe the ports of Britany lie extremely convenient for the carrying on a foreign trade: and from this time he obtained the title of the Cardinal Duke.

The Prince of Condé and the other grandees finding this Prelate ſo firmly eſtabliſhed in the King's favour, that the united intereſts of the Queen-mother and the Duke of Orleans could not prevail againſt him, but that their oppoſition to his ſchemes had occaſioned their deſtruction, courted RICHLIEU in the moſt abject manner: the Prince particularly went from province to province to execute his orders, and publiſh the praiſes of this miniſter; in a ſpeech to the States of Britany he dwells much on the capacity, the valour, and great ſervices of the Cardinal; he tells them he had confounded hereſy, pulled down and defeated rebellion, extended the limits of the kingdom, &c. and might have added, that he had obtained an entire conqueſt over the liberties of the people, and rendered the aſſemblies of the States and Parliaments entirely uſeleſs.

1632.

RICHLIEU ſtill continued to purſue the friends and adherents of the Duke of Orleans with the utmoſt ſeverity, particularly the Duke of Lorrain, from whom he took ſeveral towns and ravaged the country, becauſe he apprehended that Prince to be in Monſieur's intereſt: he obliged him alſo to renounce all treaties and alliances with the enemies of the court. Then he erected a court of juſtice to try the adherents of the Queen-mother and the Duke, and obliged the parliament of Paris to conſent to this manner of proceeding, notwithſtanding they had remonſtrated againſt it, and alledged that Peers could only be tryed in parliament. The Marſhal DE MARILLAC was made the firſt victim to the Cardinal's fury: he had erected one court of juſtice to try him, and becauſe they were not villains enough to condemn him without proof, he appointed other commiſſioners, conſiſting of his own creatures, that he was ſure would do as they were directed. Againſt this court in general, and ſeveral of the judges in particular, the Marſhal excepted on account of their declared enmity againſt him, but to very little purpoſe; he was condemned to loſe his head. Great interceſſion was made for his life, but the Cardinal was inexorable. The Marſhal was executed at the Greve, proteſting his innocence; and it ſeems his greateſt crime was his adviſing the Queen to apprehend the Cardinal, when the King lay dangerouſly ill at Lyons, which was never to be forgiven.

He tries the Peers by a ſpecial commiſſion, and not in parliament.

The Duke Orleans in arms.

In the mean time the Duke of Orleans entered France in a hoſtile manner at the head of two thouſand horſe, declaring that he had taken arms to procure a redreſs of the people's grievances and oppreſſions under the Cardinal's adminiſtration.

He was joined by about three thouſand foot in Auvergne, but the provinces were generally cautious of riſing in his favour, having ſeen ſo many inſtances of the Cardinal's vengeance.

The King on the other hand raiſed two armies and ſent them againſt the Duke, and at the ſame time publiſhed an edict, declaring that the male-adminiſtration and oppreſſions mentioned in the Duke's declaration were all pretended and fictitious; that the kingdom was never in ſo powerful and flouriſhing a condition as at this time, and that the Cardinal's merits and ſervices were ſo well known, that none but thoſe who envyed his Majeſty's glory and proſperity would endeavour to defame him; declaring Monſieur's adherents again guilty of high-treaſon, and that they ſhould be proceeded againſt with the utmoſt ſeverity.

The Dukes of Orleans and Montmorency defeated, and the laſt beheaded.

Theſe declarations were ſoon followed by actions. The Duke of Montmorency, who had ſurrendered his office of High Admiral, in hopes of having that of Conſtable conferred upon him, became malecontent on his being diſappointed by the Cardinal, and raiſed forces in the province of Languedoc, of which he was Governor, to join the Duke of Orleans: he procured the States of Languedoc alſo to eſpouſe his intereſt, and promiſe him to raiſe money and to ſtand by him with their lives and fortunes. But coming to an engagement afterwards with the King's troops, the Dukes of Orleans and Montmorency were defeated, and the latter of them made priſoner. Whereupon Monſieur thought fit to ſubmit and lay down his arms; but the Cardinal cauſing his friend the Duke of Montmorency to be condemned and executed as a traytor, notwithſtanding his interceſſion to ſpare him, his Highneſs retired in diſcontent to the Low-Countries again, where he was well received by the Spaniards.

Guſtavus Adolphus killed.

The victorious Guſtavus Adolphus was killed on the ſixth of November this year at the battle of Lutzen. The French, as has been related already, had entered into an alliance with him and the Proteſtant Princes of Germany, to whom they granted conſiderable penſions to ſupport them againſt the Emperor, tho' France was then at peace with his Imperial Majeſty; but Guſtavus Adolphus meeting with ſurprizing ſucceſs in the German war, Cardinal Richlieu became no leſs jealous of him than of the houſe of Auſtria. However, upon the death of the King of Sweden the caſe ſeemed to be altered, and the Cardinal reſolved to aſſiſt the Swedes in Germany more vigorouſly than he had done, to prevent their ſinking; for had the Swedes been forced to accommodate matters with the Emperor, he would infallibly have fallen upon France with all his forces: he could not be ignorant of the ſhare France had in maintaining the war againſt him, tho' there was not any war declared between theſe two powers at this time. The Cardinal therefore promiſed to continue the payment of a million of livres annually to Sweden, and the regency of that kingdom on the other hand engaged not to make peace with the Emperor without the conſent of France. The Cardinal alſo concluded a treaty of much the ſame nature with the States-General and the Proteſtant Princes of Germany, whereby he found full employment for the houſe of Auſtria, without entring into a formal war. About the ſame time he procured himſelf to be made a Knight of the Holy Ghoſt, and ſeemed to be as proud of the blue ribbon as ſome modern ſtateſmen are at this day.

The French aſſiſt the Swedes againſt the Imperialiſts.

1633. The French ſeize the Valteline again.

While the houſe of Auſtria was engaged in that terrible war with Sweden and her confederates, the Cardinal took the opportunity of ſurpriſing the Valteline again; whereby he cut off the communication between Germany and Italy, of which the Spaniards made loud complaints, as they did on their keeping Pignerol and Caſal contrary to the laſt treaty of peace between theſe two powers: but it is obſerved of the Cardinal, that he never parted with any thing that he apprehended was for his advantage to keep. The repreſentations of the Spaniardson theſe heads, were as ineffectual as thoſe for their evacuating Triers and the towns of Lorrain, which the French had ſeized on with equal juſtice; and under pretence that the Duke of Lorrain had aſſiſted the Spaniards, and had clandeſtinely married his ſiſter to the Duke of Orleans, the French King made himſelf maſter of Nancy, the capital, and all the reſt of his country. Whereupon the Duke transferred his dominions to the Cardinal of Lorrain, his brother, and joined the imperial army with his troops.

1634. The French ſeize Lorrain.

The Queen mother, weary of reſiding in the Netherlands, where ſhe did not meet with that reſpect ſhe apprehended was due to her quality, and being deprived of all her revenues by the Cardinal, made her ſubmiſſion to this haughty Prelate in the moſt abject manner, in order to obtain a permiſſion to return to court: but the Cardinal, either to gratify his revenge, or really fearing ſhe might find means to ruin him in the King's favour, appeared inexorable, and perſuaded his Majeſty that he muſt never expect to live in any tolerable quiet if he ſuffered her to return to court, or if ſhe was allowed her revenues while out of the kingdom; ſo that this Princeſs was reduced to very great extremities. But as Richlieu was of opinion the Duke of Orleans might embarraſs his affairs more by remaining out of the kingdom than in it, he conſented to his return, procuring a general pardon for him and his domeſticks except three or four, and a grant of all his former revenues and appanages that had been taken from him, with a large ſum for the paying off his debts and providing his equipage: he was alſo to have a troop of Gens d'armes, and another of light horſe for his guard. However, the Duke thought fit to leave Madam his wife in the Low-Countries, not daring to truſt her in the power of the Cardinal, who ſeemed determined to get his marriage with her declared void.

The Duke of Orleans returns to court.

The Swedes defeated at Norlingen.

In the mean time the Imperialiſts obtained a ſignal victory over the Swedes at Norlingen, which gave the Cardinal ſome apprehenſions of his loſing Lorrain again, and even of the enemy's penetrating into the heart of France. Whereupon he ſent the Marſhals de la Force and de Breze towards the Rhine with an army of thirty thouſand men, to ſupport the Swedes, who put ſeveral towns in Alſatia and the Palatinate, which they were not able to keep, into the hands of the French, and amongſt the reſt the important city of Philipſburg; which laſt gave the Cardinal great ſatisfaction, inaſmuch as it put him in a condition to ſtop the progreſs of the Imperialiſts, in caſe they deſigned to paſs the Rhine and force their way into Lorrain.

Transfer Philipſburg to the French.

The Cardinal procures Monſieur's marriage to be declared void.

The Cardinal had tryed all the ways imaginable to perſuade the Duke of Orleans to conſent that his marriage with the Princeſs of Lorrain ſhould be declared null, and believing that the Duke's favourite Puilaureus perſuaded him to remain immovable on that head, he ordered him to be apprehended with another of the Duke's domeſticks and carried to the caſtle of Vincennes; which gave Monſieur no ſmall uneaſineſs. But he proceeded farther, for having ſummoned an aſſembly of the clergy to meet at Paris, he propoſed this queſtion to them, viz. Whether the Princes of the blood, and eſpecially thoſe who ſtood neareſt to the crown, might marry without the King's conſent, and even againſt his expreſs prohibition? To which they returned ſuch an anſwer as it was ſuppoſed the Cardinal had dictated, namely, that marriages might be rendered null by antient cuſtoms, founded upon reaſon, and authorized by the Church. That the cuſtom of France did not permit Princes of the blood, and eſpecially the preſumptive heir of the crown, to marry without the King's conſent, 1635. much leſs againſt his poſitive commands. The Queen-mother receiving advice of this determination, wrote to Rome, deſiring his Holineſs to prohibit the clergy of France proceeding in this affair, becauſe it was notorious that this aſſembly was wholly compoſed of Court-Biſhops, who were ready to declare whatever the prime miniſter would have them; and if he deſired it, would frame another declaration directly oppoſite to this to-morrow. Monſieur alſo ſtill inſiſted on the validity of his marriage. However, when he was preſſed on this head, he told his Majeſty that if the Pope declared he might marry again, he would obey him.

The councils held at RICHLIEU's palace.

RICHLIEU about this time prevailed with the King to let the councils be held at his houſe, under pretence of his want of health, and his Majeſty uſually came thither from St Germain's and Verſailles. Moſt people believed, that this proceeded from the perpetual fears the Miniſter was in, not daring to truſt himſelf much abroad, and when he did go out, his people were never acquainted with it till the moment he took coach; for the Princes of the blood and the Nobility, whom he treated with the utmoſt contempt, as well as the people who were oppreſſed by taxes, equally hated him: ſo that it ſeems this mighty authority, founded wholly upon the King's weakneſs and a perpetual ſeries of acts of violence, was attended with no ſmall inquietude. He rendered himſelf dreaded by every man, and yet feared every man himſelf; conſcious that the people, whoſe liberties he had invaded, would loſe no opportunity to deſtroy him. The ill ſucceſs of the French arms this campaign alſo was a conſiderable mortification to the Cardinal; for the Germans ſurprized Philipſburg, in which were their magazines and a conſiderable treaſure, and afterwards took the city of Triers, making the Archbiſhop of the place their priſoner, who was in the French intereſt: Worms and ſeveral other towns alſo ſubmitted to the Imperialiſts. Whereupon the Cardinal thought fit to ſtrengthen himſelf by entring into an alliance offenſive and defenſive with the States-General againſt Spain (for hitherto he had carried on that war under-hand, by ſupplying the Dutch and other Powers with money). It was agreed by this treaty to divide the Spaniſh Netherlands between the French and the States, when they ſhould have made a conqueſt of them. The pretence of the French for declaring war againſt Spain, was their refuſing to releaſe the Archbiſhop of Triers, who had put himſelf under the protection of France. The Spaniards, on the other ſide, declared, that it was not in reality the King of France that made war upon them, but Cardinal RICHLIEU, who had uſurped the government of that kingdom. But whatever were the grounds of the war, the French and Dutch having joined their forces, amounting to forty thouſand men and upward, took Tirlemont, and afterwards laid ſiege to Louvain, which they were obliged to raiſe on the approach of the Spaniards and Imperialiſts. Nor did this great army perform any thing anſwerable to the expectation of the French court; which proceeded, 'tis ſaid, from the miſunderſtandings among their Generals, or rather with the Dutch; who obſerving the haughty and imperious behaviour of the French, began to be afraid of having them for their neighbours, and therefore would not enter upon any conſiderable action. 'Tis obſerved alſo, that the Dutch ſo contrived matters, that the French were deſtitute of all neceſſaries in their camp, whereby they loſt abundance of men, while the forces of the States had plenty of proviſion among them.

The French enter into an alliance offenſive and defenſive with the Dutch againſt Spain.

An alliance with the Italian Princes.

About the ſame time the King of France enterred into an alliance with the Dukes of Savoy, Mantua, and Parma, whereby the Cardinal propoſed no leſs than the conqueſt of the Milaneſe. The firſt enterprize they undertook was the ſiege of Valentia; but the miſunderſtandings among the Generals on this ſide alſo prevented the taking of it, and they were forced to raiſe the ſiege. It is obſervable, that whatever Powers have entered into an alliance with France, unleſs their Miniſters and Generals might govern the confederacy, and have the abſolute command of the troops, they have conſtantly ruined the undertaking, or ſo managed matters, as to be the chief gainers by it. This is a truth their allies have experienced more than once. But to proceed: The next campaign 1636. the French and Italian Generals agreed no better than the former; and the Duke of Parma's territories, which lay next to the Milaneſe, were in a manner ruined by the Spaniards, while the Duke of Savoy and the French General the Marſhal de Crequi retired towards Piedmont.

The French had no better ſucceſs in Franche Comte, where the Prince of Condé commanded; for having laid ſiege to Dole, the ſecond town of the county, he was obliged to raiſe it on the approach of the Duke of Lorrain and the German army. On the ſide of the Pyrenees the Spaniards were ſuperior to the French; but the latter prevented their taking of Bayonne, which was threatned by the Spaniſh Generals. In the mean time the frontiers of Picardy being very ill guarded, the Spaniards took ſeveral towns there; and having paſſed the Somme, put Paris itſelf into a great conſternation: but the French aſſembled their forces, and obliged them to retire.

A conſpiracy againſt the Cardinal.

The Duke of Orleans and Count Soiſſons now commanded the grand army of France; for the ſucceſs of the Spaniards was ſuch in Picardy, at the beginning of the campaign, that the Cardinal found it abſolutely neceſſary to place the Princes of the blood at the head of the troops, in order to keep up the ſpirits of the people, and induce them to ſubmit to thoſe heavy taxes which were levied on this occaſion for the defence of the kingdom; though he was very well ſatisfied, that both Monſieur and the Count were his mortal enemies: and indeed the giving them the command of the army had very near proved fatal to him; for conſulting with ſome of the principal nobility, whom this Prelate had equally diſobliged, they reſolved to take him off, and had emplyed four aſſaſſins for that purpoſe; but the Princes were ſo irreſolute, that though theſe Bravo's had ſurrounded the Cardinal, and demanded the ſign to fall upon him, neither of them durſt give it, pretending they were reſtrained by the reverence they bore to his character as a Prieſt; and while they heſitated, the Cardinal took coach and eſcaped their hands, not knowing at that time the danger he was in. Monſieur and Count Soiſſons afterwards determined to endeavour the diſgrace of this Miniſter, by acquainting his Majeſty with his ill conduct, which they affirmed had occaſioned all the calamities the nation laboured under; and particularly his engaging in a war with Spain, which he knew not how to maintain with honour. But the Cardinal being apprized of their intentions, cauſed a report to be ſpread, that the King deſigned to apprehend them; at which they were ſo alarmed, that they both made their eſcapes, and left the Cardinal in the ſole poſſeſſion of the King's ear. Monſieur retired only to Blois, and ſoon after returned to court, when he underſtood it was a falſe alarm; but Count Soiſſons went to Sedan, and did not think fit to truſt himſelf any more in the Cardinal's power.

1637.

The French driven out of the Valteline again.

The campaign of 1637 proved ſucceſsful to the French and Dutch in Flanders; Frederick-Henry Prince of Orange took Breda, and the Cardinal de la Valette, General of the French, took ſeveral other towns from the Spaniards on that ſide: but in Italy they had the worſt of it. The Duke of Parma, their ally, was obliged to make his peace with the Spaniards; and the Griſons, with the aſſiſtance of the Spaniſh troops, drove the French out of the Valteline, which they had been at a very great expence to take and defend.

The King's Confeſſor ruined by the Cardinal.

Father Caussin, the King's Confeſſor, either concerned to ſee his Majeſty and the nation perpetually impoſed on by the Cardinal; or, according to others, hoping to ſucceed him in the poſt of prime miniſter, if he could procure his diſgrace, took an opportunity about this time to lay his ill conduct before the King, inſtancing in four particulars: 1. The baniſhment of the Queen-mother, who wanted even the neceſſaries of life. 2. This Prelate's uſurping the royal authority, ſo that his Majeſty had no more than the bare name of King. 3. The oppreſſion of the people, who were reduced to the utmoſt miſery by the exorbitant taxes. And, 4. His ſupporting the Swedes and German Proteſtants againſt the Catholicks, to the ruin of their religion in the Empire. And though this charge was for the moſt part true and notorious to all the world, ſuch was the Cardinal's intereſt with his maſter, that he procured the poor Confeſſor to be thrown into priſon, where he remained till the King died.

1638. An alliance with Savoy.

The Cardinal employs Eccleſiaſticks in the fleet and army.

The Duke of Savoy being dead, as has been related already and leaving behind him a ſon an infant, to whom the Ducheſs, his mother, ſiſter to the French King, was guardian, the Cardinal obliged her to enter into an alliance offenſive and defenſive with France againſt the Spaniard; and ſent the Cardinal de la Valette into Italy, to command the Army there, upon the death of Marſhal Crequi; for 'tis obſerved of Richlieu, that he choſe to employ Eccleſiaſticks upon almoſt all occaſions, how foreign ſoever to their profeſſion. The Archbiſhop of Bourdeaux was Admiral, Valette General, and moſt of the foreign Miniſters in holy orders: he either thought theſe gentlemen better qualified for publick employments, or more devoted to his intereſts than other men. But to return. The Spaniſh General, the Marquis de Leganeze, finding himſelf ſuperior to the French and Savoyards, laid ſiege to Vercil in Piedmont, and took it; but declared at the ſame time, that he came into Piedmont and Montferrat only to expel the French, and not to make war againſt the Duke; for the Cardinal had inſiſted that the Ducheſs ſhould put all her ſtrong towns into the hands of the French.

The Duke of Weimar defeats the Imperialiſts, and takes Friburgh, Briſac, &c.

The Cardinal's weakneſs.

The Duke of Weimar, whoſe troops were paid by France, engaged the Imperialiſts this campaign near the border of Switzerland, and defeated them; in which battle the Duke of Rohan, who formerly commanded the French Proteſtants, was killed. Afterwards the Duke of Weimar took Rhinfield, Friburg, and Briſac; and the country of Briſgow, and ſeveral towns in Suabia ſubmitted to him. In Artois the French did not meet with equal ſucceſs; for having laid ſiege to St Omers, the Spaniard marched to it's relief, and obliged them to raiſe it. It ſeems, the Cardinal, with all his policy, had a good ſhare of ſuperſtition and credulity: a nun who pretended to the ſpirit of prophecy related, that in one of her viſions, ſhe ſaw two armies fighting near St Omers, and that the King's was victorious; which, 'tis ſaid, was his principal inducement for conſenting to this unfortunate ſiege, for which he was by no means provided. But this was not the Cardinal's weakneſs alone; moſt of the great men of that age ſeem to have had great faith in viſions, prophecies, and the magick art.

The Queen of France with child after ſhe had been barren 22 years.

The Cardinal ſeizes the Queen's papers.

The Cardinal forges the King's hand, and alters his letters.

This year the French invaded Spain on the ſide of Guipuſcoa, took Port Paſſage, with ſeveral Spaniſh men of war and galeons, and afterwards laid ſiege to Fontarabia: but the Spaniards obliged them to raiſe it, to the great mortification of the Cardinal, as well as the Prince of Condé, who commanded the army. The King, however, was extremely rejoiced at this time to find his Queen big with child, after they had been married two and twenty years, no ſigns of her pregnancy having appeared before. This one would have thought ſhould have ſo much endeared her to his Majeſty, that the Cardinal might have been afraid to offend her; but this inſolent Prelate having diſcovered that the Queen held a correſpondence with her brother the Cardinal Infant, on the ſubject of peace, and that the letters which paſſed between them were lodged in a cloſet ſhe had in an oratory in the nunnery of Val de Grace, he procured an order from the King to ſeize them, and ſent the Chancellor to execute it; but he being afraid of the Queen's reſentment, diſcovered the matter to her Majeſty, and gave her an opportunity of removing all obnoxious papers before he came, ſo that the thing was not attended with any ill conſequences, as it happened; tho' had not the Queen been big with child, 'tis ſaid, the Cardinal would have proceeded againſt her in a more violent manner. Another inſtance hiſtorians give us of the intolerable inſolence of the prime miniſter, and weakneſs of the King, deſerves to be related; the King it ſeems had a miſtreſs called Madamoiſelle de Fayette, of whom he was infinitely fond, inſomuch that the Cardinal was apprehenſive ſhe might influence his Majeſty to his prejudice: this lady of a ſudden retired into a convent, and reſolved to have no farther commerce with his Majeſty; at which he was much ſuprized, and being determined to know the reaſon of it, took an opportunity to hunt in the foreſt where the convent ſtood, and leaving his attendants, had a long converſation with her, in which he diſcovered that one of his pages who uſed to carry the billets between him and the lady, uſed to bring them to the Cardinal, who altered or ſuppreſſed them as he ſaw fit, making no ſcruple of counterfeiting the King's hand on this occaſion; and it was the unkind expreſſions the Cardinal had made uſe of in theſe letters that went under his Majeſty's name to the lady that induced her chiefly to think of retiring to a convent; tho' he made uſe of other means to effect it, for he threatned ſeveral of her friends with baniſhment, unleſs they perſuaded her to ſhut herſelf up in a nunnery. Notwithſtanding all theſe provocations, the poor King durſt not expreſs his reſentment againſt the high and mighty Cardinal, any otherwiſe than by diſmiſſing the page that had been his tool. The ſame evening the King and Madam FAYETTE had this converſation, in which they diſcovered the villany of the prime miniſter, the Queen was brought to bed of a ſon, viz. on the 5th of September 1638, who afterwards ſucceeded his father by the name of LEWIS the Fourteenth.

LEWIS XIV born.

The Cardinal will not ſuffer the Queen-mother to return to France.

Soon after the birth of the Dauphin the Queen-mother paſſed through Holland to England, to viſit her ſon and daughter there, hoping by the interceſſion of their Britiſh Majeſties to prevail with her ſon the King of France to re-call her to court, or at leaſt to procure a revenue ſuitable to her quality, for the Cardinal would not ſuffer a penny to be paid her out of her eſtate. She deſired the French Ambaſſador at the Engliſh court alſo to acquaint the Cardinal, that the afflictions ſhe had ſuffered ſince ſhe left France, had inſpired her with different ſentiments from thoſe ſhe had entertained formerly; and conjured him to deliver her from the miſery and neceſſity of begging her bread: that ſhe deſired indeed to be near the King, but ſhould not concern herſelf in publick affairs, and if he would procure her return to court, would diſmiſs all her ſervants that were ſuſpected by him, and do every thing he ſhould adviſe her to. But the Cardinal, far from ſhewing the leaſt compaſſion for his great benefactreſs, who had advanced him to the poſt he poſſeſſed, conſidered the natural inclination that women generally have to revenge themſelves, and the humour of her Majeſty in particular, who would infallibly ruin him if it was in her power, for the repeated ſlights and provocations he had given her. Nor was he a little moved by his own implacable malice, who was never known to forgive any one that had offended him, and which alone would have determined him to reject all the offers that this afflicted Princeſs could make him. He cauſed a letter therefore to be written to her in his Majeſty's name, wherein the King tells her there was no longer, room to rely upon her fair promiſes, who had always been accuſtomed to diſſemble, and that her unquiet temper would not ſuffer her to live in peace at any place; that if ſhe ſhould come to France ſhe would immediately cabal with the malecontents again, and occaſion new diſorders: that he inſiſted therefore upon her retiring to Florence, her native country, where ſhe ſhould receive an allowance ſuitable to her quality; concluding that he thought himſelf juſtified before God and man, as he had done all that was in his power to give the Queen ſatisfaction, without hazarding the peace of his kingdom.

1639. The Queen of England alſo wrote to the French King in behalf of the Queen-mother, and ordered the Lord JERMYN, who reſided at that court, to uſe his utmoſt endeavour to procure her return, or at leaſt a maintenance while ſhe remained out of France; but they could obtain no other anſwer than his Majeſty had given already. Thus did the Cardinal triumph over the whole royal family; the Queen-mother he had baniſhed, the Queen-conſort he rendered ſuſpected to his Majeſty, as being in the intereſt of Spain her native country; and the King's brother, the Duke of Orleans, and the reſt of the Princes of the blood, were charged with deſigns upon the crown, and uſed accordingly. Not long after the Queen-mother was obliged to retire out of England (on account of the jealouſies ſome people ſtupidly entertained of her negotiations here) and went to Cologne, where ſhe ſpent the remainder of her life in greater want than could be imagined, conſidering ſhe was ſo nearly related to the greateſt Princes in Europe; which would not have happened if the King and Queen of England had not ſoon after been reduced to greater diſtreſs themſelves by an unnatural rebellion.

The Duke de la Valette, ſon to the Duke of Eſpernon, was the next mark of the Cardinal's vengeance. He was already fled into England under an apprehenſion that this Prelate would deſtroy him; but not content with his baniſhment, he ordered a ſpecial commiſſion to try him, charging him with high-treaſon in preventing the reduction of Fontarabia. He was ſummoned to ſurrender himſelf on a certain day, and not appearing, he was condemned to be executed in effigy, and his eſtate confiſcated. The parliament of Paris remonſtrated againſt this proceeding, the offences of Peers being only cognizable in that court. To which the King anſwered, they were a pack of ignorant wretches, and he would make them ſenſible their privileges were founded only upon unwarrantable uſage. That by his prerogative he had a power of trying Dukes and Peers by a ſpecial commiſſion, and aſſiſted in the court in perſon in order to get him condemned: a thing, ſays my author, without precedent in France till this time; but he looked upon himſelf obliged to execute the Cardinal's ſchemes, how unjuſt and arbitrary ſoever they ſeemed to be.

The parliament receives further mortifications from the miniſter.

The French take poſſeſſion of the Duke of Savoy's towns.

The Ducheſs of Savoy, the King's ſiſter, was at this time hard preſſed by the Spaniards and her brothers-in-law Prince THOMAS and the Cardinal of Savoy, whom the Emperor had conſtituted guardians of the young Duke. But RICHLIEU refuſed to ſend her any re-inforcements unleſs ſhe would put the ſtrong towns ſhe was poſſeſſed of in Piedmont into the hands of the French King's troops, which ſhe was at length obliged to conſent to; and this occaſioned the revolt of great part of the country, who dreaded coming under the dominion of France; even the city of Turin itſelf ſurrendered to Prince THOMAS to avoid it, but the caſtle was ſtill garriſoned by the French.

In the Low-Countries the Marſhal DE CHATILLON was defeated near Thionville; but the French army commanded by the Marquis of Meilleraye made themſelves maſters of Hedin this campaign. On the ſide of Rouſſillon the armies of France and Spain faced each other, but there was no action of any conſequence, unleſs the taking and retaking of Saluces. The greateſt ſucceſs the French and their allies met with this year, was on the ſide of Germany, where the Duke of Weimar commanded a ſeparate body of Germans. This General had poſſeſſed himſelf of Briſac, Friburg, and many other conſiderable towns in Franche Comte and Alſace, and happening to die ſoon after, the French diſtributed their money ſo artfully among his officers, that they delivered them into the hands of the French, though the Duke by

They get poſſeſſion of Friburg, Briſac, &c.

his will had given his conqueſts to his two brothers. 'Tis ſuppoſed that the Cardinal had procured the Duke to be poiſoned for this very end. Upon promiſing his army ſome addition to their pay, he prevailed on them alſo to accept the Duke of Longueville for their General, and to take an oath of fidelity to the King of France. By theſe and other ſervices the Cardinal looked upon himſelf to have merited ſo much of the crown, that there was nothing how unreaſonable ſoever that he durſt not attempt. He obliged the Queen-conſort to turn off her firſt Maid of Honour, and the Comptroller of her houſhould, becauſe of their unſhaken fidelity to their miſtreſs, and put two of his own creatures in their room, for whom her Majeſty had the greateſt averſion. He was afraid the Queen might eſtabliſh herſelf in the King's favour now ſhe had been ſo happy as to bring him a Dauphin, and would ſuffer none but his own people to be about her, leaſt they ſhould contrive his ruin. It was his conſtant maxim, that a man ſhould never have friendſhip for, or confidence in, thoſe whom he had treated ill. His conduct was the ſame towards the King's miſtreſſes as it was towards her Majeſty: whenever he found them like to have an aſcendant over his mind, he drew him from Paris, either under pretence of hunting, or viewing his frontier towns, and never let him return again till he imagined his paſſion was cooled; and then he often had the aſſurance to baniſh them the court, and perhaps propoſe ſome new amour to make him forget the former.

Inſtances of the Cardinal's power, and the weakneſs of his maſter.

1640.

But to return to military affairs: The French having augmented the army of the late Duke of Weimar with a conſiderable reinforcement of national troops, commanded the Duke of Longueville their General to paſs the Rhine, and act in concert with the Swedes againſt the Imperialiſts; but there happened ſuch jealouſies among the officers, that they effected nothing conſiderable this campaign.

In the Low-Countries the Cardinal reſolved upon the ſiege of Arras, which was inveſted by Marſhal MEILLERAYE on the 12th of June; but the Cardinal Infant marching to it's relief, RICHLIEU begun to be apprehenſive of the ſucceſs of the enterprize, and therefore ordered another body of forces under the command of DU HAILLER to join MEILLERAYE. The King fearing that DU HAILLER and MEILLERAYE might both be defeated before they could unite their troops, which would give the Spaniards an opportunity of penetrating into the heart of the Kingdom, poſitively forbid DU HAILLER to advance: but RICHLIEU ſent him an order notwithſtanding to endeavour a conjunction, and he would be anſwerable for his conduct; whereupon DU HAILLER choſe rather to obey the Cardinal than the King; and meeting with all the ſucceſs he could deſire in this expedition, the town was taken, and the King did not think fit to expreſs any reſentment at the Cardinal's preſumption in contradicting his orders on ſuch an important occaſion; nor was DE HAILLER puniſhed for diſobeying his Majeſty.

The Catalonians & Portugueſe revolt from Spain.

The Catalonians revolted from Spain the ſame campaign, and put themſelves under the protection of the French, who immediately poſſeſſed themſelves of Barcelona. About the ſame time the Portugeſe threw off the Spaniſh yoke, and placed the Duke of Braganza upon the throne of that kingdom, who took upon him the title of Don JOHN the Fourth; in contriving which revolution the Cardinal is ſaid to have had a conſiderable ſhare. In Italy alſo the arms of France were very ſucceſsful. The Spaniards were defeated and forced to raiſe the ſiege of Caſal, in which was a French garriſon, and the city of Turin ſurrendered to Count HARCOURT. The Cardinal about this time had two great projects on foot; the one was the converſion or baniſhment of the Hugonots, and the other the making himſelf Patriarch of France: but he had too much buſineſs of another kind upon his hands, and was too little beloved to effect either of them.

The Queen has a ſecond ſon.

The Queen on the twenty firſt of September was delivered of another ſon, named PHILIP, afterwards Duke of Orleans. It was apprehended that her Majeſty would now have a conſiderable influence at court, but the Cardinal ſtill carried it as high towards her as ever, and, 'tis ſaid, extorted a promiſe from the King, that in caſe he died and declared the Queen Regent, he ſhould be the chief of her council, and the Queen obliged to follow his advice. And that he might meet with no further oppoſition from the parliament of Paris, he prevailed on the King to aſſemble all the chambers, and cauſe a declaration to be read to them, wherein he prohibited that body to concern themſelves any more in matters of ſtate; and to receive his edicts, not to deliberate upon them, but to confirm them. He aſſerted his prerogative alſo in diſpoſing of all the offices of parliament, and at the ſame time depoſed the Preſident BARILLON, and the Counſellors SCARRON and SALO, and ſome others. He further ordered that the parliament ſhould give an account of their proceedings to the Chancellor every three months, and obtain a licence from his Majeſty to continue in their reſpective functions every year, whereby the King abſolutely deſtroyed the authority of the parliament of Paris.

1641. The parliament abſolutely deprived of their authority.

The Duke of Lorrain about this time made his ſubmiſſion to the King, or rather the Cardinal, and procured part of his territories to be reſtored him; but the French ſtill retained Nancy the capital, and ſeveral other places; and under pretence that the Duke begun to fortify his towns, and enter into an alliance with the Spaniards, they ſeized upon his country again, obliging the Duke to retire to Flanders, where the taking of Aire by the French, and the retaking of it by the Spaniards, were the moſt conſiderable occurrences that happened this campaign. In Italy Count HARCOURT took Coni, and ſome other fortreſſes, while the Spaniards and Prince THOMAS retook ſeveral places the French had ſeized; but in general the Spaniards had the worſt of the war on that ſide. The Marſhal DE BREZE was this year ſent to Barcelona in quality of Viceroy of Catalonia for the French, with orders to poſſeſs himſelf of Rouſſillon, in order to preſerve the communication between France and that province. About this time RICHLIEU procured his friend JULIUS MAZARIN a Cardinal's cap, who had done him ſignal ſervices by his negotiations in Italy while he was nuntio from the Pope.

The Duke of Lorrain reſtored, and driven out of his country again.

MAZARIN made a Cardinal.

In the mean time the prime miniſter was once more in great danger from a conſpiracy formed by Count SOISSONS, the Dukes of Guiſe, Bouillon, and many others of the principal nobility, who being ſupported by the Spaniards, had recourſe to arms. They publiſhed a manifeſto, complaining, of the Cardinal's practices to deſtroy them: they charge him with ruining the kingdom by unneceſſary wars; draining the nation of it's treaſure to purchaſe

Another inſurrection againſt RICHLIEU.

Inſtances of his male adminiſtration.

chaſe foreign towns and territories at extravagant rates, as Briſac, Philipſburgh, and others; ſquandring away large ſums to procure himſelf friends in Italy and elſewhere. They ſhew alſo that all his Majeſty's allies were a charge to him, and only made feeble diverſions at the expence of France. That the Cardinal had cauſed the principal nobility to be impriſoned or baniſhed who oppoſed his arbitrary proceedings, and others had been condemned to death by corrupt commiſſioners of his own nomination. That he had violated and abrogated all the laws of the kingdom, under the ſpecious pretence of aſſerting the King's prerogative. That he had robbed the provinces of their antient privileges, and vacated the compacts made with former Kings. That the nation was beggared by taxes, and trade entirely loſt by the high duties on merchandize. That the country was ruined by quartering ſoldiers, and even tillage and manufactures at a ſtand, inaſmuch that many of the peaſants periſhed by famine. The greateſt part of which charge againſt the Cardinal, ſays my author, was without doubt very well grounded; but ſuch was his good fortune, that when the malecontents had aſſembled an army and defeated that of the King's near Sedan, Count SOISSONS, his greateſt enemy, was killed by a piſtol-ſhot after victory had declared for him. It is generally ſaid he fell by the hands of one of his own guards, whom the Cardinal had corrupted to take him off in the engagement. But however that was, certain it is the Cardinal had run a very great hazard of being diſgraced if this Prince had ſurvived his victory, for the King began to be very impatient at the danger RICHLIEU had expoſed him to by his oppreſſions. The Duke of Bouillon, and the reſt of the malecontents, being offered advantageous terms by the Cardinal, conſented to lay down their arms, and the miniſter thereupon became as firmly eſtabliſhed in his Majeſty's favour as ever.

Count SOISSONS killed after he had obtained a victory.

1642. The French ſucceſsful in Germany and Catalonia.

The year 1642 was as fortunate to France as any of the preceeding. Count GUEBRIANT having joined a body of Heſſians, defeated the Imperial General LAMBOY and took him priſoner, making himſelf maſter of great part of the electorate of Cologne. On the ſide of Catalonia the French defeated a body of five thouſand Spaniards; after which the King and Cardinal marched at the head of a great army and laid ſiege to Perpignan, the capital of Rouſſillon. This grand expedition obliging the French to withdraw ſome of their troops from the Low-Countries, the Spaniards became ſuperior here, and took the town of Lens, and afterwards defeated Marſhal GUICHE; which is the only ſucceſs they met with this campaign, and this the Spaniards made no manner of improvement of.

Perpignan the capital of Rouſſillon beſieged.

Another conſpiracy againſt RICHLIEU.

While the King's troops were marching to the ſiege of Perpignan, another conſpiracy was formed againſt the Cardinal. HENRY DEFFIAT, Marquis of Cinque Mars, Maſter of the Horſe to his Majeſty, (frequently called Monſieur le Grand) having been diſobliged by RICHLIEU, determined to deſtroy him; and knowing that the Duke of Orleans, notwithſtanding his outward reconciliation with this prelate, was ſtill his enemy, he eaſily prevailed with his Highneſs to join in the deſign. The Duke of Bouillon and de Thou engaged alſo in the enterprize. It was agreed by them to treat with the King of Spain, in the name of the Duke of Orleans, and that miniſtry promiſed to furniſh them with twelve thouſand foot and four thouſand horſe veteran troops, beſides a great ſum of money.

The Cardinal was ſenſible that the maſter of the horſe was contriving ſome miſchief againſt him, but could not fathom the bottom of it. There was a current report that the affection the King had for the prime miniſter apparently declined, and that the maſter of the horſe had much the greateſt ſhare of his Majeſty's favour. How true ſoever this might be, the Cardinal was reſolved to loſe no opportunity to re-eſtabliſh himſelf in the King's good opinion: while they were on the march towards Rouſſillon therefore, he lodged always in the ſame place with his Majeſty, and never failed to ſee him every morning and evening, to diſſipate by his preſence all the ſchemes that might have been laid to prejudice his Majeſty againſt him; and as the Maſter of the Horſe was young and thoughtleſs, and conſequently fell infinitely ſhort of the dexterity of the miniſter in the art of cajoling their maſter, the Cardinal eaſily broke all his meaſures. It is ſaid that the favourite had ſeveral times propoſed to the Duke of Orleans and de Thou to aſſaſſinate the Cardinal, but they would not conſent to it. In the mean time the Maſter of the Horſe, who ought to have endeavoured to preſerve and cultivate the friendſhip the King had for him, ſeemed to take a pleaſure in contradicting him, and frequently abſented himſelf when the King deſired his company; and when his friends repreſented that this conduct would infallibly ruin himſelf and them, he told them that he could not bear the ſmell of the King's breath: ſo very arrogant and indiſcreet was this young nobleman, even while he was engaged in an affair which required the niceſt management. It is ſurprizing therefore that perſons of that figure as the Dukes of Orleans and Bouillon were, durſt be concerned in a conſpiracy with him.

Cinque Mars and de Thou executed.

While the King lay before Perpignan, the Cardinal by his ſpies at Madrid procured a copy of the treaty between the Spaniards and the malecontents, which he communicated to his majeſty; whereupon the conſpirators were apprehended, and tryed by a ſpecial commiſſion, except the Duke Orleans, who betraying his friends according to cuſtom, and making an ample confeſſion, was pardoned. The Duke of Bouillon alſo eſcaped with his life on ſurrendering his principality of Sedan to the crown, but the maſter of the horſe and de Thou were beheaded: after which Perpignan having been blocked up till the ſeventh of September, ſurrendered, the garriſon having ſuffered extremely for want of food.

Perpignan ſurrenders.

The Cardinal's grand way of travelling.

The Cardinal being taken very ill in his return from Rouſſillon, and not able to bear the jolting of a coach, contrived a kind of portable chamber, ſo large that it would hold his bed, a table, and ſeats for a friend or two, and was carried on the ſhoulders of eighteen men bare-headed. In this ſtate he travelled near two hundred leagues; and as the machine was two large to enter the gates of ſeveral towns, they beat down their walls to let it through, and the roads were frequently enlarged and levelled for the eaſe of this haughty Prelate in his journey.

He foments the diviſions between the King of England and his parliament.

As RICHLIEU owed his grandure chiefly to the diviſions he fomented in the neighbouring States, and maintaining parties in almoſt every kingdom againſt the Sovereign, England among the reſt unhappily ſuffered by the intrigues of this miniſter; nor was he contented privately to foment the rebellion againſt King CHARLES the Firſt, but permitted the Ambaſſador of France publickly to apply himſelf to that aſſembly which bore the name of a Parliament, and countenanced their uſurpations, of which the King of England complained to his brother of France and procured the Ambaſſador to be recalled. Richlieu's friends indeed excuſed his conduct in this matter, by ſaying it was a juſt retaliation for the aſſiſtance King Charles had given the Rochellers: but the caſe ſeems to be widely different; for the religion, rights, and liberties of the Proteſtants of France having been eſtabliſhed by the moſt ſolemn edicts, which Richlieu thought fit to invade, that people had certainly a right to defend themſelves, and the Proteſtant powers of Europe had an equal right to interpoſe and afford them their aſſiſtance. Whereas the ſectaries in England without any juſt provocation withdrew their allegiance from their Sovereign, and refuſed to live in ſubjection to him or any other government eccleſiaſtical or civil, till in the end they entirely ſubverted the conſtitution in church and ſtate, ſequeſtered the lands of the crown, of the biſhops, the nobility, and of every loyal ſubject, and divided them among their factious brethren. But to return to France: Prince Thomas of Savoy who commanded their forces in Italy, was as ſucceſsful there as their Generals had been in other places this campaign, taking Nice de la Paille, Tortona, and other towns, from the Spaniards. And now when the Cardinal ſeemed to be arrived at the higheſt pitch of glory, or at leaſt what he eſteemed ſuch, and was laying ſchemes of univerſal monarchy, his diſtemper increaſed upon him and put an end to all his mighty projects. But before I come to deſcribe the laſt ſcene of his life, I cannot forbear giving another inſtance of his unparallelled arrogance and preſumption. He was, or pretended to be, afraid of being aſſaſſinated by the King's guards, who had a particular affection for the maſter of the horſe whom he had beheaded; he deſired therefore that whenever he came to wait on his Majeſty, he might introduce into the palace a number of his own guards equal to the King's, which the eaſy Prince conſented to, tho' 'twas ſuch a propoſal, as my author obſerves, that would have been conſtrued high-treaſon in another.

The Cardinal's laſt illneſs.

The Cardinal did not enjoy this mark of diſtinction long, for his fever and the pain of his ſide increaſing, together with a difficulty of breathing, the phyſicians pronounced that he had but a ſhort time to live; of which the King being informed, made him a viſit, and ſpeaking to him with a great deal of tenderneſs and concern, he anſwered, that he took his leave of his Majeſty, knowing he muſt ſhortly pay that common tribute which all men owe to nature; that he felt a ſenſible ſatiſfaction in reflecting that he had never done any thing in his whole life contrary to his Majeſty's ſervice, and left France in the higheſt reputation it had ever enjoyed in the world, her enemies being humbled to his wiſhes; and adviſed his Majeſty to continue the preſent miniſtry, among whom his friend Mazarin was the chief, as extremely capable of ſerving the crown. Soon after he received the viaticum, and as the curate entered with the hoſt he ſaid, Behold my Judge, who will ſoon pronounce my ſentence! I deſire with all my heart he may condemn me, if in my miniſtry I have propoſed any other end to my ſelf than the good of religion and the ſtate. Being aſked if he forgave all his enemies, he anſwered, that he did it with all his heart, and after the ſame manner as he beſought the divine juſtice to uſe him. And 'twas in general obſerved, that no man who had lived conſtantly conformable to the precepts of the goſpel could have teſtified a greater confidence in God than this miniſter, who had imbrued his hands in the blood of the nobility, oppreſſed the people with heavy taxes, ſubverted the liberties and privileges of the ſubject, and fomented wars and rebellions in moſt of the kingdoms of Europe. He gave his palace, with furniture for the beſt apartments, and fifteen hundred thouſand livres, to his Majeſty, which ſum he ſaid had been of ſingular ſervice to him in many exigencies of the ſtate, and adviſed the King always to keep ſuch a ſum by him, to employ on preſſing occaſions when his treaſury might be exhauſted. He gave large legacies to his relations and all who had ſerved him, beſides a vaſt eſtate he left to his nephew Armand de Maille. But to enter a little into his character: The ambition of this miniſter was inſatiable, nothing leſs than the direction of all affairs at home and abroad would ſatisfy him, to which end it was requiſite to preſerve his poſt and make himſelf neceſſary to the King; this he affected by engaging him everlaſtingly in ſome new enterprize or other, which the poor Prince was ſenſible he could not carry on without him. He is ſaid to have laid the foundation of an univerſal monarchy, and had a proſpect of effecting it by the ruin of Spain, to which he gave two dangerous blows, by ſupporting the inſurrections of the Catalonians and Portugueze; and as it was neceſſary to facilitate the execution of his vaſt projects, above all things to ſecure France from foreign invaſions, and put himſelf in a condition to pour his forces into any country he deſigned to reduce, he covered her frontiers on the ſide of the Low-Countries, where it was moſt expoſed by the conqueſt of Artois: for the ſame reaſon he undertook the conqueſt of Rouſſillon, which would have been a barrier to France on the ſide of the Pyrenees; and with the like views he ſeized Briſac on the Rhine, and Pignerol on the confines of Italy, which he would never ſuffer the King to part with on any conſideration whatever. And if the ſtretching the prerogative of the crown beyond all bounds, ſurpriſing the territories of the neighbouring Princes by the baſeſt arts, and thereby rendering France terrible to her neighbours; if the ſubverting the conſtitution of his own country and enſlaving his fellow-ſubjects, were meritorious acts, he might deſerve the epithet of great, nay, of the greateſt miniſter that ever ſat at the helm, as his admirers frequently ſtile him; otherwiſe we may ſtill continue to rank him among the plagues and ſcourges of mankind.

The Queen-mother's death.

The Cardinal before he died received news of the Queen-mother's death at Cologne; and tho' they had of late years been mortal enemies, yet as ſhe was once his benefactreſs and had introduced him into the miniſtry, he thought it but decent to pay ſome reſpect to her remains, and accordingly celebrated her obſequies with abundance of magnificence. The King, 'tis ſaid, was extremely grieved at the news, and began to reflect with remorſe on the ill uſage he had ſhewn his mother to ſatisfy an inexorable miniſter; but Richlieu knew how to divert him from theſe diſagreeable ſubjects, and appears to have gone off the ſtage in full favour with his maſter; and the King, according to his advice, advanced his friend Cardinal Mazarin to his poſt of prime miniſter.

1643. The King dies.

His Majeſty did not long ſurvive his favourite; the fatigues of his journey to Rouſſillon, which the Cardinal had put him upon, 'tis thought, was very prejudicial to him: he was ſeized by a ſlow fever in April following, and perceiving his health gradually decay, he declared his Queen, ANNE of Auſtria, Regent of the kingdom during the minority of the Dauphin, and under her the Duke of Orleans Lieutenant-General of the State and Preſident of the Council; the other members whereof were HENRY Prince of Condé, the Chancellor, Cardinal MAZARIN, and the Sieur DE CHAVIGNI. He died on the fourteenth of May, in the forty-third year of his age, and the thirty-fourth of his reign; leaving behind him two ſons, viz. LEWIS who ſucceeded him by the name of LEWIS the Fourteenth; and PHILIP, afterwards Duke of Orleans,

LEWIS XIV.

LEWIS the Fourteenth ſucceeded his father at the age of four years, eight months, and nine days, and the parliament of Paris confirmed his mother Queen ANNE Regent during his minority, as the late King LEWIS XIII had appointed. And notwithſtanding the Queen mother had been formerly very ill uſed by the late miniſtry, yet Cardinal MAZARIN foreſeeing the King's death, having made his court to her for ſome time, and procured her to be appointed Regent, ſhe forgot the affronts ſhe had received, and determined to continue him and the reſt of the late King's council in the adminiſtration, to the great mortification of her friends who had been ſufferers with her, and had reaſon to expect to be advanced to the principal poſts in the government. But Princes when their turn is ſerved do not always remember paſt ſervices; and ſhe had this to allege in MAZARIN's behalf, beſides his having procured her the regency, that he was by all acknowledged to be an able miniſter, and well verſed in the ſtate of the nation, which ſhe could not be ſo well aſſured of in any one ſhe ſhould have taken in to ſupply his room. SEGUER the Chancellor was the only man who was turned out of all the late miniſters, which could hardly be avoided, as he had been guilty of ſome rudeneſs in ſearching for the Queen's letters which ſhe endeavoured to conceal from the King.

The French gain a victory near Rocroy.

The Spaniards apprehending they were ſuperior to the French this year on the ſide of Champagne, laid ſiege to Rocroy, which the Duke of Enguien, ſon to the Prince of Condé was ſent to relieve, it being eſteemed a place of great importance. This young General was at this time but two and twenty years of age. He marched with all imaginable expedition, fell upon the beſiegers, gained a compleat victory, and raiſed the ſiege. He afterwards took Thionville in Luxemburg; and receiving advice that the Marſhal DE GUEBRIAN was hard preſſed by the Dukes of Bavaria and Lorrain on the confines of Germany, he marched to his aſſiſtance, and made them retire in their turn. Prince THOMAS of Savoy, and the French Generals in Italy, alſo took ſeveral towns from the Spaniards; and in Catalonia the Marſhal DE LA MOTTE drove the troops of Spain before him. The French fleet likewiſe defeated that of the Spaniards near Cartagena; ſo that France was every where victorious. Theſe ſucceſſes eſtabliſhed the credit of the miniſtry at a very critical juncture; for their enemies were numerous and powerful, and the leaſt misfortune would at this time have hazarded their diſgrace. It is obſerved of MAZARIN, that by aſcribing all the glory of theſe actions to the Duke of Orleans and the Prince of Condé, and ſecretly creating in theſe Princes a jealouſy of each other, he had in a manner the direction of the council, both of them appealing to him when any diſpute aroſe. The civil war continuing in England, the French court ſent over an Ambaſſador thither under pretence of mediating between that King and his people; but in reality to foment their diviſions, for they were apprehenſive his Britiſh Majeſty would have taken the part of Spain and the Emperor if he had not been engaged in theſe diſputes, or they might with a very ſmall aſſiſtance have enabled him to cruſh that rebellion.

1644.

The French were engaged in another mediation between the Pope and the Duke of Parma, they tell us, and aſcribe the concluſion of the peace that followed between them to the addreſs of their miniſters. The Pope it ſeems had taken the duchy of Caſtro from the Duke of Parma; whereupon the Republick of Venice, the Dukes of Tuſcany and Modena, entered into an alliance with Parma for the recovery of it. The Duke of Parma marched up to the gates of Rome, and poſſeſſed himſelf of ſeveral places in the eccleſiaſtical State, and his Holineſs was glad to relinquiſh Caſtro, on condition the Duke would retire out of his territories; and this would probably have been the caſe if the French had never been concerned in the affair: but according to the vanity of that nation, no conſiderable event can happen in Chriſtendom which they do not pretend to have the direction of; and indeed they ſeem at this day to have the fate of moſt of the kingdoms in Europe too much at their diſpoſal, whatever they might have then. But to return to France: An inſurrection happened this year in the Province of Rovergne on account of the Taille or land-tax; and tho' the court had the good fortune to ſuppreſs it, and puniſhed ſome of the mutineers, yet they thought fit to eaſe the people this year of ten millions of livres, or one million ſterling, in their taxes.

The French renew their alliance with the Dutch.

The French renewed their alliance with the States-General about this time, whereby the States obliged themſelves to maintain an army againſt the Spaniards in the Low-Countries, conſiſting of twenty thouſand foot and five thouſand horſe, and to fit out a fleet of thirty men of war to block up the mouth of the Scheld, or aſſiſt in the conqueſt of any port town; and the French on the other hand agreed to pay them twelve hundred thouſand livres. The following campaign the Duke of Orleans took Gravelin; and the Dutch, Sas van Ghent, in Flanders. Upon the Rhine the Imperialiſts having taken Friburg, the Duke of Enguien marched to ſtop their progreſs, and gained a compleat victory over them near that city, and afterwards took the ſtrong town of Philipſburg; whereupon Worms, Spiers, Mayence, Oppenheim, Creutznach, Landau, Newſtadt, Manheim, and Magdeburg ſubmitted to the French. And in Italy Prince THOMAS of Savoy, who commanded the troops of France, took the caſtle of Aſti. The King of England's affairs appearing deſperate at this time, the Queen retired to the court of France, where ſhe afterwards married her daughter HENRIETTA to the Duke Orleans.

They are victorious in Germany, and take Philipſburg, and abundance of towns there.

1645. Their ſucceſſes in Catalonia and Germany.

The campaign of 1645 was not leſs fortunate to France than the two preceding: in Catalonia they took the city of Roſes, which ſurrendered on the 21ſt of May; and afterwards defeated a great body of Spaniards: Balaguer and Agramont alſo were taken. And in Germany the Duke of Enguien on the firſt of Auguſt gained a victory over the Imperialiſts commanded by General MERCI, In Flanders, &c.

MERCI, who was himſelf killed in the field of battle; whereupon Nortlingen ſurrendered at diſcretion, and Dunkeſſiel four days after. In Lorrain the French took ſeveral towns; and in Italy Prince THOMAS made himſelf maſter of Vigevano. While the Duke of Orleans in the Low-Countries reduced Mardyke, Lillers, St Venant, Armentiers, and Meurin (but Mardyke was retaken by the Spaniards). Before the concluſion of the campaign the French took the city of Triers, and re-eſtabliſhed their friend the Elector in the government of it.

1646. In order to encourage the Dutch to continue the war againſt Spain, the French, beſides the vaſt ſums they advanced to the States, gave them very conſiderable advantages in point of trade this year. And while they made a conſiderable diverſion on the ſide of Antwerp, the Duke of Orleans took Courtray, Berg, and Mardyke: and Monſieur returning to court, the Duke of Enguien, who commanded the army in his abſence, made himſelf maſter of Furnes and Dunkirk by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch fleet; and in Italy the French reduced Piombino and Porto Longone. There happening a diſpute in a cavalcade at Rome about this time between the attendants of the Cardinal D'ESTE, Protector of the affairs of France, and thoſe of the Spaniſh Ambaſſador; the Spaniards were beaten, and the Ambaſſador's coachman diſabled, ſo that the miniſter was obliged to get another to drive him home; but the greateſt mortification was, that the ambaſſador was prohibited to diſpute the precedency with the Cardinal any more. To return to more bloody encounters: Marſhal TURENNE having defeated the Bavarian forces, afterwards took Aſchaffenburg, Solingenſtadt, Darmſtadt, Scorndorff, Landeberg, and Lawinghen; ſo that the Electors of Mentz and Cologne, and the Prince of Heſſe-Darmſtadt found themſelves obliged to accept of a neutrality for their reſpective territories; and the Duke of Lorrain was perfectly driven out of his country. HENRY DE BOURBON Prince of Condé happening to die at the latter end of this ſucceſsful campaign, his ſon the Duke of Enguien ſucceeded him in his honours and eſtate.

The great progreſs of the French in Germany.

1647. The Spaniards imputing their ill fortune in a great meaſure to the unſkilfulneſs or miſunderſtandings among their Generals, gave the government of the Low-Countries, and the command of their armies there, to LEOPOLD Duke of Auſtria, who in the beginning of this campaign took Landrecy and Armentiers, and was about to beſiege Dunkirk; but the French Generals found him other employment: Marſhal RANTZAU took Dixmude, Nieufdam, Lens, and Sluys, from the Spaniards, and defeated the Marquis DE CARACENA.

The Duke of Enguien (now Condé) being made Viceroy of Catalonia, beſieged Lerida; but here his uſual good fortune ſeemed to have deſerted him, for he was obliged to riſe from before it. However, the people were ſo indulgent to the young hero, that they would by no means impute this ill ſucceſs to him, but threw the odium of it upon the prime miniſter, affirming that he had neglected to furniſh the Duke with neceſſaries for the ſiege on purpoſe to deſtroy him, becauſe he was jealous of the power and reputation he had obtained.

A ceſſation of arms in Germany.

The treaty of Weſtphalia being now in a great forwardneſs, a ſuſpenſion of arms was agreed on between France, Sweden, and the Regency of Heſſe, on the one part, and the Electors of Bavaria and Cologne, and Prince MAXIMILIAN on the other.

Notwithſtanding the conqueſts the French had made on every ſide, the miniſtry were very deſirous of peace; for the long continuance of the war had brought the treaſury very low, and occaſioned the laying innumerable taxes on the ſubjects, which made them expreſs no ſmall diſaffection to the adminiſtration. Beſides which, the Dutch had entered into a ſeparate treaty with the enemy, and without their aſſiſtance the French could not propoſe to carry on a war againſt the houſe of Auſtria with any advantage. However, there were ſome impediments which prevented the concluſion of it till the year 1648. In the mean time Count SCHOMBERG laid ſiege to Tortoſa in Catalonia and took it, by which the French opened a paſſage into the kingdoms of Arragon and Valentia. The Prince of Condé alſo made himſelf maſter of Ipres in Flanders. While he lay before this place, the Spaniards retook Courtray, Furnes, and Lens: however, the Prince met with their army near the laſt town, and gave them a ſignal defeat.

1648. The war in Catalonia and Flanders.

The parliament of Paris about this time began to reſume their antient authority; which the miniſtry were ſo offended at, that they ordered Meſſieurs DE BROUSSEL and BLANCMENIL, two of their buſieſt members, to be taken into cuſtody, and ſome others were baniſhed: but this proceeding was ſo reſented by the city of Paris, that they barricaded their ſtreets, inſulted the Chancellor, and committed many diſorders, which the government were forced to wink at while the war continued.

The parliament of Paris oppoſe the miniſtry.

The memorable inſurrection at Naples raiſed by MASSANELLO, a young fiſherman, on account of the inſupportable taxes levyed there by the Spaniards, happened about the ſame time. The people gave him the title of their Captain-General, and in a few days he entirely ſubverted the government. But his fall was as ſudden as his riſe; he was forſaken of a ſudden by the mob, who ſubmitted themſelves again to the Viceroy: but he continuing or increaſing the impoſitions, which were the occaſion of their uneaſineſs, they had recourſe to arms a ſecond time, and offered the Duke of Guiſe, a French nobleman, who was then at Rome, the government of the city. He accepted the command; but before he arrived there, the miniſtry found means to ſuppreſs the inſurrection, and made the Duke priſoner.

The peace of Munſter concluded.

At length the famous treaty of Munſter, in which moſt of the powers of Europe were concerned, was concluded on the 24th of October. The preliminaries of this treaty had been debated ſeveral years. The negotiations were carried on at Munſter, the capital of Weſtphalia, and at Oſnabrug, a town in the ſame circle about thirty miles from it; from whence this treaty is ſometimes called the treaty of Munſter, ſometimes of Oſnabrug, and at others of Weſtphalia. It was appointed to be held at two places, to prevent any differences that might happen among the plenipotentiaries on account of precedency, eſpecially with the Pope's Nuntio, whom the Swedes and other Proteſtant Princes refuſed to have any commerce with; whereupon their miniſters generally met at Oſnabrug, as thoſe of the Popiſh powers did at Munſter, which occaſioned continual journies from one place to the other.

This treaty was begun the eleventh of July N. S. or the firſt of the ſame month O. S. 1643, The principal articles between France and the Empire.

ſo that it laſted upwards of five years. The moſt material articles whereof, as far as it related to the Imperialiſts and the French, were, That the circle of Burgundy ſhould continue a member of the Empire: That the controverſy about Lorrain ſhould be referred to arbitrators: That the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire ſhould be re-eſtabliſhed in their eccleſiaſtical and temporal eſtates, which they enjoyed before the war: That the electoral dignity, with the Upper Palatinate, ſhould go to the houſe of Bavaria; but that an eighth Electorate ſhould be re-eſtabliſhed in favour of CHARLES-LEWIS, Count Palatine of the Rhine, and his heirs, who ſhould enjoy the Lower Palatinate: That thoſe of the confeſſion of Augſburg ſhould be put into the poſſeſſion of their churches and eccleſiaſtical eſtates, and enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion.

Territories yielded to France.

That the right of ſovereignty and other rights to the biſhopricks of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, ſhould be confirmed to, and be incorporated in, the crown of France. The Emperor and Empire alſo transferred all their right of ſovereignty to Pignerol to the crown of France; as alſo all their rights, properties, juriſdictions, &c. in the city of Briſac, the landgraveſhip of the Upper and Lower Alſatia, Suntgow, and the provincial lordſhip of ten imperial cities ſituate in Alſatia, viz. Haguenau, Culmer, Schletſtat, Weiſenburg, Landau, Oberenheim, Roſheim, Munſter in the valley of St Gregory, Keyſerburg, and Turingam, and all the villages depending on them, to the moſt Chriſtian King and the kingdom of France, with a right to keep a garriſon in the caſtle of Philipſburg.

Territories reſtored to the Empire.

The moſt Chriſtian King, on the other hand, agreed to reſtore to the houſe of Auſtria, the four foreſt towns of Rheinfelden, Seckingen, Lawſſinberg, and Walſhutten, with their territories, villages, and appurtenances: Alſo the county of Hawenſtein, the Black Foreſt, the Upper and Lower Briſgow, and the towns ſituate therein, viz. Newburg, Friburg, Eudingen, Kenzingen, Waldkirk, Willingen and Brunlingen, with their territories and appurtenances. Alſo all Ortnavien, with the imperial cities of Offenburg, Gengenback, Cellaham, and Hamorſpach. And it was agreed that for the future, the commerce and paſſage ſhould be free to the inhabitants of both banks of the Rhine, and the adjacent provinces, eſpecially the navigation of the ſaid river, under the uſual tolls. And his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, in conſideration of the towns and territories thus transferred to him, agreed to pay to the Archduke FERDINAND-CHARLES three millions of livres within three years. The King of Spain was not comprehended in this treaty.

The parliaments re-aſſume their authority.

Their diſputes with the miniſtry.

1649.

France had no ſooner concluded a peace with the Empire, but the kingdom began to be diſtracted again with inteſtine diviſions: the many heavy taxes that had been laid to ſupport the war, but chiefly the arbitrary manner of levying them, had created abundance of ill blood. The parliaments alſo, which had been deprived of their authority during the adminiſtration of RICHLIEU and MAZARIN, entered into a confederacy (or act of union as 'twas called) to vindicate their own and the people's privileges. They received the petitions of grievances which were brought them from all parts of the kingdom favourably, and promiſed to ſee juſtice done them; whereby they obtained the titles of the ſaviours and deliverers of their country: and thoſe of them that were moſt zealous in their oppoſition to the court were uſually called *Frondeurs*, or Slingers, perhaps from their throwing or ſlinging at the miniſtry. But the Prince of Condé having obtained a victory over the Spaniards at Lens about this time, MAZARIN and the court-party looked upon their intereſt to be ſo much ſtrengthned by it, that they ventured to ſeize upon ſome of the principal members of the parliament of Paris and impriſon them; whereupon the citizens of that capital had recourſe to arms, barricadoed their ſtreets, and obliged the miniſtry to releaſe the impriſoned members, as has been mentioned already; and might have carried their reſentments farther, had not the Prince of Condé, who was equally in the good graces of the court and the people, made up the difference for the preſent. But it appearing ſoon afterwards that nothing leſs would ſatisfy the parliament and the people than the diſgrace of MAZARIN, the Queen, in order to protect her favourite, implored the aſſiſtance of the Duke of Orleans and the Prince of Condé, but eſpecially the latter, who had ſuch an intereſt in the army and the kingdom in general, that ſhe did not doubt carrying her point if ſhe could gain him; ſhe ſpared neither prayers or tears, the uſual artillery of the ſex, to bring him over: the Cardinal alſo vowed perpetual ſubmiſſion to his will, if he would protect him againſt his enemies; and by theſe and other arts prevailed on the Prince to eſpouſe their cauſe. Whereupon he threatned the parliament and city of Paris with his reſentment of they continued diſobedient to the Regent; and adviſed her to retire with the young King from Paris to St Germains, that he might block up that city, and make them ſenſible of their error. After which, he poſſeſſed himſelf of Lagni, Corbeil, St Cloud, St Dennis, and Charenton, with his forces, whereby he cut off their communication with the country, and ſtopt all proviſions coming to town; which reduced them to great diſtreſs, and made the people alter the good opinion they formerly had conceived of him.

The parliament obliged to ſubmit to the court.

The parliament on the other hand charged the Cardinal with male-adminiſtration, declared him a diſturber of the publick peace, and enemy to the king and kingdom, requiring him to leave France within eight days. They alſo levyed forces, and voluntarily taxed themſelves to maintain them; and were ſeconded by great numbers of the principal nobility, particularly the Prince of Conti brother to the Prince of Condé. But notwithſtanding this vigorous beginning, when the city began to be ſtraitned for want of proviſions, the Pariſians thought fit to accept of a general indemnity, which was offered them by the court, and to lay down their arms again.

The Cardinal having obtained his end, and growing weary of his dependance on the Prince of Condé, endeavoured to foment the diviſions between him and the Slingers. He alſo put the army under the command of other Generals whom he could confide in, and laid ſiege to Cambray without aſking the Prince's advice, tho' he was forced to raiſe the ſiege, and had the mortification to ſee the Spaniards make themſelves maſters of Ipres the ſame campaign. The following winter the Cardinal, in order to render the Prince and the Slingers irreconcilable, ordered a report to be ſpread that they had a deſign upon his life; and to confirm him in this ſuſpicion, he cauſed his coach to be attacked and ſhot through, by a mob he had ſpirited up, as it went empty through the city: which affront being repreſented by the Prince in the manner the Cardinal expected it would, the people were

1650. no longer at his devotion. Whereupon this Prelate cauſed the Prince himſelf, and his brother the Prince of Conti to be apprehended, with the Duke of Longueville, and ſent priſoners to the caſtle of Vincennes; nor did any one attempt to reſcue 1651. them. But the Parliament and the Slingers, as well as the Duke of Orleans, being ſenſible how much they had been abuſed by the Cardinal's artifices, they all determined to ſet the Princes at liberty; and this Prelate finding himſelf unable to reſiſt the general current, ſeemingly agreed to it, but thought fit at the ſame time to retire from court. The Queen, however, being impatient at the abſence of her favourite, ſoon made way for his return, putting his friends into all poſts of honour or profit; which ſo diſguſted the Prince of Condé, that he retired in diſcontent to Guienne, and raiſed an inſurrection there. Bourdeaux and ſeveral other conſiderable towns declaring for him, another civil war was commenced, and the Prince, with whom the Duke of Orleans and the parliament of Paris joined their forces, were at firſt much ſuperior to their enemies; but the Cardinal, who was now returned to court, pretending to be deſirous of peace, engaged the Prince in fruitleſs negotiations till his party dwindled away, and moſt of his troops 1652. deſerted. The Prince, however, came to Paris with the remainder of his forces, between whom and the royaliſts there happened a ſmart encounter in the ſuburb of St Anthony, and he was ſo well ſupported by the Pariſians at this time, that the Cardinal was once more obliged to retire from court. But the Prince of Condé's party falling out among themſelves, their enemies prevailed againſt them, and his Highneſs thought fit to leave the kingdom and join the Spaniards in Flanders, who gave him the command of their troops for ſeveral years. Whereupon the Cardinal returned to his former poſt in triumph, and became more arbitrary than ever, neither the parliament or city of Paris durſt afterwards lift up a hand againſt him.

Another civil war.

The Prince of Condé leaves the kingdom, and commands the Spaniſh army.

During theſe commotions at home their foreign wars ſucceeded very ill: In Catalonia Don JOHN of Auſtria beſieged Barcelona and took it. In Italy the Spaniards made themſelves maſters of Caſal; and in Flanders they beſieged and took Gravelin and Dunkirk. Theſe ill ſucceſſes obliged Cardinal MAZARIN to look out for foreign aſſiſtance, and CROMWELL the Protector, as he was called, in England, being in great reputation for his warlike exploits, he entered into an alliance with him againſt the Spaniards.

MAZARIN returns to court, and makes an alliance with CROMWELL.

In the year 1653 the Prince of Condé entered France at the head of an army of Spaniards; but 1653. was ſo narrowly obſerved by M. TURENNE, that he gained no other advantage than the taking of 1654. Rocroy. The year 1654 was remarkable for little elſe but the coronation of the King; as the 1655. following was for a maſſacre of the Proteſtant Vaudois, in which ſeveral French regiments aſſiſted, and committed unheard-of cruelties. The 1656. French having laid ſiege to Valenciennes in 1656, Don JOHN of Auſtria obliged them to raiſe the ſiege, and gained a victory over their troops near that city. About this time CHRISTINA Queen of Sweden arrived at Paris, having reſigned her crown to lead a private life.

1657. A miſunderſtanding happened this year between France and her old allies the States-General, on account of ſome French ſhips the Dutch had taken in the Mediterranean, ſaid to have commited ſeveral acts of piracy; whereupon MAZARIN ſeized the ſhips of Holland in the harbours of France by way of reprizal; and the Dutch took as many French ſhips as they could meet with; but the difference was made up without entring into a war. The ſame campaign the French were obliged to raiſe the ſiege of Cambray by the Prince of Condé; but they made themſelves maſters of Montmedy in Luxemburg: and now being joined by ſix thouſand of CROMWELL's veteran troops, they became ſuperior to the Spaniards in the Low-Countries. By one of the articles between the Engliſh and French they were to endeavour the taking of Dunkirk, which was to be put into the hands of the Engliſh: accordingly that town was beſieged in 1658. the year 1658, and the Prince of Condé and Don JOHN of Auſtria marching to the relief of it, were defeated by the French and Engliſh; after which the town ſurrendered and received an Engliſh garriſon, as had been ſtipulated. But I ſhould have remembered that the preceding year BLAKE the Admiral of the Engliſh fell upon the Spaniſh fleet and galeons at the Canaries, and burnt them all, while they lay under the command of the forts upon the iſland; which was looked upon as a very deſperate action, ſuch a thing not having been heard of at that time of day, as attacking a fleet defended by caſtles and batteries on ſhore, though now it is become very uſual.

Dunkirk taken and put into the hands of the Engliſh.

Moſt writers take notice of the figure CROMWELL, the Protector of the commonwealth of England, as he was called, made about this time. He had humbled the Dutch and the Spaniard, and made the French entirely dependent on him; none of the powers of Europe durſt oppoſe him; and if he had lived a little longer, he had laid a ſcheme, as 'tis ſaid, to bring all nations into his fold, under the pious pretence of making them ſubjects of Jeſus Chriſt, whoſe Vicegerent on earth he would no doubt have pretended to be, and thus have rivaled the Pope in the power he aſſumed of diſpoſing of the kingdoms of the world. They tell us, that when the Proteſtants of Niſmes in France had made an inſurrection, and Cardinal MAZARIN had ſent a detachment of the army to cut them in pieces, CROMWELL obliged him to countermand thoſe troops, and grant them a pardon: and it was he that obliged the Duke of Savoy to deſiſt from perſecuting the Proteſtant Vaudois; ſo that 'tis no wonder that the Reformed Churches abroad have his memory in great veneration at this day. Cardinal MAZARIN complained of him, that he would be denied nothing; conſtantly alledging, that the people would not be otherwiſe ſatisfied. PUFFENDORFF obſerves of him, that in the treaty of alliance between France and Spain, CROMWELL would not ſuffer their ſovereign LEWIS XIV to be ſtiled King of France, but the French King; and inſiſted that his own name and ſtile, as protector of the commonwealth of England, ſhould ſtand before that of the French King's in the inſtrument of the treaty. This ſhews what a Prince or Uſurper may do when he has made himſelf abſolute maſter of the purſes and perſons of the people: the kingdom is then but one great farm let out at a rack-rent, and the people entirely ſlaves, whoſe buſineſs in this world is only to ſupport the grandeur of their maſter; and though trade and navigation, manufactures and tillage muſt in theſe caſes be under the utmoſt diſcouragement; and perhaps the produce of the country not yield half ſo much as it would if the people were in a ſtate of freedom, as it is in France at this day; yet as the Sovereign is maſter of

CROMWELL governs the court of France, and moſt of the powers in Europe.

of all that's left, he will make a greater figure among his neighbours than while he remained limited by laws: he could not bully the world about him ſo effectually when he depended only on the aids the ſubjects granted him, as when he had made himſelf maſter of all. Therefore it has always been the practice of ambitious Princes, firſt to make a conqueſt of their own people, and reduce them to a ſtate of ſlavery, before they pretended to enlarge their dominions much by foreign conqueſts. It is not to be ſuppoſed that any free trading people would be willing to ſacrifice their perſons and wealth for the glory of their monarch, as 'tis called, in the ſame meaſure as he would himſelf if their eſtates were at his diſpoſal. Self will be always at the bottom: the ſubject while he is free, will certainly rather lay out part of his money in trade and commerce, in increaſing his own eſtate and ſupporting his family, than give the whole to encourage the ambitious views of a vain glorious Prince, or his rapacious miniſters. And this is the reaſon that Princes and their favourites too often look upon the people as their enemies: they have no notion of governing with a limited authority, nor can enjoy any happineſs ſo long as they can be controlled, or the ſubject retains any part of his ſubſtance for his own uſe. Taxes and ſtanding armies therefore they conſtantly inculcate are neceſſary for the defence of the nation; though in reality they are generally raiſed for the ſupport of an unwarrantable authority: either to purchaſe the leaders of the people, and induce them to give up the eſtates and liberties of thoſe they repreſent to the crown, or to dragoon them into ſubmiſſion with the very forces they themſelves have raiſed: and becauſe national troops are not always found ſo compliant and ready to execute every barbarous order againſt their countrymen as foreigners, a good body of mercenaries are uſually kept in pay as corps de reſerve in caſe all other meaſures fail. The French Princes while they were employed in ſubduing their own ſubjects, ever kept a body of ten or twelve thouſand Germans or Swiſs in their pay, who would cut throats where they were bid without reluctance, and deſtroy whole towns and villages if they murmured at the taxes impoſed upon them, or refuſed to ſubmit to the tyranny of the court. But to return: The French being now reinforced by the Engliſh, became ſuperior to the Spaniards in Flanders again, and not only took Dunkirk from them, but Furnes, Berg St Winock, Dixmude, Ipres, Grammont, Ninove, and many other places; and made ſome acquiſitions in Catalonia and Italy: which ſucceſſes inclined the Spaniards ſeriouſly to think of peace, and accordingly a treaty was ſet on foot, and conferences held in the iſle of Pheaſants, formed by the river Bidaſſoa, which divides the two kingdoms; the plenipotentiaries being Cardinal MAZARIN prime miniſter of France on one ſide, and Don LEWIS DE HARO prime miniſter of Spain on the other. This was generally called the Pyrenean Treaty, the conferences being held near the foot of thoſe mountains, and was concluded on the ſeventh of November, 1659, within leſs than a month after the conferences began. The principal articles were, That the French King ſhould marry the Infanta of Spain, but that both of them ſhould for themſelves, their heirs and ſucceſſors, relinquiſh all right and pretenſions to the Spaniſh monarchy, and the territories thereto belonging: which was done in the ſtrongeſt terms and ſworn to.

Towns taken by the French.

The Pyrenean treaty. 1659.

That the Prince of Condé, his ſervants and adherents, ſhould be received into favour: the Prince made governor of Burgundy, and his ſon, the Duke of Enguien, great maſter of the houſhold.

That the French King ſhould give no manner of aſſiſtance to the Portugueſe.

That the Duke of Lorrain ſhould have his country reſtored to him, but the French reſerved the liberty of garriſoning ſome places, and marching through it when they pleaſed.

Franche Comte and Catalonia were reſtored to Spain, but Rouſſillon was confirmed to the French, as well as ſeveral towns they had taken in the Netherlands.

CHARLES the Second, King of Great Britain, who was in exile at this time, went to the place of treaty, in hopes of getting ſomething ſtipulated in his favour; but MAZARIN, 'tis ſaid, refuſed to ſee him, and Don LEWIS DE HARO, though he gave him all the honour due to a crowned head, put him off with fair promiſes only. Had they foreſeen he would have been reſtored to his dominions in a few months without their aſſiſtance, he would probably have met with a better reception: but Princes as well as common men, are too apt to neglect and ſlight the intereſt of a diſtreſſed brother.

1660.

The year 1660 was great part of it taken up with rejoicings for the peace, and the marriage between the French King and the Infanta. The Kings of France and Spain met in the iſle of Pheaſants on the ſixth of June, and the next day the King of Spain delivered the Infanta, MARIA-THERESA of Auſtria, to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, and the marriage was ſolemnized at the city of St John de Luz, on the ninth of the ſame month.

1661. MAZARIN dies.

In March following died that famous miniſter Cardinal MAZARIN, who following the maxims of RICHLIEU his predeceſſor, gave the finiſhing ſtroke to the liberties of France, and left his maſter the moſt arbitrary monarch in Chriſtendom. The King, though but two and twenty years of age, determined to take the government upon himſelf, to examine the conduct of all his miniſters, and ſuffer nothing to be tranſacted without his knowledge. And whereas formerly it was very difficult to procure acceſs even to the prime miniſter, his Majeſty appointed certain times to receive petitions himſelf from the meaneſt of his ſubjects. The ſecrecy of his councils is another ſubject of admiration; for notwithſtanding moſt things were debated in full council, they received another examination in a cabinet-council, conſiſting of two or three ſelect perſons, and to theſe his Majeſty ſeldom communicated the reſolution he intended to take. And as he ſuſpected that he had been abuſed in his finances, or treaſury, he erected a court to enquire into the conduct of the ſuperintendant or high-treaſurer, who was ſentenced to be baniſhed, and his eſtate confiſcated, tho' 'tis ſaid he made a very good defence; and afterwards the celebrated JOHN BAPTISTA COLBERT, a private gentleman, was made comptroller of the finances, the office of ſuperintendant being ſuppreſſed. The farmers of the revenue alſo were called to account, and obliged to refund great part of the treaſure they had plundered the publick of: but the taxes, it ſeems, were moſt of them continued as when the nation was in a ſtate of war. Few Princes, after a precedent of many years ſtanding, will ſuffer a tax to be diſcontinued, though the ſervice be ended for which it was firſt raiſed;

The King governs himſelf.

his minſters cannot want ſome new pretence to keep it on foot; and where the government is arbitrary, all the reaſon in the world can avail very little: but in a free nation, where the people have the diſpoſal of their own money, how can we account for this practice, unleſs we ſuppoſe that the leading men receive a great deal more than they give, that they raiſe taxes to pay their own penſions, or they would never conſent unneceſſarily to burthen themſelves and their fellow-ſubjects eſtates? But to proceed: The French entered into a new treaty with the Duke of Lorrain this year, by virtue whereof the duchy of Bar was reſtored to him, for which he did homage to the King. An unlucky accident happened at the ſame time, which might have revived the war between France and Spain, if his Catholick Majeſty had not been very complaiſant. The Swediſh Ambaſſador being about to make his publick entry into London, to congratulate his Britiſh Majeſty on his Reſtoration, both the French and Spaniſh Ambaſſadors ſent their coaches and equipages to aſſiſt at that ceremony; and there happening a conteſt between their ſervants about precedency, ſome of the Spaniards ham-ſtringed the horſes belonging to the French Ambaſſador, and by this ſtratagem enabled their countrymen to move forward, while the French were left behind till they could procure new ſets of horſes. The moſt Chriſtian King no ſooner received advice of this outrage, but he ordered his Ambaſſador at Madrid to demand ſatisfaction: to which his Catholick Majeſty anſwered, that he would give his ſon-in-law the King of France all the ſatisfaction that he could reaſonably deſire; for he was in no condition at this time to renew the war, which muſt have been the conſequence of his non-compliance.

The Queen of France being delivered of a Dauphin on the firſt of November, the King on this occaſion compleated the number of the knights of the Holy Ghoſt, of whom the whole complement was an hundred, though at this time reduced to forty.

1662. Duels ſuppreſſed.

The gentry of France being more addicted to duelling than thoſe of any other nation, the King in a great meaſure aboliſhed this barbarous cuſtom, by the ſevere puniſhments he inflicted on all that were concerned in them, and the ſolemn declaration he made that he would never pardon any perſon convicted of this crime. The puniſhment was no leſs than the forfeiture of life and eſtate in the offender that ſurvived: the perſon killed alſo was hanged up by the heels, and his eſtate confiſcated. This is deſervedly looked upon as one of the moſt commendable acts in the reign of Lewis XIV; but the care he took of the poor about the ſame time, deſerves alſo to be commemorated: the harveſt having failed for two years ſucceſſively, and occaſioned a terrible famine, his Majeſty cauſed quantities of corn to be imported from abroad, and diſtributed gratis to the moſt indigent of his ſubjects.

At Rome the French Ambaſſador met with another inſult this year from Pope's guards, but his Holineſs was obliged to beg pardon for it in the moſt abject manner. Another occurrence happened about the ſame time which made a great noiſe in England, and was variouſly cenſured, namely, the purchaſe of Dunkirk of his Britiſh Majeſty for five hundred thouſand pounds. This was looked upon as extremely detrimental to the trade and navigation of England, and laid to the charge of the Earl of Clarendon, though 'tis certain he had the leaſt hand in it of any perſon concerned in the Britiſh miniſtry.

1663. Academy of inſcriptions.

The following year his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty inſtituted the Academy of Inſcriptions, whoſe buſineſs it is to compoſe inſcriptions and devices, and perpetuate the memory of great events. Accordingly, upon the taking of every town almoſt, and every battle which they were pleaſed to ſtile a victory, we ſee medals coined to ſet the tranſaction in ſuch a light as might contribute moſt to the glory of the Grand Monarch.

1664.

Nothing very material occurred in the year 1664, unleſs the ſending a body of French troops to the aſſiſtance of the Imperial army againſt the Turks, who were thereupon obliged to retire over the Raab.

1665. Trade and navigation encouraged.

The kingdom ſtill remaining in full peace, the celebrated Monſieur **Colbert** put his Majeſty upon encouraging trade and navigation, and accordingly new ports were made, and others improved, ſhipping was every were built, and ſuch manufactures prohibited to be imported as the natives could work themſelves; whereby the King prevented very large ſums going out of the nation, which every year had been ſent to purchaſe them.

A war happening to break out about this time between the Engliſh and the States General, on account of the encroachments the Dutch had made on the Britiſh trade in India, the coaſt of Africa, and elſewhere, the French firſt offered their mediation to compoſe the quarrel, and at length joined the Dutch.

1666.

The following year they diſpoſſeſſed the Engliſh of their part of the iſland of St Chriſtopher's, and finding afterwards they ſhould be obliged to reſtore it, they deſtroyed all the Britiſh plantations and ſettlements there. Arts and ſciences encouraged. In the mean time the French King gave great encouragement to arts and ſciences, and eſtabliſhed another academy called the Academy of Sciences. He alſo enlarged his harbours, augmented his fleet, and made large magazines of naval Stores, cauſing his ſubjects to be inſtructed in navigation and all marine exerciſes, which were very little attended to in France till this reign. He alſo reformed ſeveral abuſes in the courts of juſtice: but he ſoon found other employment, for **Philip** the Fourth, King of Spain, being dead, and his dominions deſcended to an infant, 1667. The French King falls upon the Spaniard. the grand monarch laid hold of this opportunity to fall upon the Spaniſh dominions in the Low-Countries, which were perfectly unprovided of troops to defend them. Towns taken in the Netherlands. In one campaign he made himſelf maſter of Courtray, Dixmude, Furnes, Armentiers, Binch, Aeth, Tournay, Douay, Oudenard, Aloſt, and Liſle. At the ſame time the royal canal was finiſhed, by which the Ocean and Mediterranean ſeas have a communication. 1668. The Prince of Condé the next year took Dole, Beſançon, and all Franche Comte. Theſe rapid conqueſts ſurprized the neighbouring powers, and occaſioned an alliance to be formed againſt France, by England, Sweden, and the States-General; which treaty obtained the name of the Triple Alliance, and had that good effect, Peace of Aix la Chapelle. that France was content to put an end to the war, and relinquiſh Franche Comte, upon condition ſhe might retain the towns ſhe had conquered in Flanders; and a treaty was concluded accordingly at Aix la Chapelle the ſame year.

1669. Paris beautified and enlightned.

The war being at an end, the young monarch proceeded in his regulations at home; and among others, in rendering the ſtreets of Paris more ſecure

cure in the night-time, where robberies and murders were more frequent that in any other city; and this he effected chiefly by enlightening it with glaſs-lanthorns hung in the middle of the ſtreets. He alſo cauſed the town to be beautified with elegant buildings, and the ſtreets well paved. The roads alſo, which before this reign were intolerably infeſted with robbers, he rendered very ſafe, by augmenting the number of officers for the diſcovery and apprehending of felons and highwaymen, and ordering them to be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity.

The Turks made themſelves maſters of the iſland of Candia this year, the loſs whereof is imputed in a great meaſure to the French, who withdrew their forces from thence they had ſent to the aſſiſtance of the Venetians, very abruptly. About the ſame time CASIMIR King of Poland having reſigned his crown, retired to France ſpending the remainder of his life in the abbey of St Germain de Prez.

Lorrain ſiezed 1670.

The French King recalling all his ſubjects, as well officers and ſoldiers as others, out of the dominions of the States-General, it created a ſuſpicion that he intended to fall upon them: but he thought fit firſt to ſecure himſelf on the ſide of Germany, by ſeizing on the Duke of Lorrain's territories again, which he did without the leaſt colour of right. The following year he employed no leſs than thirty thouſand men in fortifying Dunkirk, and made it one of the ſtrongeſt places in Flanders.

1672. The United Provinces invaded.

In the year 1672 the French King entered upon that memorable expedition againſt the United Netherlands by land, while the King of Great Britain armed againſt them by ſea. The Engliſh did not want ſubſtantial reaſons for this rupture; the encroachments of the Dutch on the Britiſh trade were not to be borne, and their libels and libellous pictures and medals on this occaſion were ſtill more provoking. The French were ſufficiently exaſperated againſt this Republick for contriving the Triple League, which had put a ſtop to their conqueſts; and the medal ſtruck thereupon, alluding to JOSHUA's ſtopping the courſe of the ſun, which was the French King's device, gave ſtill more offence. The Grand monarch therefore was determined to chaſtiſe the inſolence of this upſtart Republick, as he called the States-General, who pretended to preſcribe meaſures to crowned heads, and aſſume the umpirage of the affairs of Chriſtendom.

He could not have met with a more favourable conjuncture to invade their territories than the preſent, when Holland was divided into two great factions, the one headed by the Prince of Orange, and the other by DE WITT; the laſt of which had rather have ſeen the French maſters of their comtry, than have been forced to ſubmit to the Orange party: accordingly they oppoſed the raiſing forces, and garriſoning their frontier towns, till the enemy was upon them; and, which was ſtill worſe, ſeveral of their governors and officers held a correſpondence with the French, and ſhewed them the way to penetrate into the heart of their country. But no gentleman is more cenſured on this occaſion than MOMBAS, a French refugee, who had been advanced to a conſiderable poſt in the army of the States, and conſtantly betrayed their councils.

In the beginning of May the French King having aſſembled an army of an hundred and twenty thouſand men, including the Engliſh auxiliaries under the command of the Duke of Monmouth, attacked the territories of the States in three different parts, whilſt the Biſhops of Munſter and Cologne attacked them in a fourth. His Majeſty paſſed the Meuſe at Viſet at the head of forty thouſand men; and coming before Orſoy, took it in three days. The towns of Bunich, Veſel, Rimbergue, Emeric, Doetcum, and Groll, made ſcarce any defence; whereupon the French appeared upon the banks of the Rhine, which it was expected would have put a ſtop to the progreſs of their army: but ſome of the gentlemen of the country, 'tis ſaid, in order to ingratiate themſelves with the French, came to the Prince of Condé's quarters while he lay at Emeric, and offered to ſhew him a paſſage over the Rhine, near Tolhuys, where the troops would be obliged to ſwim their horſes but a little way. And the Prince having ordered the Count DE GUICHE to go with theſe gentleman and ſound the river, the paſſing of it appeared to be very practicable; whereupon he immediately acquainted his Majeſty with the diſcovery, and the army marched with great ſecrecy all night till they came over againſt Tolhuys. In the mean while the Prince of Orange had received advice from ſome boors that they ſaw a party of French examining the depth of the river near Tolhuys, which occaſioned his ſending the treacherous MOMBAS, with a body of horſe to defend the ford if the French ſhould attempt it; but MOMBAS coming to the place, acquainted the deputies of the States in the abſence of Prince of Orange, that there was no likelihood the enemy would attempt to ford the river here, and therefore he thought it more adviſable to throw himſelf into Nimeguen, with great part of the troops which the Prince of Orange had appointed to defend the banks of the river.

The French paſs the Rhine.

The Prince however on his return to the camp commanded WORTZ, a German officer, to march with a body of horſe and foot to Tolhuys; who finding the French to be in earneſt, begun to throw up intrenchments to cover his men, but he had not time to perfect them. The enemy erected a battery of cannon upon the oppoſite bank of the river, and obliged his men to retire into an adjoining wood, from whence they did not ſtir till they ſaw ſome of the French horſe actually paſſed over, and forming themſelves; and then indeed they appeared from among the trees, and drove thoſe few troops that had got over into the river again, after which they only diſcharged their carbines and wheeled off: whereas, ſays my author, had the followed them into the river, and not ſuffered any more of them to reach the ſhore, they had probably fruſtrated the attempt. But the French ſeeing the enemy remove to ſome diſtance, were encouraged to return to the charge, and being continually ſupported by greater numbers, obliged the Dutch to retire to their intrenchments; where, according to the French account, they were ready to have laid down their arms upon an offer of quarter. But the Duke of Longueville, who had been drinking hard at Emeric, advancing up to the trenches, and firing a piſtol, the Hollanders believed they ſhould have no quarter, fired a whole volley, and killed ſeveral perſons of the firſt quality, among whom the Duke of Longueville was one, and the Prince of Condé was wounded. This accident put the French into ſome diſorder; but great part of the army having got over by this time, they ſoon rallied, and diſperſed the Dutch forces, becoming entirely maſters of the Bettaw, or Batavia proper, by this eaſy victory.

The Prince of Condé, and the Duke of Enguien his ſon, with many other perſons of diſtinction, I perceive, paſſed the Rhine in boats, tho' there were ſome other Generals, and particularly the Duke of Longueville, who had been pretty well heated with wine, that attempted to paſs it on horſeback; but the Duke was in great danger of being drowned, if the Prince of Condé had not taken him into his boat. He ſaved his life, however, to very little purpoſe, for he was ſhot, as has been related, a few minutes after, thro' his own folly, in firing upon people who had already ſubmitted. As for the Grand Monarch, who aſſumed all the glory of this action to himſelf, he came over afterwards very prudently in a boat, when the danger was paſt.

Three entire provinces ſubmit to the French.

The conſequence of this victory was very great, for the Prince of Orange immediately quitted the banks of the Yſſel, and left all the towns on that river expoſed to the enemy: Doeſberg, Nimeguen, Swol, Deventer, Grave, Arnheim, Skenk, Crevecœur, and even Utrecht, ſubmitted in a few days, and in leſs than two months the King found himſelf maſter of three entire provinces, viz. Guelderland, Overyſſel, and Utrecht; and the French King actually kept his court in the laſt mentioned city this ſummer. The Germans in the mean time being alarmed at this ſurprizing ſucceſs, entered into a confederacy with the States-General and Spain againſt the French; but the Dutch were ſo hard preſſed notwithſtanding, that they were forced to break down their dams and lay their country under water, that they might be in a condition to wait for the reinforcements which were marching to their aſſiſtance from all parts.

1673.

At length the German forces having joined the Prince of Orange, they laid ſiege to Bon and took it, and thereby in a great meaſure cut off the communication between France and Holland. The Engliſh alſo ſhewing an inclination to make peace with the Dutch at the ſame time, the Grand Monarch thought it convenient to quit all his boaſted conqueſts, except Maeſtricht, and retire into Flanders. As to the reſt of the occurrences that happened during this war till the peace of Nimeguen, where the Engliſh acted the part of mediators, they have already been related in the modern hiſtory of the Netherlands or Germany, and therefore I ſhall not enlarge upon them here; but content my ſelf with giving the ſubſtance of the principal articles of that treaty.

1678. The treaty of Nimeguen.

By the treaty between France and the States-General, concluded the tenth of Auguſt 1678, it was agreed, that each party ſhould retain what they were reſpectively poſſeſſed of, only the French were to reſtore Maeſtricht with it's dependencies to the Dutch; which indeed was all the French retained of their mighty conqueſts. And by a ſeparate article, all the territories belonging to the Prince of Orange in France, Franche Comte, Charleroy, Flanders, &c. were reſtored to him.

By the treaty between France and Spain, dated the 17th of September, 1678, the French agreed to reſtore to the Spaniards, Charleroy, Binch, Aeth, Oudenard, Courtray, the city and duchy of Limburgh, Ghent, the country of Waes, Leuwe, St Giſlian and Puicerda: on the other hand it was agreed, that the French King ſhould retain the county of Burgundy or Franche Comte; the towns of Valenciennes, Bouchain, Condé, Cambray, Aire, St Omers, Ypres, Warwick, Warneton, Poperingen, Bailleul, Caſſel, Bavay, and Maubeuge, all which they had conquered in this war.

By the treaty concluded between the Empire and France on the 3d of February, 1678-9, France renounced all pretenſions to Philipſburg: the French on the contrary were to keep Friburg till an equivalent ſhould be given them.

The Duke of Lorrain was to have his territories reſtored him; only the French were to retain Nancy, and roads through this country; and to give him the city of Toul in lieu of it: and the Princes of Furſtemburg, who had made ſo much diſturbance in Europe, were to have their territories and dignities reſtored them by the Emperor.

1679.

By the treaty between Sweden, an ally of France, and the Elector of Brandenburgh, concluded the 29th of June, 1679, the Elector was to reſtore Stetin, Stralſund, and all he had taken from the Swede in Pomerania.

By the treaty between Sweden and Denmark, concluded the 2d of September, 1679, they were reciprocally to yield up all the towns that had been taken by either party.

The perſecution of the French Proteſtants.

France being now at peace with all the powers of Europe, determined to put in execution the long projected ſcheme of extirpating Calviniſm, and begun with ſuppreſſing the chambers of the edict, as they were called, which were courts conſiſting of an equal number of proteſtant and popiſh judges who were to ſee the edicts put in execution that were made in favour of Proteſtants. Thoſe of Thoulouſe, Bourdeaux, and Grenoble, were ſuppreſſed this year; but I defer a further relation of this matter till I come to the year 1685, when the edict of Nants was reverſed. In the mean time Lewis le Grand found out a way of extending his dominions beyond their real limits as effectually in time of peace as he could have done by the moſt ſucceſsful war. He ſet up courts of enquiry in the frontier towns, and ſuch countries as had been yielded to him; and if he could diſcover that any city or province had formerly depended on the places in poſſeſſion, or were under the juriſdiction of the ſame Sovereign, he claimed them as of right belonging to him; and to theſe encroachments he gave the title of RE-UNIONS. By the ſame rule he might have extended his juriſdiction over moſt of the kingdoms of Europe; for, according to the French account, they were part of their Empire, and formerly diſmembered from it. Had their ſcheme of univerſal monarchy ſucceeded therefore, they would have told us, no doubt, that the reducing the reſt of Europe to the obedience of their monarch would have been but an act of juſtice.

1680. The French ſet up courts of re-union whereby they encroach on the neighbouring Princes.

The firſt that felt the effects of this piece of French uſurpation, were the ten free imperial cities of Alſace: that country had been yielded to the French by the treaty of Munſter, with an expreſs exception of the rights and privileges of theſe cities, which they were to have enjoyed in the ſame manner under the protection of France as they had formerly done under the Emperor: but their privileges were very little regarded. The court erected at Briſac alſo proceeded to reunite what they called the diſmembered lands of Alſatia; many of which lay at a great diſtance from it: while the chamber or new-erected court of Metz pretended to re-unite all the diſmembred fiefs of the three Biſhopricks of Metz, Toul, and Verdun; and an edict was iſſued for the execution of thoſe decrees. Among the reſt the King of Sweden was ſummoned to do homage for the duchy of Deux-Ponts; and becauſe he did not appear, that duchy was given to another. The Rhinegrave, and ſeveral other German Princes upon the frontiers, were obliged to do homage for their territories, on pain of military execution: and finding Spain unprepared to reſiſt him, the Great Lewis demanded even Ghent and Aloſt, as dependencies on ſome of the places that had been yielded to him; which put the neighbouring Princes in the utmoſt conſternation, but none of them knew how to apply a remedy to this general grevance; for the French, as their Attorney-General obſerved, had at this time an hundred thouſand men in arms to back their pretenſions, and had fortified their frontiers ſo well, that they defied the reſent ment of their injured neighbours. The French King had built the fort of Hunninghen, within half a league of Baſil in Switzerland, whereby he in a manner blocked up that Republick; and he obliged the Governor of the Spaniſh Netherlands to yield up the town of Charlemont. He alſo fortified Saar-Lewis, Landau, and Phalſbourg; and having thus ſtrengthened his frontiers, he ravaged the German and Spaniſh territories, and raiſed contributions in them whenever he ſaw fit, on one pretence or other; inſomuch that they had much better have been in a ſtate of actual war, where they might have been at liberty to make repriſals. In the ſame inſolent manner he obliged the Spaniard to relinquiſh his titles of Duke and Earl of Burgundy; and gave orders to his commanders at ſea to force their ſhips to ſtrike their flags to thoſe of France.

The Proteſtants excluded places of profit.

While he thus bullied the Princes of Europe, he proceeded to mortify the poor Proteſtants at home, and among other edicts publiſhed againſt them, he excluded them from holding places of profit; and ordered, that where any perſons had been born Proteſtants and turned Roman Catholicks, if they afterwards returned to the Proteſtant communion again, they ſhould be treated as apoſtates.

1681. Application to naval affairs.

But as nothing took up more of the Monarch's care and time than the eſtabliſhing a royal navy, ſuperior to any of the maritime powers, we ſee him about this time enlarging and fortifying his two principal harbours of Toulon and Breſt, erecting magazines, docks and yards for the building and careening of ſhips, encouraging the mathematicks and all other ſciences that might improve navigation; and 'tis ſaid, that there were enrolled this year no leſs than ſixty thouſand ſeamen to ſerve in the ſhips of war, beſides what were neceſſary for the merchants ſervice. But theſe muſt be many of them land-men, for the trade of France was never conſiderable enough to furniſh the royal navy with ſo large a compliment.

The French make themſelves maſters of Straſburg and Caſal.

The two important towns of Straſburg and Caſal, the one in Alſace and the other in Italy, were this year ſurprized, or rather purchaſed, by the French. The Burgomaſter and many other of the leading men of Straſburg being corrupted with French money, opened their gates to the forces of France, who at a time concerted between them ſurrounded the town: and when the Emperor complained of this as a violation of the peace, he was anſwered, that Straſburg being the metropolis of Alſatia, belonged to France by the treaty of Munſter; and the reaſon he had not made himſelf maſter of it ſooner, was becauſe he had been diverted from it by affairs of greater moment. But being ſenſible that the Imperialiſts would certainly compel him to reſtore it if he did not find them other employment, he treated with Tekeli to promote an inſurrection in Hungary, while he incited the Turks to invade the Empire at the ſame time. He alſo enlarged the fortifications of Straſburg to ſuch a degree, as to make it one of the ſtrongeſt places in Europe.

The French King claims the three cities of the eccleſiaſtical Electors.

He proceeded next to inſult the territories of all the Electors which lay upon the Rhine, and under pretence of dependencies, appropriated to himſelf all ſuch places as he apprehended for his convenience. He even laid claim to the capital cities of the three eccleſiaſtical Electors, alledging that the ſtables of the Elector of Triers were built upon lands which belonged to him; and that the diſtrict of Ham, where the beſt Rheniſh wines grow, were part of his demeſns: and as to Cologne and Mentz, moſt part of the houſes he pretended had been built upon grounds yielded to him by the peace of Munſter, and he would either demoliſh them, or make them acknowledge him for their Sovereign; but the King propoſing to get his ſon the Dauphin choſen King of the Romans, did not think fit to put his threats in execution againſt thoſe Electors. The Prince of Orange was more ſeverely dealt with, for he ſeized that principality and transferred it to the Ducheſs of Nemours.

1682.

The year 1682 was remarkable for the conteſts between the moſt Chriſtian King and the Pope concerning the Regale, which his Majeſty inſiſted ſhould extend to all the churches of France without exception: nor did this divert him from continuing his encroachments on the King of Spain's territories in the Low-Countries; and becauſe that Prince refuſed to ſubmit to all his inſolent demands, he blockaded Luxemburg, till the Imperialiſts marched with a conſiderable army towards his frontiers, and then he thought fit to withdraw his troops. About the ſame time an edict was publiſhed for demoliſhing all the churches of the Proteſtants which had been built ſince the edict of Nants, with ſome other ſevere declarations againſt that people.

1683. The ſiege of Vienna.

The Turks having invaded the frontiers of the Empire on one ſide, the French determined to attack them on the other; but the moſt Chriſtian King receiving advice that the Ottoman army had paſſed by Raab and Comorra, and were about to lay ſiege to Vienna itſelf, he altered his reſolution; for tho' he deſired the Turks might favour his projects by making a diverſion, he was not ſo bad a Chriſtian as to wiſh them maſters of the Empire. Beſides, had he attempted to diſtreſs the houſe of Auſtria at ſo critical a juncture, he muſt have drawn all the powers of Chriſtendom upon him, and his name would have been univerſally deteſted. He inſinuated indeed to the Electors, that the Empire could only be ſaved by his troops, which lay ready upon their frontiers to advance againſt the Turks, if they would elect his ſon the Dauphin King of the Romans; but his credit was ſo bad in Germany, that they choſe to run all hazards rather than admit a French army into their bowels, or a Prince of French extraction to be their ſovereign. He had too lately deſtroyed the liberties of his own people, for foreigners to expect better uſage. The ſiege of Vienna was no ſooner raiſed, but the French marched a great army into the Low-Countries, under pretence of ſeizing Aloſt and ſeveral other places, which they pretended were dependent on them. They raiſed taxes and contributions on the very towns they had plundered, and carried off all the corn and cattle they found in the country to their magazines. They prohibited the manuring the ground, and ſeized all the inſtruments of huſbandry. Nor were theſe outrages confined to

The King endeavours to get the Dauphin choſen King of the Romans.

the diſtrict of Aloſt, and the places they pretended a right to, the duchies of Limburg and Guelders ſuffered no leſs than the former; and according to the Spaniſh Miniſter, who then reſided at the Dyet of Ratiſbon, ſuch great and terrible deſolations had not been ſeen during the late war, as were exerciſed by the French on this occaſion. Nor were they contented with plundering the open towns, but afterwards made themſelves maſters of Courtray and Dixmude, and bombarded the town of Luxemburg.

Nurſeries of officers for the ſea and land ſervice.

About the latter end of this year the French King eſtabliſhed a nurſery of marine officers, as he had done of cadets or younger brothers the preceding year for the land ſervice. Thoſe appointed to ſerve in men of war are denominated the marine guards, and thoſe employed in the gallies the guards of the ſtandard, and are in all about eight hundred, entertained both at ſea and land at the King's charge; and being diſtributed in all the ports of France, are taught navigation, fencing, and all gentleman-like exerciſes.

1684. Genoa bombarded.

As the Republick of Holland had already felt the fury of the moſt Chriſtian King's arms, he now determined to chaſtiſe that of Genoa on much the ſame pretence; namely, that they did not ſhew him that reſpect which a little Republick owed to a mighty monarch, and particularly that they had not renounced the protection of Spain when he required it of them. The French Admiral therefore came before the place about the middle of May, and the Genoeſe refuſing to ſubmit to the exorbitant demands of his maſter, he threw ten thouſand bombs into the town, burnt great part of it, and amongſt the reſt the Doge's palace; after which the wind growing very high, the French fleet were forced to leave the coaſt. However, the Genoeſe fearing another viſit, thought fit the following year to ſubmit to his Majeſty.

Luxemburg taken by the French.

In the Low Countries the French beſieged and took Luxemburg, after which they were contented to make a truce with Spain for twenty years, in order, I preſume, to execute their grand project at home, of extirpating the Proteſtant religion. The ſcheme for effecting this, it ſeems, had been laid by the general aſſembly of the Gallick Church that met in the year 1661, and every year after ſome new encroachments had been made on the liberties and privileges of the Reformed, tho' it was not till this fatal year that they thought fit to repeal the EDICT OF NANTS in expreſs terms.

1685.

The perſecution of the French Proteſtants.

Maſſacres and burnings, which had been practiſed by their anceſtors, as well as the Spaniards, for the extirpating hereſy, had not ſucceeded to their expectation: on the contrary, both in France and the Low-Countries the numbers of the Proteſtants had rather been multiplied than leſſened by the exerciſe of thoſe ſeverities; they thought it adviſable therefore to proceed gradually, and by new edicts from time to time to deprive them of one privilege after another, by which means they hoped to avoid the ſcandal of perſecution. They agreed alſo to begin with the leaſt material articles firſt, and accuſtom them by degrees to the loſs of their liberties, that they might be the leſs ſhocked when they found them totally ſubverted. But one of the firſt and moſt effectual ways they took to ruin this people was the prohibiting their CONVOCATIONS, or national aſſemblies of their clergy, by which they broke their unanimity, and rendered them a defenceleſs body. It has been the policy of all ages to divide a party that is not otherwiſe to be forced; and wherever churches are reſtrained from meeting and debating upon their common intereſts, their ruin is not far off. What muſt a Church then eſtabliſhed by the laws of the land apprehend, when all her enemies, the moſt impious ſectaries, and even thoſe who deny the fundamental articles of the Chriſtian faith, are permitted and encouraged to hold their national aſſemblies, while ſhe alone is tantalized with a mock ſummons from time to time, and never ſuffered to meet or conſult about her intereſts? But to proceed: They agreed not to fall upon all the churches at once, but firſt to demoliſh thoſe which had been erected ſince the edict of Nants; after that to interdict ſome few others, and to ſuffer the preachers to remain in their cures where their churches were deſtroyed, to keep them from clamouring too loud, and alarming the reſt of their brethren: ſhortly after they proceeded to proſecute and baniſh the preachers from their reſpective provinces, and to prohibit the people to meet without their miniſters. Then they procured a ſevere edict againſt thoſe, who having been born Proteſtants, and turned Roman Catholicks, ſhould relapſe; and prohibited prieſts and monks to turn Proteſtants on the higheſt pains. And becauſe intereſt is uſually one of the moſt prevailing arguments towards converſion, they excluded the Reformed from all offices and places of honour or profit, while at the ſame time they offered preferments and penſions to all that would turn Papiſts: this took off moſt of their leading men, and left them only a defenceleſs mob. They afterwards ſuppreſſed all their academies, univerſities, and ſchools, and took the education of their children out of their hands: and in order to ſtarve them if they ſtill remained obſtinate, no man was ſuffered to follow any creditable or beneficial employment if he refuſed to turn Roman Catholick. At the ſame time leſt the kingdom ſhould be depopulated, and their manufactures ruined by their tranſporting themſelves to foreign countries, for they were very numerous, and moſt of them excellent mechanicks, an edict was procured, prohibiting them to leave the Kingdom on pain of being ſent to the gallies, as great numbers of them were for attempting it. And all the while, it ſeems, a great deal of pains was taken to make foreigners believe that the King had no deſign to extirpate the Proteſtant religion, till the year 1685, when it was impoſſible any longer to diſguiſe their intentions.

Steps taken to deſtroy the Hugonots.

Dragooning men into the church begun in France.

They threw off the maſk at this time with a witneſs, for they employed their whole army in forcing the Reformed to turn Roman Catholicks. BOUFFLERS, an officer of a brutiſh ſavage temper, whoſe principal merit was the ready obedience he had always paid to the moſt barbarous orders of the court, was firſt employed in Bearn to begin the converſion. The provinces of Guienne, Saintonge, and Languedoc, were the next that were abandoned to the fury of the Roman clergy and the troops that ſupported them, and not many weeks after the whole kingdom underwent the ſame fate. The Intendant of each province, with the Biſhop, went from town to town and having ſummoned the Proteſtants to attend them, let them know that it was his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty's pleaſure, that the Roman Catholick religion only ſhould be profeſſed in his dominions; he required them therefore to turn Roman Catholicks voluntarily without delay, or they would be compelled to it by force. To which many of the people anſwered, that their bodies and eſtates were in the King's power, he might diſpoſe

of

Variety of tortures to compel the Proteſtants to turn Papiſts.

of them as he pleaſed; but they deſired their conſciences might not be forced, they could not forſake a religion they believed to be true, or words to that effect. Whereupon the ſoldiers were immediately ordered to ſeize on the gates and avenues of the places they had inveſted, to prevent the eſcape of any one, after which they entered the town ſword in hand with the utmoſt fury, as if it had been taken by ſtorm, crying out to ſuch of the Reformed as they met with, Die, or turn Roman Catholicks; and it had been a mercy to ſome of them if they had been diſpatched outright, without undergoing that variety of torments which ſucceeded. The troops being quartered in ſuch Proteſtant houſes as the Biſhop or Prieſt directed, and all the goods ſecured, the firſt days were ſpent in conſuming the proviſions and plundering them of their money, jewels, and plate, after which they ſeized the houſhold goods, and expoſed them to ſale; and if any Roman Catholick out of friendſhip or kindred attempted to conceal any of the effects of the unfortunate wretch, he was ſeverely fined. When this would not prevail on the Proteſtants to change their religion, they were abuſed and tormented a thouſand ways. Men and women were hung upon beams, or on hooks in their chimnies by their hair and feet, and ſmoked with whiſps of wet hay till they were almoſt ſuffocated; and if they promiſed to abjure their religion, and refuſed to ſign the inſtrument of abjuration when they were taken down, they were hung up again. Others were thrown into fires kindled on purpoſe, and after they were deſperately ſcorched, let down by ropes into wells, it being demanded of them all the while if they would change their religion. They tied people to tables, and poured wine down their throats till they ſaid they would turn. They ſtript men and women naked, and in that condition tied them together. Some were ſtuck with pins from head to foot, cut with pen-knives, or taken by the noſe with red-hot tongs, and in that manner led about till they promiſed to go to maſs; and being dragged half-dead to churches, their preſence there was ſometimes taken for an abjuration. But the common torture, and that which ſeems to be purely of French invention, was the keeping people awake for a week together, either by pinching them, daſhing water in their faces, plucking off the hairs of their beards, and drumming in their ears till they had almoſt loſt their ſenſes; and then no wonder if they choſe any religion that was offered them. Thoſe that have been proof againſt every other ſtudied cruelty, have been overcome by this. The torment of being thus kept from ſleep, 'tis ſaid, is inexpreſſible. But it was not only upon thoſe in health that they exerciſed this piece of tyranny, for where people of either ſex lay ill of fevers, or other violent diſeaſes, they would bring ſeven or eight drums to the bed-ſide and drum till they made them diſtracted or renounced their religion. In ſome places they would bind the huſband or the father hand and foot, and raviſh the wife or daughter before their faces; tho' the Hugonots acknowledge that rapes were not allowed of every where. I ſhall mention but two or three ſpecies of torture more which were executed upon the miſerable Proteſtants, and theſe were the tearing off the nails of their fingers and toes; blowing them up with bellows till they were ready to burſt, and burning the ſoles of their feet with red-hot ſhovels. *Tantum religio potuit.* But ſurely no perſuaſion can deſerve the name of religion, which inſpires it's votaries with ſuch barbarous principles. True religion, and eſpecially the Chriſtian, teaches univerſal love and benovelence even towards our greateſt enemies. But to return: If no tortures could induce the miſerable Hugonots to change their religion, they ſhut them up in loathſome dungeons, where they were ſuffered to ſee none but their tormentors. In the mean time their houſes were demoliſhed, their woods and lands waſted, if they had any, and their wives and children confined in monaſteries; and thoſe that endeavoured to eſcape, were ſhot like wild beaſts. Nor was this the caſe only of the meaneſt people, men of quality and eſtates were treated no better. Ladies of diſtinction had their necks and faces gaſhed and ſcarred with knives or ſwords, to render them deformed; neither age, ſex, or beauty could move their inhuman perſecutors to ſpare them. And when ſome of them fled to Paris to avoid theſe outrages, believing that the court could never countenance ſuch barbarities, they were commanded to leave the city within fifteen days, and return to their own houſes, and all people were prohibited to entertain or lodge them. Some who had found means to preſent petitions to the King, were ſent to the Baſtile: and what ſeems extremely hard, notwithſtanding the maſter of the houſe renounced his religion, the ſoldiers were quartered upon him till the whole family complyed. The prieſts who attended the dragoons on theſe occaſions required no more of the convert at firſt than this declaration, viz. I do acknowledge the Catholick, Apoſtolick, and Roman Church, as it was in the time of the Apoſtles; and I renounce and abjure all the errors that have crept into it ſince that time. And as many of them did not ſcruple this, they afterwards made them ſubſcribe another, viz. that of their own motion, without any force, compulſion, or violence, they had embraced the Catholick faith. In which there does not ſeem to be any great harm neither; but if any one profeſſed the Proteſtant religion afterwards, he was ſaid to have relapſed, and was ſeverely puniſhed. Thus far the government proceeded before they formally repealed the edict of Nants.

The ſubſtance of the repeal of the edict of Nants.

This edict of repeal paſſed the ſeals on the 18th of October, 1685, and was ratified by the parliament of Paris on the 22d of the ſame month; after which it was ſent to all the other parliaments of the kingdom to be confirmed. The preamble recites, That HENRY IV granted the edict of Nants in order to ſettle his dominions in peace, and that he might reconcile thoſe to the Roman Church who upon ſlight pretences had ſeparated themſelves from it; but that his expectations were not anſwered. That his ſucceſſor LEWIS XIII, having the ſame zeal for religion, had pacified the troubles of the kingdom by an edict of the ſame kind paſſed at Niſmes, anno 1629; but that the greateſt part of the people having ſince embraced the Catholick faith, the edicts of Nants and Niſmes were now become uſeleſs; and therefore his Majeſty thought fit to ſuppreſs them, as he did likewiſe all other edicts and declarations that had been made in favour of the Hugonots. Then he orders all their churches to be demoliſhed, prohibits all aſſemblies for publick worſhip, or the exerciſe of their religion in private, on pain of corporal puniſhmene and the confiſcation of their eſtates. He orders all their preachers to depart the kingdom within fifteen days from the date of the edict, or to be ſent to the gallies; offering a reward to ſuch of them as would change their religion. He prohibits parents to inſtruct their children in that belief, and requires that all children born after the publication of this edict be baptized by a popiſh prieſt, and brought up in that perſuaſion. He allows thoſe who had departed the kingdom to return home within five months, or their eſtates to be confiſcated: and prohibits all others to remove into any foreign country, or convey their wives or children thither, on pain of being ſent to the gallies. He confirmed all declarations againſt thoſe that had relapſed. And by the laſt clauſe his Majeſty declares, that his ſubjects of the Reformed Religion may, till God enlightens them, remain in his dominions, enjoy their eſtates, and carry on their trades, without being moleſted on account of religion, provided they make no profeſſion thereof.

The church of Charenton, and all the Proteſtant churches in France that were ſtanding, were demoliſhed on the very day this edict was publiſhed. The preachers were allowed fifteen days to depart the kingdom, but were prohibited to take along with them either father, mother, brother, or ſiſter, or children above ſeven years of age. It is obſerved, that all the Proteſtant miniſters had not the courage to go into baniſhment, ſome of them were tempted by the offers of preferment, and renounced their religion, to the great ſcandal of their people. But though the laſt article of the edict was ſo clear and expreſs, that the Reformed expected for the future to be free from perſecution, while they made no open profeſſion of their religion; this it ſeems was but a ſnare, for the government no ſooner obſerved that the Proteſtants, relying on his Majeſty's honour, were returned to their habitations, but they quartered ſoldiers upon them again, and uſed them in the ſame barbarous manner they had done before. Monſieur DU QUESNE, one of their Vice-Admirals, 'tis ſaid, was the only man that was exempted from this perſecution, and that upon account of his ſkill in maritime affairs, which the King at this time was promoting with the utmoſt application.

The propagating the Roman Catholick religion, as they ſtiled it, or the perſecution of the Proteſtants, was continued during the years 1686 and
1686. 1687.
1687; and various edicts were iſſued to prevent their eſcaping out of the kingdom: but ſtill we find ſeveral of the neighbouring countries crouded with them about this time: either they pretended to become converts till they found an opportunity of leaving France, or their Catholick relations and friends were ſo touched with their misfortunes that they favoured their eſcape; or, laſtly, as their eſtates were to be transferred to their Popiſh relations on their leaving France, it is very natural to ſuppoſe they were not backward in aſſiſting them to eſcape to foreign countries. The Proteſtants relate, that about this time LEWIS XIV was ſtruck with a loathſome diſeaſe (a Fiſtula in Ano) which they looked upon as a judgment upon him for his repeated cruelties exerciſed on the innocent Hugonots: certain it is, the King had a ſevere fit of illneſs, and went in a ſolemn proceſſion to the church of Notre Dame in Paris to ſing Te Deum for his deliverance from that or ſome other diſeaſe.

The nunnery of St Cyr erected.

He erected the fine nunnery of St Cyr near Verſailles alſo, endowing it with a revenue of two hundred thouſand livres per annum, for the entertainment of three hundred young ladies who wanted fortunes; where they are inſtructed in every thing that may render them uſeful or agreeable, and at twenty years of age are left at their liberty to ſettle in the world, or take the vow of celibacy, &c. But I ſhould have remembered, that in the year 1686 the Grand Monarch had an opportunity of gratifying his vanity at an audience he gave to the Siameſe Ambaſſadors, when the court appeared in it's utmoſt ſplendor. They were afterwards carried to the frontier towns and ſea-ports, to take a view of the fortifications, and of the prodigious arſenals and magazines of war erected there, to their great aſtoniſhment no doubt; neither their own country, or any of the Aſiatick kingdoms, being able to ſhew any thing comparable to them.

1688. The French King increaſes his forces by ſea and land.

The French King having been for ſome conſiderable time maſter of the purſes and perſons of his ſubjects, had employed all the wealth of France towards rendering himſelf ſuperior both by ſea and land to any of the powers of Europe; and it is very evident he thought himſelf a match for all of them, by the provocations he gave every Prince and State almoſt in his neighbourhood. He ſeems ſollicitous to find occaſions to quarrel with them; and where he wanted a pretence, frequently fell upon them without. And notwithſtanding he might well be deemed a zealous Catholick from the perſecution of his Proteſtant ſubjects, we find him inſulting the Pope himſelf, and threatning a ſchiſm in the Church.

He inſults the Pope.

He called an aſſembly of the Eccleſiaſticks of his kingdom, over whom he had ſuch an abſolute dominion, that they were compelled to determine what they believed moſt acceptable to him. Among other things they declared, that the Pope was not infallible, and could eſtabliſh no article of faith, without the concurrence of a General Council, which was ſuperior to him: that he had no power to intermeddle in the temporal affairs of Princes, nor could abſolve their ſubjects from their oaths of allegiance, &c. The Pope, on the other hand, had refuſed to confirm the Biſhops of the King's nomination, and deprived the French Ambaſſadors, as well as thoſe of other Princes, of the franchiſes of their palaces at Rome; whereupon the parliament of Paris, as they were ordered, admitted an appeal from the Pope to a General Council. Things were brought to this extremity, when the Elector of Cologne happening to die, Prince CLEMENT of Bavaria, who was eſpouſed by the Imperialiſts, and Cardinal FURSTEMBURG, the French King's creature, became candidates for that biſhoprick; and, as the French complain, the Pope cauſed the Prince of Bavaria to be declared elected, though FURSTEMBNRG had a majority of votes in the chapter; at which the Grand Monarch pretended to be ſo exaſperated, that he threatened both his Holineſs and the Emperor to make them ſenſible of his reſentment, which occaſioned their entering into a confederacy againſt him, together with the Spaniards, the Dutch, and moſt of the Princes of the Empire: both Proteſtants and Papiſts thought it high time to put a ſtop to the ambitious deſigns of this haughty overbearing Monarch.

A confederacy formed againſt France.

The terms of this alliance were ſuch a medley of contradictions, in regard to religion at leaſt, as are ſcarce to be parallelled in any treaty that ever was made. Here we find the Proteſtants ſtipulating to defend the rights of the Holy See againſt the encroachments of the French court, and the Pope covenanting to ſee the Proteſtants of France reſtored to the free exerciſe of their religion; nay, all the parties to this alliance agreed never to make peace till theſe things were effected. But ſo unnatural, ſo impoſſible to be fulfilled muſt theſe articles appear to be on the firſt framing them, that it is no wonder no manner of regard was had to them at the end of the war when a peace came to be concluded; they were only calculated to draw in the bigotted deluded mob on both ſides: for when the Prince of Orange and other heads of the confederacy had brought about their particular ends, religion and the people were left to ſhift for themſelves, as uſual. But to proceed:

The French over-run great part of Germany.

The Revolution in England.

The French fleet convoy King JAMES to Ireland.

The French King having upwards of a hundred thouſand men well diſciplined at the beginning of theſe commotions, was in a condition to put his threats in execution before the ſlow Germans or Spaniards could aſſemble their troops to oppoſe him. The Dauphin was ſent with a numerous army into Germany in the latter end of the year 1688, where he ſurprized Philipſburg, Frankendale, Manheim, Heidelburg, Hailbron, and ſeveral other great towns; while another detachment made themſelves maſters of Mentz, Worms, Spires, &c. and took up their winter-quarters in the Palatinate. In the Low-Countries the Marſhal D'HUMIERES took the fortreſs of Huy. Nor were the French obliged only to the uſual dilatorineſs of the Germans for this torrent of ſucceſs, but to the ſituation of affairs in England, whither the Dutch had ſent thirteen or fourteen thouſand of their beſt troops, commanded by the Prince of Orange, to ſupport the malecontents of that kingdom, who brought about that ſurprizing Revolution, of which an account has already been given in the modern hiſtory of the United Provinces. It had been reſolved indeed at the court of France, to ſend twenty or thirty thouſand men to the aſſiſtance of the King of England; but that Prince had been over-ruled by ſome falſe friends in his council to refuſe them; whereupon the French King contented himſelf with threatening the States-General to reſent it if they aſſiſted the Engliſh malecontents againſt their Sovereign, which they did not much regard; they were aſſured of a diſpoſition in the Engliſh fleet and army, as well as people, to revolt to the Prince of Orange, and knew that he would ſoon return to their aſſiſtance ſtrengthened with the forces of Britain; and the moſt the French could have done in his abſence would have been to make themſelves maſters of a town or two. Beſides, the ſeaſon of the year was far advanced, and the bulk of their army in Germany. As for the unfortunate King of England, being deſerted by his people and army, he ſent over the Queen and the Prince of Wales to France, who arrived at St. Germains en Laye the 6th of January, N. S. and his Majeſty followed them the next Day. The King of France, ſay their hiſtorians, received them in a manner worthy of himſelf, namely, with all the kindneſs and generoſity which could be expected from ſo great a Prince, and aſſigned the royal Palace of St Germains for their reſidence. Soon after the convention of Eſtates in England declared the Prince and Princeſs of Orange King and Queen of Great Britain. But the French King did not only give King JAMES an hoſpitable reception, but fitted out a fleet, and ſent him with a reinforcement of French forces to Ireland, the greateſt part of which kingdom ſtill remained faithful to that Prince. CHATEAU-RENAUD, the French Admiral, having ſet King JAMES and the land-forces on ſhore, met with Admiral HERBERT, who commanded the Engliſh fleet, and defeated him (though the Engliſh affirm it was a drawn battle). About the ſame time his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty is charged with entring into an alliance with the pirates of Algiers, by which it was agreed they ſhould cruiſe upon the Engliſh and Dutch merchants, and that he actually introduced theſe Mahometan rovers into the Ocean, and even into the Britiſh channel.

1689.

The French deſtroy the Palatinate.

1690. They beat the confederate fleet.

Battle of the Boyne.

In Ireland King JAMES having received another re-inforcement of French troops, laid ſiege to Londonderry, (being almoſt the only city in the hands of the Prince of Orange's friends) and reduced it to the laſt extremity by famine, many thouſands periſhing for want of food; but Colonel KIRK being ſent to the relief of it from England, found means to throw ſupplies of men and proviſions into the town, and compelled King JAMES to raiſe the ſiege, after which that Prince's intereſt very much declined in Ireland. In the mean time the Imperialiſts recovered Mentz, Keyſerwaert, Rhineberg, and Bon, from the French; and as the Grand Monarch was ſenſible he muſt in time reſtore all he had taken in the Palatinate, he had ravaged that country, deſtroying it with fire and ſword in a terrible manner. He laid in aſhes the cities of Spire, Oppenheim, Worms, and Frankendale, with all the villages and open places between Francfort and Heidelburgh; which ſhews that he now deſpaired of making that fine country his own, or ſucceeding in his project of becoming ſole monarch of this part of the world. At the beginning of the war he had hopes that the crown of Great Britain would have concurred in all his meaſures, at leaſt that he ſhould have been able to have kept up a civil war there, by furniſhing his ally King JAMES with troops from time to time; but England being now in other hands, he was ſenſible he muſt ſooner or later relinquiſh all his acquiſitions on that ſide. The beginning of the war however was no leſs glorious to his arms at ſea than at land, for he gained a victory over the united fleets of England and Holland commanded by the Earl of Torrington off of Beachy-head. The Dutch it ſeems bore the brunt of this engagement almoſt alone, for either the Engliſh Admiral could not or would not ſecond them, for which he was afterwards tried and acquitted; but King WILLIAM did not think fit to employ him afterwards: however, as few of the Engliſh ſhips came to a cloſe engagement with the enemy, their loſs was inconſiderable. The next day (July 1, O. S.) a more memorable battle was fought on the banks of the Boyne in Ireland, which in a manner determined the fate of that kingdom, and ſettled King WILLIAM on the throne. The account the French writers give us of this engagement is, that Marſhal SCHOMBERG, under the Prince of Orange, commanded an army of forty thouſand regular troops, and that King JAMES's army conſiſted only of the militia of the country, except the French auxiliaries, which did not amount to ten thouſand men; that the Iriſh were charged both in front and flank, and their foot broken without any poſſibility of rallying them; that the French ſuſtained the charge bravely for ſome time, but were at length obliged to retire. King JAMES after the battle went to Kinſale, and from thence to Dublin; and finding it impoſſible to bear up againſt ſo great a ſuperiority, thought fit to return to France: whereupon the Duke of Ormond took poſſeſſion of Dublin, and King WILLIAM made his triumphant entry into that city the ſixth inſtant.

Battle of Fleury.

The French had better ſucceſs in the Netherlands, where they gained a compleat victory over the Dutch in the plains of Flerus or Fleury, on the tenth of July, taking all their cannon and ſix thouſand priſoners. But having already given an account of the war between the French and the confederates till the peace of Ryſwick, which was concluded in the year 1697, in the modern hiſtory of the Netherlands, I ſhould be inexcuſable to tire the reader with the repetition of thoſe occurences here.

1697. The peace of Ryſwick.

By the peace between France and Savoy, the French King obliged himſelf to reſtore Pignerol, (after it was demoliſhed) and the reſt of the places taken from his Royal Highneſs during the war, among which the chief were Montmelian, Nice, Villa Franca, and Suza. It was agreed alſo that the Duke of Burgundy, the Dauphin's eldeſt ſon, ſhould marry Madam the Princeſs Royal, the Duke of Savoy's eldeſt daughter. And it was mutually ſtipulated, not to tolerate the Reformed Religion in either of their dominions.

Between France and England it was reciprocally agreed to reſtore all places that had been taken on either ſide: and the French King obliged himſelf not to diſturb King WILLIAM in the poſſeſſion of the crown of England, or aſſiſt his enemies; and to reſtore the principality of Orange, and all he had been deprived of in France.

Between France and the States-General it was agreed alſo to reſtore whatever had been taken on either ſide.

By the treaty between France and Spain, Barcelona, Roſes, and Gironne, and all other places the French had taken in Spain, were reſtored to the Spaniards. And in the Netherlands, the city and duchy of Luxemburg, and county of Chinay, Mons, Courtray, Charleroy, and all other towns his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty had taken during the war, were yielded to Spain.

The Emperor did not ſign the peace till about two months after the reſt of the confederates, viz. on the 30th of October 1697. The treaties of Weſtphalia and Nimeguen were agreed to be the foundation of it; and particularly it was ſtipulated, that reſtitution ſhould be made to the Emperor and Empire of whatever the French had taken during the war, provided that the Catholick religion ſhould remain in the ſtate it then was in the places to be reſtored; only it was thought proper to make an exchange of ſome places: Straſburg and it's dependencies was to be united to the kingdom of France; and Friburg, Fort Kehl, Fort St Peter, the Star Fort, Briſac, and Philipſburg, were yielded to the Emperor. The duchy of Lorrain was to be reſtored to it's natural Prince, except ſome few ſmall places, and the fortifications of Nancy, the capital city, were agreed to be demoliſhed. From whence it evidently appears, that tho' the French had met with ſuch amazing ſucceſs during the courſe of the war, they were in no condition to continue it longer, or they would never have relinquiſhed all their acquiſitions.

1698.

No ſooner was the war ended, but the perſecution of the Hugonots was revived. The Court of France being now no longer apprehenſive of their fomenting inſurrections, ſhewed them no favour, the army was again employed in harraſſing thoſe poor people; and accordingly, 'tis ſaid, the French Proteſtants and new converts are always more deſirous of war than peace. At the ſame time ſeveral RomanCatholick biſhops, prieſts and monks, with their diſciples, having fled from Ireland and taken refuge in France, the archbiſhop of Paris ſent a kind of circular letter, or brief, through his province, whereby he did in a very moving manner, exhort all true Catholicks to contribute to the neceſſities of theſe their afflicted brethren.

Treaty of partition of the Spaniſh monarchy.

The King of Spain being in a very ill ſtate of health, and the French, as well as the houſes of Auſtria and Bavaria, having their reſpective pretenſions to the ſucceſſion of that monarchy in caſe of his Catholick Majeſty's death, it was generally expected that the peace of Europe would be again diſturbed whenever that event ſhould happen. And indeed both the French and Imperaliſts were actually making military preparations, and forming alliances to maintain their reſpective titles to that crown in caſe of a demiſe, being ſatisfied that on which ſide ſoever the right ſhould appear, the longeſt ſword would probably carry it. But as the French were not ſo ſanguine at this time as to hope to obtain the whole, King WILLIAM, 'tis ſaid, propoſed the making a partition of the Spaniſh dominions among the ſeveral competitors, to which had all the parties concerned agreed, there might have been no great hurt in the matter; but the Emperor inſiſted on his claim to the whole, and would conſent to no treaty on this head: whereupon the Kings of England and France, and the State-General, took upon them to divide the dominions of Spain without him; and this was called the firſt Partition-Treaty, by which the Dauphin of France was allotted for his ſhare the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, the iſlands of Sancto Stephano, Porto Hercole, Orbitello, Telamone, Porto Longone, and Piombino, and all the places ſituate on the coaſt of Tuſcany which belonged to Spain; as alſo the towns of Fontarabia and St Sebaſtian, ſo much of the provinces of Guipuſcoa, Navarre, Alava, and Biſcay, as are on this ſide the mountains; but the reſt of Guipuſcoa, &c. beyond the Pyrenean mountains, was to remain to Spain. To the Archduke CHARLES, the Emperor's ſecond ſon, in lieu of all pretenſions of the houſe of Auſtria, was aſſigned the duchy of Milan: and to the electoral Prince of Bavaria, all the reſt of the Spaniſh monarchy and it's dependencies, as well in Europe as in Africa and both the Indies. And in caſe of the King of Spain's death without iſſue, if any of the parties ſhould refuſe to accept the ſhare allotted him, ſuch ſhare was to remain ſequeſtered in the hands of the reſpective Governors till the controverſy ſhould be decided.

The Court of Spain being acquainted with the particulars of this treaty, were not a little alarmed at it; and in order to prevent the diſmembring of that monarchy, the King by the advice of his Council made a will, whereby he gave the kingdom of Spain, with all the territories belonging to it, to the electoral Prince of Bavaria. But this Prince dying ſoon after, the parties to the firſt treaty of partition drew up and concluded a ſecond, which the Spaniards were no leſs offended at than the former.

1699.

The ſecond Partition-Treaty.

By this treaty the ſame ſhare was allotted to the Dauphin as before, with an addition of Final and Lorrain, the duchy of Milan being given to the Duke of Lorrain in lieu of his own country: the kingdom of Spain, with all the remainder of it's dominions within Europe and without, were allotted to the Archduke CHARLES, the Emperor's ſecond ſon. This treaty was ſigned at London by the Plenipotentiaries of France, Britain, and the States-General, on the 3d of March 1700, N. S. or the 19th of February 1699, O. S. Before I proceed to give an account of the ſucceſs of it, it may be proper to mention ſome occurrences that happened in France while theſe treaties were upon the anvil.

The French King employs his forces in mock ſieges and battles.

The court of France, as has been intimated already, kept up their forces after the war was ended, that they might be in a condition to give law to the reſt of Europe in caſe of the King of Spain's death: they diſcharged indeed ſome of the common ſoldiers in every regiment that were leaſt fit for ſervice, but retaining all the officers, their places might eaſily be ſupplied on any emergency: and as the French King had now no preſent employment for this vaſt body of veteran troops, whom a long ſeries of war had rendered the moſt expert at their arms, and all millitary accompliſhments, that had ever appeared upon the face of the earth, for the inſtruction as well as diverſion of his three grand-ſons, the Dukes of Burgundy, Anjou, and Berry, he ordered an incampment of fifty thouſand horſe and foot, with a train of artillery, near Compeigne in Picardy, where were repreſented all ſuch actions and motions as uſually happen between two armies during the moſt active campaigns, as ſieges, battles, marches, foragings, &c. the charges of which, 'tis ſaid, did not amount to leſs than ſixteen millions of livres, or ſixteen hundred thouſand pound ſterling. The expences in the camp were beyond all bounds, every great officer kept a publick table; and as to Marſhal BOUFFLERS, his expences are hardly to be computed. He cauſed ſeveral large apartments to be built, and hung with flame-coloured damaſk laced with gold orriſs, pier-glaſſes, marble-tables, cabinets, and China ware, &c. which he brought from his palaces in Paris; but his tapeſtry, his beds, chairs, and plate were all new, and made on purpoſe for the camp. He had four ſpacious kitchens, in which were two and forty cooks employed in preparing the moſt elegant entertainments. Expreſſes arrived continually with ortelans, red partridge, pheaſants, capons of Bruges, and in general the moſt exquiſite rarities from every country. Fiſh was brought in on fiſh-days from Dieppe, Calais, and Dunkirk, and horſes laid to bring ſturgeon and ſalmon from Ghent and Bruſſels, and others to fetch fruit and ſallads from the neghbourhood of Paris; beſides a vaſt profuſion of Champagne, Burgundy, Reniſh, Moſeller, and all foreign wines. When the camp broke up, the army marched towards the Netherlands, which gave very uneaſy apprehenſions to the Engliſh and Dutch.

Still the perſecution of the Hugonots continued; and thoſe who had fled into the territories of the Duke of Savoy, by the influence of the Court of France were driven from thence into Switzerland; which country being over-burthened with them, the Elector of Brandenburg invited them to ſettle in his country, and granted them many conſiderable privileges, whereby he eſtabliſhed ſeveral beneficial manufactures, which till then were unknown in that country. In the mean time the Grand Monarch publiſhed ſeveral edicts for the encouragement of trade in his dominions, and preventing idleneſs and luxury: but he had done infinitely more miſchief to the trade and manufactures of France, by driving ſuch multitudes of artificers into other countries, who ſet up their ſeveral profeſſions there, than ever he could hope to repair by the wiſeſt regulations. His eſtabliſhing a ſelect Council to enquire into the grievances of merchants and tradeſmen, was certainly a very prudent inſtitution: but much the greateſt grievance, the putting ſuch hardſhips on the induſtrious peaſants and mechanicks on account of religion, was left without a remedy; which naturally produced the calamities they lie under at this day, when great part of their lands are actually uncultivated, and many of the towns that were famous for trade and manufactures have ſcarce any left,

1700.

The French ſeize the Spaniſh dominions on the King of Spain's death.

To return to the buſineſs of the Spaniſh ſucceſſion: Notwithſtanding the French King had agreed with his Britiſh Majeſty and the States-General to accept a part of the Spaniſh dominions on the death of that Prince, yet obſerving how much his Catholick Majeſty and the whole Spaniſh nation were averſe to the diſmembring of their monarchy, he found means to influence their councils ſo far as to get a Will made, whereby the Duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the Dauphin, was appointed heir of the whole Spaniſh monarchy. Soon after which (viz. on the firſt of November 1700, O. S.) his Catholick Majeſty died; of which the court of France no ſooner received advice, but orders were ſent to their troops, to advance towards the frontiers of the Spaniſh territories to eſtabliſh the Duke of Anjou on that throne. The States-General hereupon repreſented their ſurprize to the French Ambaſſador at the Hague, that his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty ſhould reject the treaty of partition he had made with them and King WILLIAM, and accept the will in favour of his grandſon. To which the Ambaſſador anſwered, that the principal deſign of that treaty being to prevent the union of the kingdoms of France and Spain under one Sovereign, this was as effectually provided for by the will, the heirs of the Duke of Anjou being rendered incapable of enjoying the crown of Spain if they ſucceeded to that of France. But how little ſatisfied ſoever the Dutch might be with this anſwer, they thought fit to diſſemble their intentions when they found the Duke of Bavaria, Governor of the Spaniſh Netherlands, had put them into the poſſeſſion of his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty's forces, by which means they were abſolutely deprived of their barrier, and lay open to the inſults of the French. The States-General therefore, as well as King WILLIAM, acted that mean part of acknowledging the Duke of Anjou, and congratulating him on his acceſſion to the crown of Spain, at the ſame time they were forming an alliance againſt him. It is ſaid indeed they were under a neceſſity of doing it, but all this neceſſity was no more than the hazarding the loſs of a town or two upon their frontiers before their Confederates could have joined: we ſaw the Imperaliſts alone ſoon found the French ſufficient employment in Italy, and the Engliſh immediately agreed to ſend over troops to their aſſiſtance; ſo that they were far from being in that deſperate condition they were, when the French invaded them in the year 1672. But the ſeveral tranſactions and occurrences during this ſecond war between France and the Confederates being contained in the modern hiſtory of Germany or the Netherlands, I ſhall paſs over them here, and only take notice of ſome particulars which were omitted or but ſlightly mentioned in thoſe relations.

1701.

1708.

The diſtreſs the Grand Monarch and his grandſon of Spain were reduced to by the Allies in this war, and particularly in the year 1708, cannot appear more evidently to future ages than from ſome paſſages we find in a prayer contained in the Mercure Galant, printed at Paris in January 1708-9.

GREAT GOD, (ſays that writer) who makeſt thoſe men triumph who profeſs a religion contrary to thy holy commandments; DIVINE

BEING, who permitteſt the authors of an unjuſt war to dethrone a monarch (the King of Spain) whom their Ambaſſadors had acknowledged; well may man ſay that thy decrees are impenetrable. Let not thoſe who now (unhappily for themſelves) triumph, boaſt of their victories, which Heaven permits only to enhance the glory of a Prince who had never any other deſigns than what are agreeable to juſtice, and for the good of the true religion, and to ſhew that he is yet greater in adverſity than in the midſt of the moſt flattering proſperity. We may ſay, that his enemies who think to cruſh him, only make his virtues ſhine the brighter, which would not have appeared with that luſtre if he had always trumphed. The world may be convinced he is one of thine elect, ſeeing thy divine Majeſty has touched him with the finger with which thou toucheſt only thoſe who are to ſerve for examples in this world to all mankind, and hereafter to bear a palm in heaven.

But, O our God, if we may be permitted to offer a prayer in behalf of the people of Europe, beſtow thy bleſſing on thoſe unfortunate conquerors, and by making them ceaſe to triumph, open their eyes, that they may know themſelves, and one day merit admiſſion into thy celeſtial kingdom. With juſtice has the Monarch who now governs France, acquired the name of Great; let him triumph once more, O God, and continue thou to make uſe of a Sovereign who places all his felicity in thee, and looks upon the good or bad that befals him as favours from thy divine Majeſty, and who not having been lifted up with pride in the time of his greateſt triumphs, has never been caſt down by diſgraces, &c.

1709. The various calamities France ſuffered at this time were ſufficient to break the ſpirit of the proudeſt monarch upon earth. Money was become exceeding ſcarce, and their mint-bills and farmers notes, which were deſigned to ſupply the place of money, had loſt their credit. Their bankers broke by whole ſhoals; and the merchants of Lyons, where trade uſed to flouriſh moſt, were not able to pay the bills of exchange drawn upon them. The people at the ſame time were reduced to a ſtarving condition, by the unſeaſonable weather and loſs of the laſt harveſt, which occaſioned tumults in all parts of the kingdom, while the bad food produced contagious diſtempers that carried off many of them. Add to this, all Europe almoſt in a confederacy againſt them, and ready to penetrate into the heart of their country: and it is ſcarce poſſible to form a ſcene of more conſummate miſery. This obliged the French King to think of peace in earneſt; whereupon he ſent his Plenipotentiaries to Holland; but the allies refuſed to treat till his miniſters had conſented to certain mortifying preliminaries, which were ſigned at the Hague on the 28th of May 1709; the principal whereof were,

Preliminary articles for a peace.

Art. III. Whereby the French King acknowledges King CHARLES III to be King of Spain, the Indies, Naples, Sicily, and all the dominions comprehended under the title of the Monarchy of Spain, in what part of the world ſoever; reſerving only thoſe parts granted to the King of Portugal and the Duke of Savoy by the high allies, and the barrier which King CHARLES III is to give to the States-General, and the upper quarter of Guelderland.

Art. IV. recites, That whereas it had been reciprocally agreed, that the treaty of Peace ſhould be brought to a concluſion within two months, to commence from the firſt of June, during which time the French King ſhould cauſe the kingdom of Sicily to be delivered to King CHARLES III, and the Duke of Anjou, with his wife, children, and effects, and all perſons willing to follow him, ſhould within the ſaid two months retire out of the Spaniſh dominions; it is hereby ſtipulated, that if the Duke of Anjou ſhould not conſent to this convention before the expiration of the ſaid term, the French King, as well as the confederates, ſhould take meaſures in concert to ſecure the full execution of this article.

Art. V. And to forward the ſaid agreement, the French King ſhould, within the ſaid term of two months, withdraw all his troops and officers from Spain, Sicily, and the reſt of the Spaniſh territories in Europe and thoſe in the Indies, as ſoon as he could, and ſhould not directly or indirectly aſſiſt the Duke of Anjou with forces, money, &c.

Art. VI. The French King agrees to yield up Straſburgh and Fort Kehl to the Emperor.

Art. IX. He agrees to reſtore Briſac to the Emperor.

Art. X. Landau is hereby yielded to the Emperor, and the reſt of the imperial cities in Alſace were to enjoy their privileges.

Art. XI. The French King conſents to demoliſh Huninghen, New Briſac and Fort Lewis, with all the other fortreſſes he poſſeſſes on the Rhine from Baſil to Philipſburgh.

Art. XIV, XV. The French King promiſes to acknowledge Queen ANNE, and the Proteſtant Succeſſion.

Art. XVI. Obliges the French King to reſtore whatever he has taken from Britain.

Art. XVII. Obliges him to demoliſh the town and harbour of Dunkirk.

Art. XXII. By this article the French King yields to the States-General Furnes, Menin, Ypres, Caſſel, Liſle, Condé, and Maubeuge, for their barrier.

Art. XXIII. By this he agrees to deliver up all the other places he had poſſeſſed himſelf of in the Spaniſh Netherlands.

Art. XXVII, and XXVIII. The Duke of Savoy to be reinſtated in the poſſeſſion of Savoy, Nice, and all his territories; and to enjoy Exilles, Feneſtrelles, Chamont, and the valley of Pragelas, with whatever lies on this ſide Mount Genevre, and the other mountains.

Art. XXXV. By this the French King obliges himſelf to evacuate Namure, Mons, and Charleroy, before the 15th of June; Luxemburg, Condé, Tournay, and Maubeuge, fifteen days after; Nieuport, Furnes, Fort Knocque, and Ypres, before the 15th of July; and before the expiration of two months to demoliſh the harbour of Dunkirk.

Art. XXXIX. Theſe preliminary articles to be ratifyed by the French King, the Queen of England, and the States-General, before the 15th of June next, when a congreſs was to be begun at the Hague.

The French King refuſes to ratify the preliminaries.

Notwithſtanding theſe articles had been ſigned by the reſpective Plenipotentiaries, ROUILLE, the French miniſter at the Hague, acquainted the miniſters of the allies a few days after, that the moſt Chriſtian King his maſter could not ratify ſeveral of them, particulaely the tenth, the eleventh, and the twenty-eighth. But the Preſident ROUILLE being preſſed to declare if he had ſtill any ſecret orders from his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty tending to peace, he ſaid, if the allies would content themſelves with the fifth article of the preliminaries with relation to Spain, namely, with a promiſe to re-call his troops from Spain, and give no manner of aſſiſtance to his grandſon, without the others relating to the delivering up the Spaniſh Monarchy, he thought his Majeſty would not inſiſt on his other exceptions. But the allies not thinking fit to depart from any one of the articles which had been agreed on for the evacuation of Spain, Monſieur Rouille returned to Paris, and the war was renewed with as much fury as ever.

The following winter the French King offered to conſent to all the preliminary articles, and to deliver up four ſtrong towns to the allies, as a pledge for the obſervation of them, provided he might not be compelled to aſſiſt with his forces in dethroning his grandſon. But this offer alſo was rejected by the allies.

On the 15th of February 1709-10, the Ducheſs of Burgundy was delivered of a ſon, to whom the Grand Monarch immediately gave the title of Duke of Anjou, being the ſame Prince that now fills the throne of France, Lewis XV.

1710. The French King obtained leave of the allies, with much difficulty, to ſend his Plenipotentiaries to Gertruydenburg in Holland again in the beginning of the year 1710: and here they were permitted to treat only with the Dutch miniſters; the Engliſh and the reſt of the allies were ſo good as to entruſt their reſpective intereſts to their management, who reported, that the French King deſired only Sicily and Sardinia for his grandſon, and that then he would deliver up the reſt of the Spaniſh monarchy to King Charles III. But this propoſal alſo was rejected,and the miniſters of France returned to Paris again without effecting any thing: and to add to the misfortunes of the Grand Monarch, his ſon Lewis, the Dauphin, died of the ſmall-pox on the 14th of April 1711, in the fiftieth year of his age; leaving iſſue by Maria Anna of Bavaria, Lewis Duke of Burgundy, Philip King of Spain, and Gaston Duke of Berry.

1711.

The French King makes propoſals of peace to her Britiſh Majeſty.

The French King not ſucceeding in any propoſals of peace he had made in Holland, ſent Monſieur Mesnager into England the latter end of year 1711, to treat with her Britannick Majeſty's miniſters, who obſerving that neither the Germans or Dutch furniſhed their quota of troops or money towards the war, notwithſtanding they were chiefly gainers by it, and that the Britiſh nation only exhauſted herſelf and ruined her trade by the continuance of it, ſhewed themſelves inclined to treat with the French on their offering to ſign reaſonable preliminaries: which raiſed a mighty clamour among the reſt of the Confederates; tho' at the bottom there was no more in it than that they were very angry with the Queen of Great Britain that ſhe would no longer conſent to impoveriſh her people by conquering kingdoms for her neighbours who refuſed to contribute themſelves towards the charges of the war. But to proceed: On the ninth of October her Britiſh Majeſty communicated the terms of peace offered by France to the reſt of the allies; and the next month acquainted their miniſters at London that ſhe had pitched upon Utrecht for the place of congreſs, and that the conferences would begin there on the firſt of January O. S. ſhe alſo wrote to the ſeveral Princes in alliance with her, to invite them to ſend their miniſters to the congreſs.

The firſt conferences for treating of a general peace were held at Utrecht on the 18th of January O. S. and on the laſt of that month the French Plenipotentiaries delivered in their propoſals in writing. In the mean time the Duke of Marlborough being laid aſide, the Duke of Ormond was conſtituted General of the Britiſh forces: and notwithſtanding the conferences at Utrecht, both the French and the Confederates took the field the next campaign. But I ſhould have remembered, that the Ducheſs of Burgundy, or rather, the Dauphineſs Mary Adelaide of Savoy, died on the 12th of February, N. S. 1711-12, of the meaſles; and the Dauphin, who was then ill of the ſame diſtemper, died on the 18th of the ſame month, in the thirteenth year of his age: which the French King, in his letter to the Cardinal de Noailles, requiring him to pray for the repoſe of their ſouls, laments as a very heavy affliction. The Dauphin left two ſons behind him, of which the eldeſt, the Duke of Britany, ſoon followed him to the grave, being five years of age; whereupon his brother, Lewis Duke of Anjou, his preſent Majeſty, ſucceeded to the title of Dauphin.

1712.

His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty having offered ſuch terms to the Queen of Great Britain and her allies as ſhe looked upon to be ſatisfactory, the Duke of Ormond, by her direction, declared to Prince Eugene, and the reſt of the confederate Generals, that he had orders not to act offenſively againſt the French, and propoſed a ceſſation of arms; but they could not be induced to conſent to it. However, in hopes they would at length come into her plan of peace, the Queen afterwards ſent orders to the Duke of Ormond to concur with the confederate Generals in the ſiege of Queſnoy. But this not giving ſatisfaction to the allies, the Duke acquainted their Generals that he had poſitive orders to agree to a ceſſation of arms with the French, declaring he ſhould march off with the Britiſh troops, and the foreigners in the Queen's pay, within three or four days. But the foreign troops, it ſeems, refuſed to obey his orders, and remained in Prince Eugene's camp, after the Duke of Ormond was ſeparated from it, which happened on the ſeventh of July, when the Duke proclaimed a ſuſpenſion of arms with France for two months, as Marſhal Villars did in his camp at the ſame time with England. The allies notwithſtanding proceeded to inveſt Landrecy, which they were ſoon after obliged to raiſe, their army meeting with a terrible defeat at Denain: of which, and other unfortunate ſteps that were taken by them this campaign, having already given an account in the modern hiſtory of Germany, I forbear to repeat them here. In the mean time the town, citadel, and forts of Dunkirk were put into the hands of the Engliſh troops, in purſuance of his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty's agreement with the Queen of England: and the Duke of Ormond having paſſed the Scheld, quartered his army in Ghent and Bruges.

The French King propoſes to plant Florida or Louiſiana.

But neither the wars of Europe, nor the negotiations that were now carrying on at Utrecht, could divert the Grand Monarch from conſidering the advantages that might accrue to his kingdom by enlarging the French plantations in America, and encouraging his ſubjects to trade thither. And therefore on the 14th of September 1712 he granted his letters patents to the Sieur Anthony Crozat, Secretary of his finances; in the preamble whereof he recites, that having given a commiſſion to the Sieur de la Salle in the year 1683, to undertake a diſcovery of that country in north America, ſituated between New France (or Canada) and New Mexico; and the Sieur DE LA SALLE having met with ſuch ſucceſs as to confirm him in the belief that a communication might be ſettled from New France (Canada) to the Gulph of Mexico, by means of large rivers (the principal whereof is the river of Miſſiſſippi, which falls into the Gulph of Mexico); he gave orders after the peace of Ryſwick, anno 1697, for eſtabliſhing a colony and maintaining a garriſon there, which had kept the poſſeſſion he had taken in the year 1683, of the country ſituated between Carolina on the eaſt, and Old and New Mexico on the weſt, to which he had given the name of Louiſiana (formerly Florida, and which in reality belongs either to the Spaniards or the Engliſh): That new wars having broken out in Europe, there was no poſſibility of reaping the advantages that might be expected from this new colony till now. They had hitherto been under a neceſſity of fetching from foreigners the greateſt part of the merchandizes and commodities that might be brought from thence, and for which they need only carry thither the product and manufactures of France. For which, and many other important conſiderations, he grants to the Sieur CROZAT for fifteen years, the ſole privilege of trading to and from the ſaid country of Louiſiana, &c.

From whence my author very juſtly obſerves, that this project of the French King's, if not oppoſed in time, will probably in the end prove very advantageous to them, and fatal to their neighbours the Spaniards and Engliſh. If the diſcovery of a country already peopled can give the diſcoverer any right to it, no doubt the Spaniards are the proprietors of Florida or Louiſiana, for they actually diſcovered all the coaſt from Vera Cruz to the cape of Florida, where they have two fortreſſes at this time, viz. thoſe of St Mattheo and St Auguſtino; but as Spain had at this time almoſt an entire dependance on the Grand Monarch, it is no wonder that ſhe connived at all his encroachments. I can never be of an opinion indeed, that the bare diſcovery of a large continent, or even the erecting forts and ſettlements on ſome part of it, can give the diſcoverer a title to more of it than he can poſſibly uſe or manure. No, admitting it to be unpeopled before, the colonies of every nation that ſhall arrive there, provided the country be large enough for them all, have a right to ſo much as they can reſpectively occupy, and no more. It is not for a great Prince to take a pair of compaſſes in his hand and deſcribe a ſpace of four or five thouſand miles in circumference, (as Florida or Louiſiana actually is) and give it his own name, that will in reality give him a title to the country; eſpecially when others have had ſettlements on the confines of it long before him, as is the caſe of the Engliſh, who poſſeſs all the eaſtern coaſts of America contiguous to Florida and Canada, for fifteen hundred miles, and who muſt, if France maintains her title to what ſhe calls Louiſiana, be debarred from extending her plantations on the continent to the weſtward, and conſequently be pent up within very narrow bounds. Nor is this the worſt of it, for if the French remain poſſeſſed of theſe countries, they will import the very ſame merchandize to Europe the Engliſh do, and conſequently diminiſh our plantation-trade. Nay, as they lie all along on the back of our ſettlements, the French may at one time or other increaſe their regular forces on that ſide to twenty or thirty thouſand men, and then they will find it no great difficulty to expel us from the beſt of our ſettlements, and make themſelves entire maſters of the ſea-coaſts and the plantation-trade; which is ſuch a conſideration, as one would think ſhould alarm even a Britiſh miniſtry. I do not here deſcend to examine what right the Spaniards, French, or Engliſh, could have to a country that was actually peopled before they diſcovered it; but as to ſo much as any of theſe nations have obtained by treaty with the natives, in conſideration of the improvements they have made, as is actually the caſe of the Engliſh in ſome places, for ſo much at leaſt they have a certain and undoubted right; but I queſtion whether the Spaniards or French can ſhew any ſuch right to any part of America. And I can't but think my friend MOLL, and the reſt of our Engliſh geographers, infinitely in the wrong to follow the French charts in changing the names of the countries and rivers in America, and particularly the countries of Canada and Florida for thoſe of New France and Louiſiana, and the names of the rivers Miſſoury and Miſſiſſippi for thoſe of St Philip and St Lewis. But to return to Europe again.

The Conſtitution Unigenitus.

Nothing has made more noiſe in France, or given more diſturbance to the Gallic church, than a decree of the Pope's this year, generally called the Conſtitution Unigenitus, from the words with which that bull begins, viz. *Unigenitus Dei Filius.* It was made againſt a book of Father QUESNEL's, entitled, 'The New Teſtament in French, with 'moral reflections on each verſe: or, an abridgment of the morals of the goſpel, acts of the 'Apoſtles, canonical epiſtles and revelation; or, 'chriſtian thoughts on the text of the ſacred books.' Printed at Paris 1693, and 1694. Out of this book were extracted an hundred and one paſſages or propoſitions, as the ſubject of the Pope's cenſure; of which I ſhall mention ſome of the chief, from whence the reader will be able to paſs ſome judgment on the Papal decree.

Propoſitions condemned by it.

2. The grace of Jeſus Chriſt, a principle efficacious for all manner of good, is neceſſary to all good works; without it nothing is done, or can be done.

3. 'Tis in vain, O Lord, that you command, unleſs you give what you command.

10. Grace is nothing elſe but the will of Almighty God, governing and doing whatever he willeth or ordaineth.

29. No grace is given out of the Church.

34. The grace of ADAM produceth only human merit.

59. The prayer of the wicked is a new ſin, and that which God grants them a new judgment.

73. What is the Church but the aſſembly of the children of God, living in it's boſom, adopted in Chriſt, ſubſiſting in his perſon, redeemed by his blood, living by his ſpirit, acting by his grace, and expecting the glory of the life to come.

76. Nothing is more extenſive than the Church; becauſe it conſiſts of all the elect and righteous of all ages.

80. The reading of the holy ſcriptures is for all men.

86. To forbid ignorant people the comfort of joining their voice to that of all the Church, is a cuſtom oppoſite to the antient practice of the Apoſtles, and even to the intention of God.

92. To ſuffer excommunication, and an unjuſt anathema, rather than betray the truth, is to

imitate St Paul; far from oppoſing authority in the leaſt, or breaking the unity.

97. It happens too often, that thoſe members which are moſt holy, and moſt ſtrictly united to the church, are regarded as unworthy of being in the church, or as if they were excluded. But the righteous live by faith, and not by virtue of the opinion of men.

101. There is nothing more oppoſite to the ſpirit of God, and the doctrine of Jesus Christ, than to render oaths common in the church, becauſe 'tis to multiply the opportunities of perjury, and lay ſnares for the weak and ignorant, and occaſions that the name and truth of God ſerve ſometimes for the promoting impious deſigns.

It is time now to reſume the account of the negotiations of peace at Utrecht, where we find that the ill ſucceſs the allies met with after their ſeparation from the Engliſh, induced moſt of them to come into the plan of peace the Queen of Great Britain had propoſed to them; and the Emperor and Empire, who ſtood out ſome time longer, made worſe terms at laſt than the Queen had obtained for them.

Treaty of peace concluded at Utrecht.

On the thirty-firſt of March, O. S. or the eleventh of April, N. S. the reſpective treaties of peace were ſigned at Utrecht, between the Plenipotentiaries of France on the one part, and the Plenipotentiaries of Britain, Pruſſia, Portugal, the States-General, and Savoy, on the other; Count Zinzendorf, the Imperial Miniſter, at the ſame time proteſting againſt it as injurious to his maſter, for the ſeveral reaſons already mentioned in the modern hiſtory of Germany.

By the treaty between France and Great Britain, the French King acknowledges her Britiſh Majeſty's title, and that of the houſe of Hanover in default of iſſue of her Majeſty, and promiſes to diſmiſs the Pretender out of the kingdom of France, never to return thither again; and that he will never oppoſe the Proteſtant Succeſſion. The French King alſo agrees, that the crowns of France and Spain ſhall never be inherited by the ſame perſon, and that reciprocal renunciations ſhall be made by the Princes intereſted accordingly.

He agrees alſo not to trade to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies in any other manner than the reſt of the nations of Europe do.

The moſt Chriſtian King alſo engages, that all the fortifications of the city of Dunkirk ſhould be razed, the harbour filled up, and the ſluices and moles deſtroyed at his own expence, within five months after the concluſion of the peace, and never be repaired again.

He alſo obliges himſelf to reſtore to Britain the bay and ſtreights of Hudſon, with all the lands, ſea-coaſts, rivers, and places ſituate in the ſaid bay and ſtreights, which were then poſſeſſed by France. And it was naturally agreed between Britain and France, to ſend commiſſaries to ſettle the limits between Hudſon's Bay and the places belonging to the French, which limits ſhould not be paſſed either by the French or Engliſh by ſea or land; and the ſame commiſſaries were to be impowered to ſettle the boundaries between the other Britiſh and French colonies.

The moſt Chriſtian King obliges himſelf alſo to deliver to the Queen of Great Britain ſolemn and authentick letters and inſtruments on the day of the ratification of this treaty, by virtue whereof the iſland of St Chriſtopher ſhould be poſſeſſed only by the ſubjects of Britain; and all Nova Scotia, or Acadia, with it's antient boundaries, the city of Port Royal, now Annapolis Royal, with their dependencies, ſhould be yielded and made over to the Britiſh crown, in ſuch manner that the ſubjects of France ſhould hereafter be excluded from all kind of fiſhing in the ſaid ſeas, bays, and other places on the coaſts of Nova Scotia, or within thirty leagues to the eaſtward thereof, beginning from the iſland called Sable, and ſtretching thence towards the ſouth-weſt.

And it was agreed, that the iſland of Newfoundland, with the adjacent iſlands, ſhould from that time belong wholly to Great Britain; and the fortreſs of Placentia, and all other places there in the poſſeſſion of the French, be yielded up to her Britiſh Majeſty: nor ſhould it be lawful for the ſubjects of France to erect any fortifications or buildings thereon, unleſs ſtages made of boards, and huts neceſſary for drying fiſh, or to reſort to the ſaid iſland but in the fiſhing ſeaſon. The French however ſhould be permitted to take fiſh, and dry them on the land, on that part of the ſaid iſland only which ſtretches from Cape Bonaviſta to the north point of it, and from thence running down the weſtern ſide of the iſland as far as Point Riche. But the iſland of Cape Breton, as all others in the mouth of the river of St Lawrence, and in the gulph of that name, ſhould belong to the French King, who might fortify any places there.

That the ſubjects of France inhabiting Canada or other parts, ſhould not moleſt the five nations or cantons of Indians ſubject to Britain, or any other of the natives of America in friendſhip with them; nor ſhould the ſubjects of Britain moleſt thoſe that were friends of France: and on both ſides they ſhould enjoy full liberty of going and coming on account of trade, without moleſtation from either party. But it was to be ſettled by commiſſaries, who ſhould be accounted ſubjects and friends of Britain or France.

His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty alſo agreed, that a juſt and reaſonable ſatisfaction ſhould be given to all the allies of Britain, in ſuch matters as they have a right to demand of France.

And in conſideration of the friendſhip of the Queen of Great Britain, he grants, that in his treaty with the Empire, all things concerning the ſtate of religion there, ſhould be ſettled conformably to the treaty of Weſtphalia.

The moſt material articles in the treaty between France and Pruſſia were, that his Pruſſian Majeſty ſhould enjoy the upper quarter of Guelderland, and the principalities of Neufchatel and Valengin; in conſideration whereof, he ſhould relinquiſh all right and title to the principality of Orange in France.

There was little contained in the treaty between France and Portugal, unleſs an acknowledgment by his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty that both ſides of the river of Amazons in South America belonged to Portugal, and that he relinquiſhed all claim to the uſe and navigation of the ſaid river.

By the treaty between France and the States-General, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty obliges himſelf to deliver up to the States, in favour of the houſe of Auſtria, all that he had poſſeſſed himſelf of in the Spaniſh Netherlands, and which belonged to King Charles II, by virtue of the treaty of Ryſwick; namely, the duchy, town, and fortreſs of Luxemburg, with the county of Chinay; the county, town, and caſtle of Namur, as alſo the towns of Charleroy and Nieuport, with their dependencies. His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty alſo yields to the States-General, in favour of the houſe of Auſtria, all his right to the town of Menin, the town and citadel of Tournay, with their dependencies and appurtenances, except that of St Amand and Mortagne. He alſo yields up in favour of the houſe of Auſtria, Furnes, Furner, Ambacht, Fort Knoque, the towns of Loo, and Dixmude, Ypres with it's chatellany, including Rouſſilaer and it's other dependencies, viz. Poperinguen, Warneton, Commines, and Warwick.

And it was agreed, that no province, town, fort, or place of the ſaid Spaniſh Netherlands ſhould ever be yielded, or transferred, or fall to the crown of France, or any Prince or Princeſs of that houſe, or come in any manner whatever under their power.

The Lords the States-General on the other hand obliged themſelves to deliver up to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, the town of Liſle with it's chatellany, Orchies, the country of Laheu and the burgh of la Gourgue, the towns and places of Aire, Bethune, St Venant and Fort François, with their bailiwicks and appurtenances.

By the treaty between France and Savoy, the French King obliged himſelf to reſtore to that Prince, the duchy of Savoy, the county of Nice, and in general, all the places he had taken from his Royal Highneſs during the war. He alſo yielded and transferred to his Royal Highneſs, the valley of Pragelas with the forts of Exilles and Feneſtrelles, the vallies of Oulx, Sezane, Bardonache, and Chateau Dauphiné, and all about the water which falls from the Alps on the ſide of Piedmont. And his Royal Highneſs reciprocally yields to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, the valley of Barcelonetta and it's appurtenances; ſo that the ſummits of the Alps and the mountains ſhould ſerve for boundaries between France, Piedmont, and the county of Nice, in ſuch manner, that the plains which are on the ſaid ſummits and the heights ſhall be divided, and half of the river flowing from the ſide of Dauphiné and of Provence ſhould belong to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, and thoſe on the ſide of Piedmont and the county of Nice ſhould belong to his Royal Highneſs of Savoy.

His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty alſo agrees for himſelf and his Catholick Majeſty the King of Spain that the kingdom of Sicily, with the iſlands thereon depending, ſhould be yielded to the Duke of Savoy, and acknowledges his Royal Highneſs from this time to be King of Sicily.

The ceſſions made by the late Emperor, alſo to the Duke of Savoy of part of the duchy of Montferrat, the provinces of Alexandria and Valencia, with all the lands between the Po and the Tanara, the Lomeline and the valley of Seſſia, the Vigevaneſe, &c. are confirmed to him.

His Royal Highneſs of Savoy alſo is left at liberty to fortify his frontiers for the ſecurity of his dominions.

Treaty of Raſtadt.

The Emperor having carried on an unfortunate war againſt France for almoſt a year after the peace had been concluded by the reſt of the allies, wherein he loſt Landau and ſeveral other towns of importance, a treaty was at length concluded at Raſtadt between his Imperial Majeſty and the moſt Chriſtian King, on the ſixth of March 1713-14. And it was agreed thereby, that the treaties of Weſtphalia, Nimeguen, and Ryſwick, ſhould be the baſis and foundation of this. Particularly his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty agreed to reſtore to the Emperor the town and fortreſs of Briſac, the town and fortreſs of Friburg, with the fort of St Peter's and the Star Fort, and all other forts in the Black Foreſt, or in Briſgaw, and the fort of Kehl erected on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine over againſt the bridge of Straſburg. And it was agreed that the fort of Pile, and others erected in the iſlands of the Rhine near Straſburg, ſhould be demoliſhed, and the navigation of the ſaid river remain free and open to the ſubjects on either ſide.

His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty likewiſe promiſes to cauſe the fortifications erected over againſt Hunninghen on the right of the Rhine, and the iſland therein, to be demoliſhed at his charges, as alſo the bridge built over the Rhine at that place. That the fort of Selingen and the forts in the iſlands between Selingen and Fort Lewis, ſhould be demoliſhed; as alſo the fort built over againſt Fort Lewis, and that it ſhould not be lawful for either of the parties to re-edify the ſame; but that Fort Lewis and the iſland whereon it ſtands ſhall remain to the moſt Chriſtian King. And in general he promiſes to raze, at his own expence, all the forts, intrenchments, lines, and bridges, mentioned in the treaty of Ryſwick, and ſuch as have been erected ſince that treaty, either along the Rhine, or in it, or elſewhere within the Empire and it's dependencies, never to be repaired again.

He promiſes alſo to evacuate the caſtles of Bitſch and Homburg, after the fortifications ſhall be demoliſhed.

And as the moſt Chriſtian King deſigns to re-eſtabliſh a ſincere union with the Emperor and Empire, he promiſes, that in the treaty with the Electors, Princes and States in the general congreſs, he will reſtore whatever has been taken from them during the war.

On the other hand the Emperor conſents that the town of Landau, with it's dependencies, ſhall remain to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty.

He conſents alſo that the Electors of Cologne and Bavaria be reſtored to all their dominions and territories.

And further, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty confirms the Spaniſh Netherlands to the Emperor, with all thoſe countries and places mentioned in the treaty between France and the States General, to be yielded to the ſaid States in favour of the houſe of Auſtria.

1714. Dunkirk demoliſhed.

Memorial againſt making a new harbour there.

In purſuance of the treaty between France and Britain, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, with abundance of reluctance, demoliſhed the fortifications and filled up the harbour of Dunkirk: and under pretence of diſcharging the land-floods, cauſed another canal to be dug in the neighbourhood of it, called the canal of Mardyke, which was found capable of receiving ſhips of greater burthen than the former. This occaſioned heavy complaints among ſome zealous Britons againſt the ſincerity of the Grand Monarch; and GEORGE Elector of Brunſwick ſucceeding to the Britiſh throne about this time, ordered Mr PRIOR, his miniſter at the court of France, to deliver a memorial on that ſubject to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty. Mr PRIOR hereupon repreſented, that his Britiſh Majeſty was very much ſurprized to hear that the ſaid harbour was ſo far from being filled up, according to the treaty of Utrecht, that as large ſhips might come up the old canal to the hornwork as ever; and as long as that canal ſubſiſted, it could not be denied that there remained an harbour at Dunkirk a thouſand fathom long, which was capable of holding ſeveral hundred ſhips: whereas the words of the treaty were, that *portus comple-*

atur, the harbour ſhould be filled up, and *aggeres aut moles diruantur*, that the dykes or banks which formed the canal ſhould be deſtroyed. He further repreſented, that his Britiſh Majeſty's ſurprize was ſtill greater, when he was informed, that notwithſtanding the words of the ninth article of the ſaid treaty were expreſs, viz. *Ne dicta munimenta, portus, moles aut aggeres denuo unquam reficiantur*, that the fortifications aforeſaid, the harbour and dykes of Dunkirk, ſhall never be re-eſtabliſhed, they were actually at work to make a harbour much larger than the old canal, which was to come up, as the old canal did, to the town of Dunkirk; and that they had laid the foundation of a ſluice much larger than the former, which ſerved to cleanſe the harbour.

Mardyke.

If ſhips then can come up to Dunkirk by the old canal, which was to the north, or by the new, which is to the weſt, Dunkirk will be equally an harbour, equally troubleſome and dangerous to the commerce of Great Britain: in both caſes the treaty of Utrecht will be violated. And as the expectation of ſeeing the ninth article of the ſaid treaty executed in all it's parts, was the chief motive that induced Great Britain to accept the peace of Utrecht, his Britiſh Majeſty had ordered him to make the moſt preſſing inſtances that the ſaid canals ſhould be filled up.

The French King's anſwer to the Britiſh memorial.

To this memorial his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty anſwered, That the words *portus compleatur* could never be interpreted as extending to the old canal, which was very different from the harbour. Nor could he ever have engaged himſelf to fill up entirely a canal which is a thouſand fathoms long; this would have been an incredible labour; and beſides, would have been to no purpoſe, becauſe the ſea would in a ſhort time carry off what remained of the dykes.

That the canal of Mardyke was made to carry off the waters of the canals of Furnes, la Moere, Bourg, and Bourbourg, which formerly were diſcharged by the ſluices of Dunkirk, and thereby prevent the over-flowing great tracts of lands. That thoſe four antient canals were altogether forty-eight fathoms broad, and conſequently it was neceſſary that the new canal ſhould have a ſufficient breadth to receive all thoſe waters, and carry them to the ſea. It was neceſſary alſo that the ſluices ſhould bear proportion with the breadth of the canal, and the quantity of the waters which they were to hold, for they were made to prevent the tides getting up into the country, and keep in the waters of the four ancient canals at high water. That theſe were the motives which obliged the King to cauſe the new canal of Mardyke to be opened, but he had no view or intention to make a new port at Mardyke, or build a town there.

This diſpute between the French and Britiſh courts concerning the harbour and canals of Dunkirk, continued till the year 1717, when the French put an end to it by the following conceſſions, viz.

The moſt Chriſtian King deſiring ſincerely to perform every thing that has been heretofore ſtipulated with the crown of France, and not to omit any thing that the King of Great Britain may think neceſſary for the entire demolition of the port of Dunkirk, and for removing all ſuſpicion that there was an intention to make a new port at the canal of Mardyke, which might ſerve for ſome other uſe than draining the water which would drown the country, and the neceſſary commerce for the ſubſiſtence and maintenance of the people who inhabit that part of the country, which is only to be carried on by ſmall boats, which are not allowed to be above ſixteen foot wide; his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty doth engage and promiſe to execute every thing which the Sieur IBBEVILLE, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty's Envoy, having full power for that purpoſe, did agree to at Hampton-Court, as is contained in a memorial of the 19th of September 1716, ſigned by the Lord Viſcount TOWNSHEND and Mr METHUEN, Secretaries of State, on the part of Great Britain; which is as follows: That the great paſſage of the new ſluice of Mardyke, which is forty-four foot wide, ſhall be demoliſhed from top to bottom; that is to ſay, by taking away all the bajoyers, boardings, buſks, longrines, and traverſines, from the whole length thereof, and by taking off the gates, the wood and iron-work thereof ſhall be taken aſunder; and all theſe materials may be employed elſewhere, to ſuch uſes as his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty ſhall think fit; provided however, that they ſhould never be made uſe of for any port, haven, or ſluice, at Dunkirk or Mardyke, or any other place within two leagues diſtance from either of theſe two places; the intention of the parties contracting, and the end they propoſe to themſelves by this treaty, being, that no port, haven, fortification, ſluice, or baſon, ſhall be made at Dunkirk, or the ſluice of Mardyke, or any other place whatever along the ſhore, at ſuch diſtance upon that coaſt. That the little ſluice ſhall remain as it is at preſent as to it's depth, provided the breadth thereof be reduced to ſixteen feet. The jettees and faſcinage from the Downs, or the place to which the tide riſes at high water, down to the low ebb along the ſhore, ſhall be razed on both ſides of the new canal, and made level with the ſhore; and the ſtones and faſcines that are above the ſaid level may be carried away, and employed for ſuch uſes as his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty ſhall think fit; provided however that they never be made uſe of for any port or haven at Dunkirk or Mardyke, or any other place whatever, within two leagues diſtance of any of theſe two places; the intention of the parties contracting, and the end they propoſe to themſelves by this treaty, being, that no jettee (or dyke) or faſcine-work, ſhall ever be made again upon the ſhore of this coaſt, at the diſtance aforeſaid on either ſide. The demolition of the jettees (or peers) on both ſides of the old canal of the port of Dunkirk, ſhall be entirely finiſhed and made level with the ground, over all, from the loweſt ebb, to within the town of Dunkirk; and if there ſhall remain any piece of fort-blank chateauvered, or Bonne Eſperance, it ſhall be totally laid even with the ground. When this treaty ſhall be ratified, the King of Great Britain, and the Lords the States-General of the United Provinces may ſend commiſſaries upon the place, who may be witneſſes to the execution of this article.

The tyranny of the French adminiſtration.

I proceed now to ſhew by what methods the French King ſo long ſupported the charges of the late war againſt moſt of the Princes of Europe. It is very evident that the taxes, how high ſoever, nor even the rents of all the eſtates in France, if they had been brought into his treaſury, could have enabled him to carry on the war. He found himſelf under a neceſſity of ſeizing all the coin belonging to his ſubjects, which did not amount to leſs than an hundred millions in ſpecie: but this indeed he did by degrees, and under ſpecious pretences; though when he found any of his ſubjects obſtinate, and determined not to part with their money, they were compelled to it by military execution.

Alterations made in the value of the coin.

This was the grand reſource whereby LEWIS le Grand more than once reſtored his affairs when they were looked upon as deſperate. But to deſcend a little to particulars: The Louis d'Ors, for inſtance, which were current before the war at eleven livres, was called in and received by the officers of his Majeſty's mint at that value; after which the very ſame piece having received a new ſtamp, was paid back again to the proprietor at twelve livres, and ſome time after at thirteen, whereby the King got twenty or forty pence out of every Louis d'Or, without any other charge than the ſtamp. But the King having ſtill further occaſion for money, he ordered all the current ſpecies to be brought into his mint, and that it ſhould no longer be taken by private perſons. At firſt he returned other ſpecies in lieu of that which was paid at the mint; but under pretence it could not be recoined faſt enough to exchange, the officers of the mint were ordered to give bills for the value of the ſums they received, which were to be paid on demand when the new ſpecies ſhould be coined: by this means he got all the ready money into his hands, and did not pay the bills the mint had given out. This we may be ſure exaſperated the people ſufficiently; whereupon he thought fit to order, that thoſe bills ſhould be taken in all payments for ready money. Nor did they only give out bills for the money brought into the mint, but alſo for ſeveral millions more; ſo that had the Monarch been ſo honeſt to have returned ſpecie for the ſpecie he had received, yet he could never have found ſpecie enough to diſcharge the ſupernumerary mint-bills, which had been given the ſubject in diſcharge of other debts the crown had contracted. At length theſe mint-bills loſt their credit ſo much, that the King thought fit entirely to ſuppreſs them, and give the people others in the room of them, ſigned by the farmers and receivers of the revenue, who were ordered to pay off both principal and intereſt as the taxes came into their hands. But even theſe new bills were at 35 and 40 per cent. diſcount, at the concluſion of the peace at Utrecht.

Mint-bills given to the ſubject for ſpecie.

The money called in, and iſſued again at a higher value.

In the mean time the government having parted with almoſt all their ready money to ſupport the charges of the war, and the ſpecies being again come into the hands of the ſubjects, they found a new expedient to draw it from them, namely, by crying down all the preſent coin, and ordering it to be brought into the mint under the ſevereſt penalties, at the current price, giving the ſubject a new ſpecies, on which they ſet a much higher value, in the room of it: for inſtance, the Louis d'Or, the intrinſick value whereof is not more than fourteen livres, they iſſued at twenty livres, and the ſilver ſpecies in proportion, which brought an immenſe profit to the crown, but entirely ruined their foreign trade, for ſtrangers held up the price of their merchandize in proportion to what they loſt by receiving their coin at ſuch extravagant rates; whereupon they found themſelves under a neceſſity of lowering the coin again, which occaſioned unconceivable loſſes to private people; for a man who looked upon himſelf, ſuppoſe, to be worth twenty thouſand pounds in caſh one year, the next found it reduced to fourteen or fifteen, notwithſtanding the Louis d'Ors, or crowns, he had in his cuſtody, continued numerically the ſame.

Some monied men however, obſerving that there were certain times fixed for lowering the coin gradually, thought of an expedient to prevent theſe loſſes, which was generally followed in France. They lent their money to merchants without intereſt for eighteen months (being the time appointed for the laſt reduction of the coin); and the merchants, in hopes that the profits they ſhould make in that time would exceed their loſſes by the lowering the ſpecies, very willingly took the money, and gave notes for it, and immediately imported ſuch goods from foreign parts as they knew were moſt wanted in France, particularly ſalt beef, butter, cheeſe, and other proviſions from England and Ireland, which were then ſold at extravagant rates in France. But the market ſoon became over-ſtocked with theſe goods, and they were ſold thirty per cent. cheaper than the prime coſt. Other people being of opinion that the bills of the farmers and receivers of the revenue would reſume their credit on a peace with the Empire, laid out their ſpecie in purchaſing thoſe bills at 40 and 50 per cent. diſcount: but the government finding it impoſſible to pay off thoſe bills, which amounted to five or ſix hundred millions of livres, made ſuch bad payments, that theſe new adventurers were glad to part with their bills again at ſixty and ſeventy per Cent. diſcount. Theſe practices naturally occaſioned the breaking of an infinite number of merchants and bankers all over the kingdom, and reduced the people in general to the moſt miſerable circumſtances; which were ſtill heightned by the methods ſome of them took to prevent their being involved in the common calamity, as the ſending many millions in ſpecie out of the kingdom to avoid the loſs they were like to ſuſtain by bills of exchange, or exporting their treaſure abroad to prevent his Majeſty's ſeizing of it.

France reduced to the utmoſt diſtreſs.

LEWIS XIV dies.

In this deplorable condition was the kingdom of France when LEWIS the Fourteenth was ſummoned to give an account of his adminiſtration. He found himſelf indiſpoſed on the eleventh of Auguſt, and on the fourteenth was ſeized with the cramp, gout, and ſciatick pains; on the twenty-fourth however he apprehended himſelf to be ſo well recovered, that he deſigned to have dined in publick, but was afflicted with ſuch ſharp pains, that he ordered every body out of the room, except Marſhal VILLEROY, with whom he remained in private two hours. He told him that he ſaw his laſt hour approaching, and muſt ſeriouſly think on death; and the ſame day was taken with a violent fever, and a ſore he had in his leg appeared to tend towards a mortification: whereupon he thought it proper to receive the Viaticum; and on Sunday the firſt of September, N. S. about eight in the morning, he expired.

His marriage and iſſue.

This Prince was the ſon of LEWIS XIII and ANNE of Auſtria. He was born the fifth of September 1638, and married MARIA THERESA, daughter to PHILIP IV, King of Spain, anno 1660; by whom he had iſſue only one ſon that lived, viz. LEWIS Dauphin of France, who married MARY ANNE CHRISTINA, ſiſter to the late Duke of Bavaria; by whom he had iſſue three ſons, viz. 1. LEWIS Duke of Burgundy, born anno 1682. 2. PHILIP Duke of Anjou, now King of Spain, born anno 1683. 3. GASTON Duke of Berry, born in 1684. LEWIS the Dauphin died anno 1711; whereupon LEWIS Duke of Burgundy, his eldeſt ſon, ſucceeded to the title of Dauphin. This Prince married MARY ADE-

LAIDE, eldeſt daughter to the Duke of Savoy, now King of Sardinia, anno 1698, and died anno 1712; leaving iſſue of this marriage three ſons, of which the two eldeſt, ſtiled Dukes of Britany ſucceſſively, died ſoon after him in their infancy; but LEWIS his third ſon, born anno 1710, ſurvived them all, and ſits at preſent on the throne of his great-grandfather LEWIS XIV, of whoſe marriage and iſſue I ſhall ſpeak hereafter. PHILIP Duke of Anjou, the ſecond ſon of LEWIS the Dauphin, and uncle to the preſent French King, ſucceeded to the crown of Spain anno 1700, by virtue of the late King's will, CHARLES II, whoſe marriages and iſſue I ſhall take notice of in the modern hiſtory of Spain. As to the Duke of Berry, the late Dauphin's third Son, he died without iſſue.

The natural children of LEWIS XIV. by Madam DE LA VALIERE were MARY ANNE DE BOURBON, born in 1666, and married in 1680 to LEWIS of Bourbon Prince of Conti, who died without iſſue by her. By Madam DE MONTESPAN, 1. LEWIS AUGUSTUS DE BOURBON Duke of Maine, born in 1670, who by his wife LOUISA, daughter to the Prince of Condé, has a daughter called Madamoiſelle D'AUMALE, born in 1697, and a ſon LEWIS AUGUSTUS Prince of Dombes, born in 1700. 2. LOUISA FRANCES de Bourbon Madamoiſelle de Nantes, born in 1673, and married to LEWIS Duke of Bourbon in 1685; whoſe children are Madamoiſelle de Bourbon, born 1690; LEWIS Duke of Enguien, born 1692; LOUISA Madamoiſelle de Charolois, born 1693; and LOUISA ANNE Madamoiſelle de Sens, born in 1695. 3. LEWIS ALEXANDER DE BOURBON Count of Thoulouſe, born 1678, late Admiral of France. 4. FRANCES MARY de Bourbon, Madamoiſelle de Blois, born 1681. His Majeſty's only legitimate brother was PHILIP Duke of Orleans, firſt married to HENRIETTA MARIA, daughter to CHARLES I, King of England, by whom he had one daughter, married to the Duke of Savoy: he was afterwards married to CHARLOTTA ELIZABETH, daughter to CHARLES LEWIS Elector Palatine; by whom he had iſſue PHILIP Duke of Chartres, late Duke of Orleans, who married FRANCES MARY de Bourbon Mademoiſelle de Blois, by whom he had iſſue the preſent Duke of Orleans, born anno 1703, and four daughters.

The perſon of LEWIS XIV.

The admirers of LEWIS le Grand look upon his life as one continued ſeries of wonders; even his birth is eſteemed miraculous, his mother having had no iſſue after a marriage of twenty years and upwards: others on the contrary aſcribe this extraordinary birth to the contrivance of Cardinal RICHLIEU, who with the aſſiſtance of the Queen's Confeſſor, had perſuaded her Majeſty for the good of the church and ſtate to admit the embraces of ſeveral gentlemen, among whom the Chevalier LE GRAND, Maſter of the Horſe to LEWIS XIII, was ſo happy as to give two ſons to the royal family, LEWIS XIV being the eldeſt: but I muſt confeſs I give very little credit to the ſtory, the Queen and the Cardinal continuing irreconcileable enemies to the laſt. As to the perſon of this Prince, he was tall and every way proportionable, his hair almoſt black, his features tolerably regular, but his face a little pitted with the ſmall-pox; he danced and performed all his exerciſes perfectly well: his character will beſt be diſcovered by the hiſtory of his reign; men ſeem to think of him very differently, according to the various notions they entertain of glory. But I ſhould not be forgiven by my readers, if I neglected to give ſome account of his amours. He is generally ſaid to have had five avowed miſtreſſes, beſides other ladies with whom he may have trifled away an hour or two by the bye.

His miſtreſſes.

The firſt was Madamoiſelle DE MANCHINI, Cardinal MAZARIN's neice, more admired for her wit than her beauty: whom the King was ſo taken with, that he would have married her if the Queen-mother had not found means to divert him from it. When ſhe was ſent away, 'tis ſaid, his Majeſty ſhed tears very plentifully.

Madamoiſelle DE LA VALIERE, one of the Ducheſs of Orlean's maids, was the next; her perſon was not very engaging neither, ſhe was ſhort and thin, and had a very bad mien, her teeth alſo were very indifferent, but ſhe had an inexhauſtible ſtock of wit, good humour, and vivacity, which charmed the Monarch, and is ſaid to be the moſt generous and diſintereſted of all his miſtreſſes, never importuning his Majeſty for any favour for herſelf or her friends, and behaved herſelf with that humility and condeſcenſion to every body while ſhe was in favour, that ſhe was univerſally eſteemed. This intrigue happened ſoon after the King's marriage with the Infanta, for whom he had but very little complaiſance; whereupon the Queen prevailed on his Majeſty's Confeſſor to lay before him the ill conſequences of that way of life; the King thanked the good father for his advice, but let him know at the ſame time that he had no further ſervice for him. And 'tis obſerved, that the oppoſition the King met with in his amours rather augmented than diverted his paſſion for Madam DE LA VALIERE, who ſtill remained ſole miſtreſs of his affections; and ſo tender he was of her, that being in great danger on her delivery of a daughter, he held her in his arms, crying out to the phyſicians, Save LA VALIERE, and take my crown. But even this miſtreſs was turned off at length to make room for another; whereupon ſhe retired into a convent, where ſhe is ſaid to have compoſed half a dozen verſes on the occaſion, in her own language, which have been rendered into Engliſh thus;

For me the Kings of heaven and earth have ſtrove,
Which of the mighty two ſhould gain my love.
But conquering heaven has brought me to this place;
What earthly happineſs can mine ſurpaſs?
Since from the greateſt Prince's miſtreſs I
Am now become ſpouſe to the Deity.

The Counteſs of Monteſpan, a lady of exquiſite beauty, ſucceeded Madam DE LA VALIERE: as ſhe was married, great offers, 'tis ſaid, were made to the Earl her huſband to procure his conſent; but no conſiderations could move him to part with her voluntarily; whereupon his Majeſty and the lady ſtruck up a bargain without him, and the unfortunate nobleman thought fit to retire into the country, that he might not be witneſs of his diſgrace. The Counteſs of Monteſpan made uſe of the intereſt ſhe had in the King to advance her own relations; and having a great many children by his Majeſty, continued long in favour at court, though ſhe had very little merit beſides her beauty to engage the Monarch's heart.

Madamoiſelle DE FONTANGE was the next object his Majeſty caſt his eyes upon; ſhe was a young lady of abundance of wit and good humour, and had the prudence to find out an advantageous

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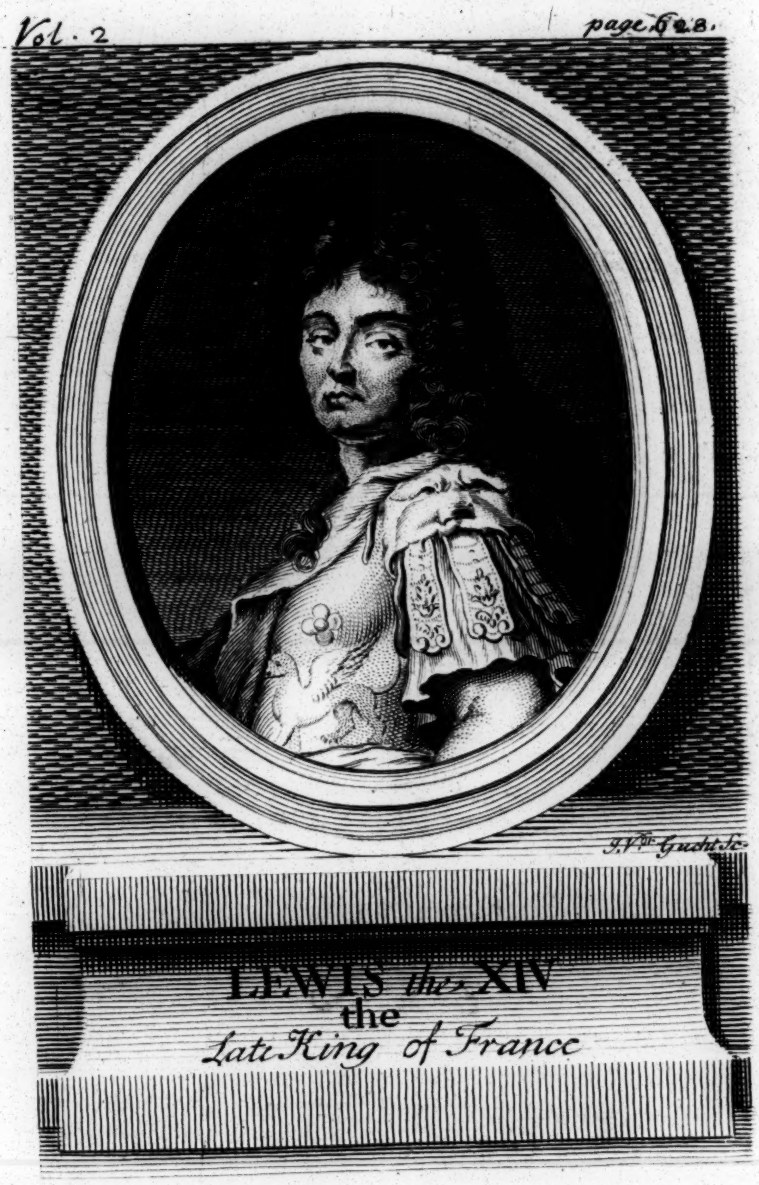
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LEWIS *the* XIV
the
Late King of France

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match for herſelf, becauſe ſhe was diſmiſſed by the King.

MAINTENON.

The celebrated Madam MAINTENON ſucceeded FONTAGNE; ſhe was of the family of Aubigny, and either born in America, or carried thither very young, and was brought to Europe again by the Governor of Martinico: while ſhe was in this family a young Marquis who admired both her wit and her beauty, made his addreſſes to her. She was a tall woman, well-ſhaped, and had an agreeable mein; her hair was black, her features regular, and had fine eyes. The Marquis her admirer either never intended to marry her, or ſatiated with enjoyment, left her: however, he had the honour to make her a preſent of a purſe of piſtoles of which ſhe made ſo good uſe, that ſhe found means of introducing herſelf into ſome of the beſt families in Paris, where ſhe met with the inimitable SCARRON, who was exceedingly ſmitten with her charms; his perſon was indeed ſomewhat deformed, but as he was a man of quality and eſtate, and of a moſt agreeable converſation, ſhe very readily conſented to take him for better or worſe. This gentleman, 'tis ſaid, took abundance of pleaſure in poliſhing and improving her natural parts: but Madam MAINTENON, or rather SCARRON, had too ambitious a ſoul to be content with leading a private life, how agreeable ſoever; having made ſome acquaintance therefore with Madam MONTESPAN, or ſome other of the King's miſtreſſes, ſhe found means to make herſelf known to his Majeſty, who was ſo charmed with her wit, that he thought her converſation too great a happineſs for a ſubject, and thereupon took the liberty of removing her from old SCARRON's bed to his own. As to her perſon, ſhe was now paſt her bloom; but her judgment was ſo improved, that ſhe is ſaid to have had the greateſt ſhare in the adminiſtration; and in effect to have ſupplied the place of prime miniſter as long as ſhe lived. The King had no children by her, but ſeveral by her predeceſſors, as appears in the account of his iſſue.

LEWIS XV.

LEWIS XV, the only ſurviving ſon of LEWIS, Duke of Burgundy, grandſon of the Dauphin, and great-grandſon of LEWIS XIV, ſucceeded to the crown of France on the firſt of day of September 1715, N.S. being then in the ſixth year of his age. The late King by his will appointed a council of Regency, conſiſting of the Duke of Orleans, the Duke of Bourbon, the Duke of Maine, the Count de Thoulouſe, the Chancellor, the Preſident of the royal council, the Marſhals VILLEROY, VILLARS, UXELLES, TALLARD, and HARCOURT, the four Secretaries of State, and the Comptroller-General of the finances; and ordered that the perſon of the minor King ſhould be under the guardianſhip of the ſaid Council of Regency; that the Duke of Maine ſhould have the guardianſhip of his Majeſty under the authority of the ſaid Council, and the Duke of Villeroy be his Governor under him; and that all the officers of the King's guard and houſhold ſhould obey the Duke of Maine's commands with reſpect to the perſon of the King minor, his guard and ſafety. He further ordered, that all affairs which were to be determined by the King's authority, either concerning war or peace, the diſpoſal and adminiſtration of the finances, the nomination of perſons to biſhopricks, abbies, and other eccleſiaſtical dignities and benefices; the appointing the officers of the crown, Secretaries of ſtate, Comptroller of the finances, and all officers of the army and navy; the officers of the courts of judicature and finances; the Governors and Lieutenant-Generals in the provinces and towns; the ſtaff-officers, and officers of the houſhold; and generally all offices, commiſſions, and employments, the filling whereof belonged to the King, ſhould be conſidered in the Council of Regency, and determined by a majority of votes.

The Duke of Orleans aſſumes the regency.

Notwithſtanding the late King had appointed a Council of Regency, the Duke of Orleans, who was next heir to the crown in caſe of the death of the minor King, claimed the office of Regent as due to him by his birth, to which he obtained the concurrence of the parliament of Paris, and thereupon aſſumed an authority equal to their greateſt Princes; nor was Lewis XIV himſelf ever guilty of more arbitrary and deſtructive meaſures, which the Duke endeavoured to excuſe from the neceſſity he was under of extricating the crown from that load of debts with which he found it oppreſſed; for at the Grand Monarch's death, it is ſaid, that the government was no leſs than three hundred millions ſterling in debt, beſides the vaſts ſums they had ſtruck off by raiſing and lowering the coin, &c.

The Regent, as uſual at the beginning of an adminiſtration, publiſhed ſome popular edicts; by one of which he reſtored to the parliament of Paris their antient privilege of debating and conſidering acts of State that were tranſmitted to them before they paſſed them.

By another edict dated the 12th of October 1715, he tells them, that being fully perſuaded of the indiſpenſible neceſſity of keeping the gold and ſilver ſpecies on the foot they were then fixed for ever, (being about the intrinſick value) for preſerving a juſt balance in commerce, which was the baſis and foundation thereof, the King ordained, that the laſt value ſet upon the ſpecies of gold and ſilver, ſhould remain for ever fixed without alteration, viz. the Lewis d'Or at fourteen livres, the crown piece at three livres ten ſols, and the other ſpecies in proportion. But the Duke of Orleans finding himſelf ſettled in his regency without oppoſition, within a month afterwards publiſhed another edict, whereby he raiſed the Lewis d'Or to twenty livres, and the other ſpecies proportionably, on it's being iſſued out of the mint; though at the ſame time he obliged the ſubjects to pay them into the mint at ſixteen livres: ſo that here the government gained at once a fifth part of all the money in the kingdom. To make this ſtill more plain, every perſon who brought five Lewis d'Ors or five crowns to the mint, received back but four in return, only the government were pleaſed to ſet the ſame value upon the four, as the five went at when they were paid in; and in this there might have been no great hurt, if thoſe they dealt with, and eſpecially foreigners, had not raiſed the price of their goods in proportion to the riſe of the coin: but a Lewis d'Or, whoſe intrinſick value was but fourteen livres, would purchaſe no more merchandize when it was raiſed to twenty, than it would before, which inclined the balance, prodigiouſly againſt them.

He raiſes the coin.

Another method the Regent took to raiſe money, was the erecting a new court of juſtice, called the Chambre Ardente, to call all ſuch perſons to an account, as had been concerned in the management of the publick revenues during the late war, out of whom he extorted very conſiderable ſums, to the great ſatisfaction of the people, who were pleaſed to ſee the inſtruments of their oppreſſion puniſhed, and obliged to refound their ill-gotten treaſure.

About the ſame time the Pretender and ſome of his adherents having embarked for Scotland in the ports of France, the Earl of Stairs, the Britiſh miniſter at that court, preſented a memorial to the Regent, complaining of it: but this ſeems to have been all grimace, for the Regent conſtantly gave notice to the Britiſh court of the Pretender's motions from time to time; and if he did not ſtop thoſe few officers and arms that were ſent to Scotland, it was either becauſe the oppoſing the Chevalier at that time of day, would have diſobliged a conſiderable party in France, or becauſe he knew thoſe ſmall ſupplies could be of little ſervice to him; and beſides his conniving at it might ſerve to conceal that intimate correſpondence there was all this while between the Regent and King GEORGE, which proved the ruin of the Pretender's deſigns.

1716. The diſputes concerning the Conſtitution Unigenitus gave no ſmall diſturbance to the beginning of the Regent's adminiſtration; each ſide hoped to gain him over to their party, and wrote and preached with all the bitterneſs imaginable againſt one another. At length he hoped to have accommodated the matter between them, by iſſuing an edict, commanding the recuſant biſhops to accept it, with certain explanations. But this was far from putting an end to the controverſy, both parties appeared ſtill more exaſperated than ever.

The poor Proteſtants were in great hopes the penal laws againſt them would have been relaxed during the Regent's adminiſtration; but either he never intended them any ſuch favour, or he did not think fit to diſoblige ſo great a body as the clergy, who perpetually importuned him to put the laws in execution againſt them. Nor do we find their ſufferings at all abated during the Regent's miniſtry; all that the King of England could prevail with the Regent to do, was to releaſe three or fourſcore of thoſe unhappy wretches from the gallies, who had been ſent thither purely upon the account of religion.

A diſpute between the Princes of the blood, and the late King's baſe iſſue.

The late King having legitimated his baſe iſſue, and conferred the ſame privileges on them as thoſe born in lawful wedlock, the latter preferred a petition to his preſent Majeſty and the parliament on the 23d of May 1715, deſiring he would revoke and annul in his ſeat of juſtice, the edict of the month of July 1714, which gives to LEWIS-AUGUSTUS of Bourbon Duke of Maine, and to LEWIS-ALEXANDER of Bourbon Count of Thoulouſe, and to their deſcendants, the right of ſucceeding to the crown: as alſo the declaration of the 23d of May 1715, which gave them the title, honours, and rank, of Princes of the blood.

Signed,

LEWIS-HENRY de Bourbon,
CHARLES de Bourbon. And,
LEWIS-ARMAND de Bourbon.

The Duke of Maine, in anſwer to this petition, publiſhed a memorial, wherein he aſſerts that ſuch a petition could not be received in parliament, becauſe it requires them to aboliſh an edict which they themſelves had ſolemnly regiſtered, and to reverſe their own decrees. That the Duke of Bourbon himſelf alſo, and the reſt of the petitioners, had given their conſent to the ſame edict, and therefore it was at leaſt very indecent for them to endeavour to deſtroy it. That the granting ſuch a petition would be of dangerous example to the ſtate, the people would apprehend that there was nothing firm and ſettled, and that edicts and arrets might be ſubverted at pleaſure.

To this the Princes of the blood replied, that both the parliament and themſelves were under a force when they conſented to thoſe edicts, and it would have been to no purpoſe to have oppoſed them in the late reign. That the King could not alter the conſtitution of the kingdom, and transfer the kingdom to his illegitimate iſſue or foreigners, and that ſuch acts of ſtate therefore were void. But to this I perceive it was anſwered, that as the Kings of France were veſted with the legiſlative authority, they might repeal or enact what laws they ſaw fit, and could not be bound by the edicts or cuſtoms of their predeceſſors.

The Peers of France intereſted themſelves in behalf of the Princes of the blood, and preſented a petition to his Majeſty, inſiſting that he would annul and revoke the edict and declaration aboveſaid, which gave the Duke of Maine and the Count of Thoulouſe the firſt rank after the Princes of the blood, and veſted them with a right of repreſenting the antient Peers at the inauguration of their Kings.

An edict in favour of the Princes of the blood, 1717.

This occaſioned a petition from the Duke of Maine and Count de Thoulouſe to his Majeſty, deſiring that he would determine nothing in this affair till he came of age; but in July 1717, an edict was publiſhed, whereby the King revoked and annulled the edict of 1714, and the declaration of 1715; decreeing however, that his uncles, the Duke of Maine and Count of Thoulouſe ſhould continue to receive the honours they had enjoyed in parliament ever ſince the edict of 1714, but that they ſhould neither of them be ſtiled Princes of the blood for the future.

The Czar of Muſcovy, a Prince whoſe curioſity was never ſatisfied, arrived at Paris this ſummer, and had the ſatisfaction of viewing every thing that was worth taking notice of in that city and the neighbourhood of it. He afterwards viſited the fortifications in Flanders, and eſpecially thoſe of the city of Namur, with which he was extremely pleaſed.

The beginning of the Miſſiſſippi company.

This year the French Court, in order to diſcharge that immenſe debt which had been contracted by the government to ſupport the late war, laid the foundation of the famous Miſſiſſippi or India company, which was to carry on a trade to Louiſiana or Florida with a ſtock of fifty millions of livres, and ſhares were to be purchaſed in it with ſtate-bills. This project appeared ſo advantageous, that above thirty millions of livres were immediately ſubſcribed into it: and together with the annuities, lotteries, and other methods propoſed for diſpoſing of ſtate-bills, they were in expectation of diſcharging great part of their debts very ſuddenly. But the court had recourſe to many other projects for raiſing money before this ſcheme was brought to perfection. That which was moſt grievous to the ſubject was the frequent alteration in the value of the coin, which the Duke of Orleans carried much farther than ever LEWIS XIV had done. When he found the people would be no longer impoſed upon and wheedled out of their money, he robbed them of it by plain force, as will appear hereafter.

1718.

The government having at this time got moſt of the money of the kingdom into their hands, recoined it, and raiſed the Lewis d'Or to 36 livres, obliging thoſe who had any ſtate-bills, or old ſpecie in their hands, to bring them to the mint and take new ſpecie in the room of them, whereby they cheated the people at one clap of two hundred millions of livres. The parliament obſerving how prejudicial this practice would be to the publick, made a repreſentation to the Regent againſt it: to which it was anſwered, that the matter had been duly conſidered, and could admit of no alteration.

Repreſentation of the parliament againſt the alteration of the coin.

The parliament not ſatisfied with this anſwer, drew up another repreſentation, ſetting forth the unreaſonableneſs of this edict, wherein they demonſtrate, that a man who carries 125 marks of ſilver to the mint, which makes 5,000 livres at the rate of 40 livres to the mark, and 2,000 livres in ſtate-bils, receives back 7,000 livres in new ſpecies, which weigh but 116 marks, conſequently he loſt nine marks out of 125 he carried thither, and all his ſtate-bills over and above; and that foreign trade alſo would ſuffer an immenſe loſs by the difference between the value the new edict gave to the ſpecies and their intrinſick value. The Regent told the parliament he did not ſend the edict concerning the new ſpecies to them to debate upon, but to regiſter it, and that they had nothing to do to intermeddle in the affair. But this body, to whom his Highneſs at the beginning of his adminiſtration pretended to reſtore their privileges, would not part with them again ſo eaſily: they took upon them to prohibit all perſons to receive or tender the new ſpecies in payment. However, after a long ſtruggle the Regent let them know he would be obeyed; and they found he meant no more by all the glorious promiſes he had made them, than by their aſſiſtance to eſtabliſh his tyranny, and now he looked upon himſelf to be ſecure, had no further regard to them.

The Court of Aids however were not diſcouraged from addreſſing his Majeſty on the ſame ſubject: they ſhew, that the dearneſs of proviſions and materials, occaſioned by raiſing the ſpecies, would be the utter ruin of their manufactures: that their artificers, which former alterations of the coin had driven into neighbouring countries, had inſtructed them in the perfection of their arts, and enabled them to make all thoſe things in which the French formerly excelled; and by a fatal reverſe, that which foreigners formerly fetched from France, and purchaſed with treaſure, they now imported from abroad, and enriched other countries with their gold and ſilver. That not only their workmen would be driven abroad, but many other people, whom the exceſſive price of proviſions made it impoſſible to ſubſiſt here. That even in times when the kingdom was reduced to the greateſt extremity, the alteration of the coin had never been carried to ſuch an exceſs as now; whereas they had been promiſed on the word of a King, which ought to be ſacred, that the ſpecies, ſhould be reduced to it's juſt value as ſoon as the war was ended. That after they had been drained for ſo many years to ſecure his Majeſty in the poſſeſſion of his throne againſt a numerous confederacy, they were like to meet with no other reward, than an edict which threw them into domeſtick feuds, and overturned all their fortunes; an edict which without the name of a ſupply, laid upon them the moſt heavy tax that was ever heard of.

While the finances were in the utmoſt confuſion in France, and the Duke of Orleans was taking theſe oppreſſive and arbitrary meaſures to diſcharge the publick debts, which had exaſperated all degrees of men in the nation, the King of Spain meditated how he might reunite thoſe kingdoms and provinces to the Spaniſh monarchy which had been miſmembered from it during the late war: he ſeems alſo to have had a deſign upon the regency of the kingdom of France, and the ſucceſſion to that throne in caſe Lewis XV had died, who enjoyed a very indifferent ſtate of health. The opportunity ſeemed extremely favourable; for the Emperor was then engaged in a war with the Turk, and the inteſtine troubles he obſerved in France were ſufficient to diſcourage them from entring into a foreign war; and as to the Engliſh and Dutch, the advantages they enjoyed by their commerce with Spain, he hoped would prevent their interpoſing in the quarrel. The Spaniards therefore having fitted out the beſt fleet they had been maſters of for many years, and aſſembled a powerful army, it was thought at firſt they had a deſign againſt the Emperor's dominions in Italy, which occaſioned an alliance between the Emperor, France, and Britain, for the ſecurity of their reſpective dominions. The Spaniards however proceeded to invade the iſland of Sardinia, then in the Emperor's poſſeſſion, and made themſelves maſters of it in the year 1717. The following year they made a deſcent in Sicily, of which the Duke of Savoy had been made King by the treaty of Utrecht, and almoſt the whole iſland revolted to them: but a further alliance having been entered into between the Empire, France, and Britain, which obtained the name of the Quadruple Alliance from the number of the parties upon the States-General acceding to it, it was reſolved to oppoſe the deſigns of the Spaniards with all their might. Accordingly his Britiſh Majeſty ſent a fleet into the Mediterranean, which defeated the Spaniſh fleet, and tranſported ſuch numbers of the Imperialiſts from Naples to Sicily, as ſoon put a ſtop to the progreſs of the Spaniards there, and the French prepared to attack them on the ſide of the Pyrenees; ſo that the war appeared wonderfully unequal, the poor feeble kingdom of Spain engaged with four of the moſt potent Kingdoms and States in Europe. And as it might reaſonably be expected, the Spaniards were obliged to accept of ſuch terms as the Confederates were pleaſed to grant them; they had loſt Port-Paſſage, Fontarabia, St Sebaſtian, and the whole province of Guipuſcoa; nor could they have hindered the French army from penetrating even to Madrid, if they had not prevented it by accepting a peace.

Spain attempts to recover the diſmembered provinces.

A confederacy formed againſt Spain.

The Spaniſh fleet defeated.

1719.

This attempt therefore of the Spaniſh Miniſtry to diſturb the peace of Europe, at firſt ſight appears very romantick: but it muſt be conſidered, that when they entered upon it, as the Emperor was engaged in a war with the Turks, they could not forſee the ſucceſs of their arms, or the peace that followed with the Mahometans. The King of Spain alſo had a conſiderable party in France; nay, it is queſtionable whether there were not three parts in four of the nation for him, who would have been glad to have been under his adminiſtration, rather than that of the Duke of Orleans. But it muſt be acknowledged that his Catholick Majeſty did not ſufficiently conſider, what a fine army of veteran troops the Duke of Orleans had in his pay, an army ſufficient to ſuppreſs all malecontents at home, and to have made a conqueſt of the Spaniſh monarchy, if he had not been ſupported by one ally. Admitting it to be true, that the Duke of Orleans had no other friends but the ſoldiery, which were not the hundredth part of the nation, yet the man that commanded that hundredth part with arms in their hands, as CROMWELL upon a like occaſion obſerved, would make no difficulty in ſubduing the other ninety-nine, the unarmed multitude. There is no depending on the murmurs or diſcontents of a people, how oppreſſed ſoever, where there is a vaſt ſtanding army of regular troops: it is on theſe every monarch and ſtate in Europe depends at this day, much more than in the affections of their ſubjects. Another very groſs miſtake the Spaniards made, was, that the Britiſh miniſtry would ſo far conſider the intereſt of trade, that they would not fall out with them. That the Britiſh trade ſuffered extremely by this conduct, is very evident; but whether the miniſtry ever concerned themſelves much about it, ſtill remains a very great queſtion. As to the Dutch, they did not come into the quadruple alliance till late, and then with ſo many reſtrictions, that they did themſelves no great hurt. I come now to the terms on which the peace was made, which in ſhort were theſe, that the Spaniſh forces ſhould evacuate Sicily and Sardinia, and that the King of Spain ſhould accede to the quadruple alliance. As to the conqueſts the French had made in Spain, it was agreed they ſhould relinquiſh them; but they were not obliged to make ſatisfaction for the men of war they had deſtroyed at Port Paſſage, or any other depredations; though the Engliſh are ſtill obliged to make good the ſhips Sir GEORGE BYNG deſtroyed near Sicily.

Quadruple Alliance.

By the quadruple alliance (the foundation of this peace) the Emperor renounced all right to the dominions of the Spaniſh monarchy, whereof his Catholick Majeſty was acknowledged the rightful poſſeſſor by the treaty of Utrecht, and acknowledged PHILIP V, to be lawful King of Spain, and the Indies. King PHILIP, on the contrary, renounced all right to the Spaniſh dominions which his imperial Majeſty poſſeſſed in Italy or the Netherlands.

And by the fifth article it was agreed, that in caſe of failure of male-iſſue of the Dukes of Tuſcany and Parma, the Queen of Spain's eldeſt ſon ſhould ſucceed to thoſe duchies; and if ſuch ſon ſhould ſucceed to the crown of Spain, then they ſhould be inherited by her ſecond and third ſon ſucceſſively, and ſo on.

And it was agreed, that it never ſhould be allowed during the lives of the preſent poſſeſſors of the duchies of Tuſcany and Parma, or their male ſucceſſors, that any forces, either of the Emperor's or the King of Spain's, or even of the Prince appointed to ſucceed, ſhould be introduced into the ſaid duchies: but for the ſecurity of the ſaid ſucceſſion, garriſons not exceeding ſix thouſand men, ſhould be put into the principal towns thereof, conſiſting of Swiſs troops, to be paid by the contracting powers, and that they ſhould take an oath of fidelity to the preſent poſſeſſors. And laſtly, the ſaid parties guaranty to each other their reſpective territories and poſſeſſions.

The King of Sicily having acceded to this treaty, agreed with the Emperor to exchange the iſland of Sicily for that of Sardinia; which we cannot ſuppoſe he did very willingly, but the Emperor was now in poſſeſſion of Sicily, and the contracting powers had agreed it ſhould be ſo, and he was from this time called King of Sardinia.

Notwithſtanding the French were generally inclined to King PHILIP in this war with Spain, they were kept in ſuch awe by the ſtanding forces, that I don't perceive there was any conſiderable inſurrection in his favour: the Duke of Richlieu and ſeveral great men were ſecured on a ſuſpicion of being in that intereſt. A court of juſtice alſo was erected in Britany, where the malecontents were moſt numerous, and ſeveral men of quality executed for correſponding with the enemy; and no doubt the other provinces would have declared for the King of Spain if he had been ſuperior in the field; for never was any country ſo peeled and plundered by an avowed enemy, as the ſubjects of France were during the Duke of Orleans's adminiſtration.

Royal Bank eſtabliſhed in France.

The next project the Court fell upon to raiſe money was the eſtabliſhing a royal bank; in the preamble to the patent for it the moſt Chriſtian King recites, that the Sieur LAW, ſoon after his acceſſion, having preſented him a project for eſtabliſhing a bank, the funds whereof ſhould be part of the royal revenue, it was examined in council, but the conjuncture not being favourable, the Sieur LAW then deſired permiſſion to eſtabliſh a bank on account of himſelf and ſuch a company as he ſhould form, which was granted him in May 1716. The fund was to conſiſt of ſix millions of livres, making 1200 actions or ſhares of 1000 crowns in bank each, payable to the bearer, wherein both ſubjects and foreigners might be intereſted; the uſefulneſs of which eſtabliſhment in remitting the publick money without draining the provinces of their ſpecie, induced his Majeſty to grant him his protection. That the ſucceſs of this project occaſioned the examining it again, and the King having found it very agreeable to the general good of commerce and to the benefit of the ſubject, it was thought proper the ſaid bank ſhould be continued under the royal name and authority; for which end the King had purchaſed all the actions or ſhares in it, and was become ſole proprietor of them. For theſe cauſes, &c. he declared and ordained, that from the firſt of January 1718-19, the ſaid bank ſhould be deemed a royal bank, and a director of it eſtabliſhed by the crown, who ſhould receive his orders from the Duke of Orleans.

This declaration being ſent to the parliament of Paris to be regiſtered, that body diſapproved the project: they foreſaw probably that they ſhould be obliged to take bank-bills for their caſh, which in time might have as little credit as other ſtate-bills. The Court, however, determined to carry on the deſign without their concurrence, and publiſhed another arret thereupon, enjoining all men to look upon the ſaid declaration as regiſtered in parliament, notwithſtanding it had been refuſed. His Majeſty alſo declared further, that before the firſt of March, beſides the general office at Paris, there ſhould be eſtabliſhed particular offices in the towns of Lyons, Rochelle, Tours, Orleans, and Amiens, conſiſting of two cheſts, one of ready money to pay bills on demand, and the other in bills to deliver to ſuch as wanted them. That the ſpecies of bellon [a baſe mixed metal] and copper coin, ſhould not be tendered or received in payments exceeding ſix livres: and as to the ſpecies of ſilver, it ſhould not be received in payment in any of the ſaid towns in ſums exceeding ſix hundred livres, but that all great ſums ſhould be paid in ſpecie or bills. In April 1719, we find the ſtock of the bank increaſed to one hundred millions of livres, and many people crouding into it, the payments being at firſt well made.

Miſſiſſippi company encouraged by the court.

About the ſame time the court of France encouraged another project formed by Mr Law, which was to transfer all the privileges of the Eaſt-India company to that of the Miſſiſſippi or Weſt-India company, and unite them both in one patent under the title of the India company; and to their preſent capital, which already conſiſted of an hundred millions of livres, they were permitted to add five and twenty millions more.

As a farther encouragement to this great company, the Treaſurer of the royal bank was ordered to deliver them bank-bills to the value of twenty-five millions of livres, in order to promote their traffick to Louiſiana: and in July 1719, in conſideration that the ſaid India company had agreed to advance the government fifty millions of livres in ſpecie, they obtained the grant of all the advantage ariſing from the coinage of gold and ſilver for nine years. An arret alſo was publiſhed for enabling the directors of the bank to iſſue two hundred and forty millions in bank-bills, which with thoſe iſſued out before, made their ſtock to conſiſt of four hundred millions of livres.

Miſſiſſippi ſtock riſes.

In Auguſt 1719, India or Miſſiſſippi ſtock had obtained ſuch credit, that it was advanced to 900; that is, every ſhare of 100 livres was ſold for 900, notwithſtanding there had been no dividend of any profit. This ſucceſs put Mr Law upon the boldeſt attempts that ever were heard of: he undertook to advance the government twelve hundred millions of livres at three per Cent. intereſt, towards the diſcharge of the annuities and other national debts; and to give fifty-two millions per annum for the general farm of the King's revenues, which was three millions and a half more than the preſent farmers gave: both which offers the crown accepted, and in conſideration thereof enlarged their term to fifty years, to commence from January 1719-20. The company were alſo empowered to borrow the ſum of twelve hundred millions of livres, in conſideration of their having advanced the like ſum for the government.

It was very much doubted whether the India company would be able to borrow ſo vaſt a ſum as 1200000000 of livres at ſo low an intereſt as three per Cent. but the nation was at this time (September 1719) ſo infatuated, that it appears they might have borrowed twice that money by the methods they took. The firſt eſſay they made was by ſelling out actions or ſhares to the amount of fifty millions of livres at the rate of 1000 per Cent. (the price of the ſtock being then at 1100) This was immediately filled, whereby the company gained five hundred millions at once. Upon this encouragement they ſold fifty millions more at the ſame rate, which were purchaſed in one day. Whereupon a third fifty millions were ſold, for which they alſo found purchaſers in one day's time: ſo that the company, inſtead of twelve hundred millions, offered to lend the government fifteen hundred millions. This indeed was all imaginary wealth; but it may be obſerved from hence, what an immenſe debt the crown of France ſtill lay under, when fifteeen hundred millions of livres, or one hundred and fifty millions ſterling, would not diſcharge it, notwithſtanding the many extraordinary means that had been taken to leſſen it ſince the war.

The French nation, according to my author, was wonderfully pleaſed at this time: they thought themſelves all rich, their lands were raiſed to twice the value, they expected wonderful profits from the India company, their bank-bills were preferred to ready money, and no man thought it worth his while to attend his proper trade or buſineſs, they were all jumping into eſtates at once.

To keep up the credit of bank-bills, of which there had been made out to the value of ſix hundred and fifty millions of livres, an arret was publiſhed in December 1719, which among other things, cries down the current ſpecies in a manner, and ordains that no tender in ready money ſhould be good, and that only bank-bills ſhould be accepted in payment; and the bank-bills were at length increaſed to a million of millions. The deſign of the adminiſtration in this ſtep began to be ſuſpected, namely, that they intended to get all the ready money of the kingdom into their hands, and pay their debts with paper, which kept up it's credit no longer than while the miniſtry had ſerved their ends by it: however, Mr Law, for the great ſervice he had done the court, in bubbling the people out of their caſh, and to give a credit to his ſcheme, was in January 1719-20 made Comptroller of the finances.

Mr Law made Comptroller of the finances.

On the 30th of December a general aſſembly of the India company was held at the houſe of the royal bank, in the preſence of the Duke of Orleans Regent, the Duke of Chartres, and the Duke of Bourbon; where the management of the directors was approved; and it was agreed to divide forty per cent. their ſtock or actions being ſold at this time at 1885, and ſubſcriptions at 1330 per cent. The Lords, and others who had enriched themſelves by India ſtock, thought they could not better ſecure their wealth than by purchaſing jewels with it, and accordingly great ſums were ſent out of the kingdom for this purpoſe, which occaſioned the publiſhing an arret prohibiting the wearing of diamonds, pearls, and precious ſtones, on pain of forfeiture, and a penalty of ten thouſand livres; forbidding on the like penalty to import the ſame into the kingdom.

The Court alſo ſuſpecting that a great deal of treaſure was hoarded up by private men, iſſued an arret raiſing the value of it, and permitting the merchants to ſend it abroad for the purchaſe of merchandize, which occaſioned every body to bring it out, and diſcover what they had: whereupon the government immediately publiſhed another arret, lowering the value of the gold and ſilver ſpecie, and requiring every perſon to bring it into the mint and take bank-bills for it, on pain of forfeiture; and becauſe they imagined people would ſtill endeavour to hide it, they gave the India company a power of entring all noblemens houſes and convents, as well as thoſe of private people, and to ſearch for ſpecie; nor were the royal palaces excuſed: which, 'tis obſerved, was ſuch an act of tyranny as the reign of Lewis XIV could never parallel. Theſe cruel and oppreſſive practices, with the Court's diſpoſing of all their ſtock at once, tumbled it down as faſt as it roſe, and an infinite number of unfortunate wretches found themſelves ruined in an inſtant. And leſt the people ſhould convert any of the coin they had left, into plate, the making of gold plate above an ounce weight was abſolutely prohibited; as was the making of ſilver plate without the King's permiſſion, which was to be granted only for table-plate of a certain weight. It appears that within three months before this prohibition, by an account taken from the books of the ſilver-ſmiths in Paris, they had made an hundred and twenty thouſand dozen of plates, beſides diſhes, and other plate in their poſſeſſion; and reckoning each dozen of plates at ſixty pounds ſterling, the value of the plates only amount to ſeven millions two hundred thouſand pounds ſterling.

1720. In the year 1720, the miniſtry publiſhed an arret, whereby Miſſiſſippi or India-ſtock was reduced to 500, and bank-bills, which the Court had paid away as ready money, were reduced to one half, a bill of a thouſand livres being declared to be worth but five hundred; and indeed their credit was now ſo very low, that people refuſed to take them for any thing; whereupon another arret was iſſued, to oblige the people to take them. This threw every thing into confuſion, and the Regent was forced to place guards in the market-places to prevent tumults; no body would part with their goods without four times the value of them. Money growing extremely ſcarce, the Court, in order to render it more plentiful, repealed their edicts, which prohibited people to keep money by them, and ordered them to re-call all the money they had ſent abroad into foreign countries, on pain of forfeiting double the ſums they had beyond ſea. They alſo obliged them to ſell all their jewels to foreigners, which was ſuppoſed would occaſion a great deal of ſpecie to be imported.

In the mean time the publick debts ſeem to be as far from being paid as ever, unleſs wiping off part of the ſcore may paſs for payment. The government, 'tis true, had paid them in India ſtock and bank-bills, but then thoſe bills ought to have been paid when the bearers came for their money; inſtead of which, comes out an arret, which has been mentioned already, that they ſhould paſs for half the original value, ſo that here at one daſh the miniſtry got rid of half their debts; but this would never be called payment among private men, it would rather be deemed downright robbery. Nor did the government do their buſineſs by halves, but before the end of the year bank-bills and paper-money was cried down, and nothing received in payment but the gold and ſilver ſpecies. About the ſame time Mr Law was removed from all his employments, and obliged to leave the kingdom to ſatisfy the clamours of the people: the government however were ſo grateful to him, for putting them in a way to pay their debts by cozening the ſubject, that they ſuffered him to carry off an immenſe treaſure, and even aſſiſted him in his retreat, and ſcreened him from the fury of the people, from which he might have found it difficult otherwiſe to have eſcaped. The general farm and the coinage were ſoon after taken from the India company, and every thing returned to it's uſual channel. As to the commerce with Louiſiana, this by conſequence came to nothing; nor did thoſe in the ſecret ever hope to make much of it; though to bubble and amuſe the people, they were at the charge of fitting out and freighting an hundred ſhips, with which they never attempted to make one ſingle ſettlement, or carry on any one branch of trade, ſo that it appeared in the end to have been only a fooliſh and unneceſſary expence; whereupon the Miſſiſſippi or India company was abſolutely diſſolved, and the trade to the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies put on another foot.

The ravages made in France by the Miſſiſſippi project, and the oppreſſions of the government, were not the only misfortunes that befel that people this year, for South France was viſited alſo with the plague, which ſwept away a multitude of the inhabitants. It was brought to Marſeilles by a ſhip that arrived there from Sidon, on the 15th of June 1720, N. S. The porters employed in unloading the veſſel, were immediately ſeized with violent pains in the head, reachings to vomit, and a general faintneſs; ſoon after they broke out in blotches and buboes, and died in three days. But the magiſtrates of Marſeilles apprehending that the trade of the city would be loſt, if the report of their having the plague amongſt them prevailed, gave out that the diſtemper was only a malignant fever; whereupon the merchants went to the fair of Beaucare in Languedoc, as uſual at this ſeaſon, and by that means diſperſed it through all the ſouthern provinces. In Marſeilles alone, it was computed, that in the month of September there had died no leſs than forty thouſand people.

The plague brought into France from Turkey.

The government were no ſooner acquainted that the diſtemper which carried off ſuch numbers in Provence was the plague, but they ordered all communication to be cut off with the places infected, and publiſhed an edict, containing rules and directions to be obſerved during this calamity, which very well deſerve a place in the modern hiſtory of France, though by no means fit to be imitated in countries that have any remains of liberty or property left.

Rules obſerved in the countries infected.

As ſoon as the King's commanding officers have notice that any places are affected with the contagion, they muſt without the loſs of one moment, cauſe them to be inveſted at the diſtance of half a league, or thereabouts, ſo that ſuch a part of ground may be left as may afford them the moſt neceſſary ſupplies for their ſubſiſtance. They are at that diſtance to diſpoſe into barracks the troops which form the blockade, and to poſt their corps de garde ſo near, that they may ſee each other, or eaſily hold communication by the centinels, to keep patroles continually all night long, and to employ officers of good underſtanding, vigilant, and inflexible, to take care of the blockade.

If the diſtemper ſpreads into houſes ſituate at diſtance from others, ſo as that they cannot poſſibly be included within the blockade, it is left to the prudence and diſcretion of the commanding officer, after he ſhall have given orders for removing the ſick of ſuch houſes into the neareſt infirmaries, and for the conducting thoſe who remain ſound into houſes for quarantain, either to cauſe the doors and windows of the aforeſaid houſes to be faſtened up, or to burn them if he judge it neceſſary.

As there are few places where the inhabitants finding themſelves blocked up, do not attempt by force to open themſelves paſſage and recover liberty, it is proper to cauſe orders to be publiſhed and affixed, forbidding any on pain of death to ſtir out of the places blocked up; and if, notwithſtanding ſuch prohibition, any preparations be made to force the blockade, the officer who commands is not to heſitate a moment, but to advance with the beſt of his men, having their bayonets at the muzzles of their pieces, in ſight of the places blocked up, and threaten the inhabitants to burn their houſes and goods, and to put them all to the ſword, if they offer to make any ſuch attempt; yet without firing upon them, unleſs it be very proper, and in caſe of neceſſity.

If by accident ſome of the inhabitants ſhould eſcape the watchfulneſs of the guards, they muſt, whitherſoever they go, be purſued and taken with precaution, ſo as that they may not communicate the infection; and being brought back within their own bounds, they ſhall be ſhot dead in the view of their fellow-townſmen: an example abſolutely neceſſary for keeping them under due reſtraint.

Within the extent of the blockade, two barriers are to be fixed at the neareſt places, for furniſhing the inhabitants of the place blocked up with what they may want, on ſettled days of the week. A prudent officer ſhould be placed at each barrier with a detachment, to prevent communication; and there muſt be vinegar there, in which the money is to be dipped, as well as all letters, which are to be ſent open, and not under cover, or folded up.

All dogs and cats are to be killed, as well within as without the blockade, for a league diſtance at leaſt; experience having ſhewn, that though thoſe animals are not affected with the diſtemper, they frequently communicate it.

No perſons muſt be ſuffered to come to the poſts of guard at the blockade, to ſpeak to any whomſoever, that being to be permitted only at the barriers; otherwiſe great inconveniencies may happen.

The commanding officers ſhall forbid, on pain of death, the troops who form the blockade to advance ten foot from the line towards the place which is blocked up; and ſhall order the guards at the poſts to fire upon their comrades who ſhall tranſgreſs this rule. This precaution is abſolutely neceſſary for preventing the communication of the ſoldiers with the infected places.

It is of great importance, that five or ſix leagues round the places infected, all the towns, villages, and cottages ſhould be ſhut up, were it only with ditches, and that there ſhould be no entrance but at one paſſage only, where a barrier ſhould be placed with a good guard, to examine paſſengers, their baggage or goods, and peruſe the bills of health, which they ought to carry about them. As to this incloſing or ſhutting up of ſuch towns and villages, all that is poſſibly practicable ought to be done.

The bills of health ought to contain the particulars, quantity, and quality of the movable baggage or merchandize, which the perſons preſenting ſuch bills have with them; and if they have any thing found with them, beſides what is ſpecified therein, the ſame ſhall be burnt without remiſſion, and the bearers of ſuch bills ſhall be put into priſon for ſome time, and be liable to greater puniſhment, according to the degree and conſequences of their offence.

The commanding officers ſhall warn the conſuls, or other municipal officers, not to give bills of health, eſpecially in the caſe of removing from uſual habitation, but to ſuch perſons only whom they are very ſure of, and they ſhall be careful to ſtop all thoſe who ſhall be ſuſpected of having counterfeit bills; and if any one ſo ſtopped ſhall make his eſcape, they ſhall cauſe him to be purſued, and when taken, ſhot dead.

The ſaid commanding officers ſhall take care to ſend to the officers at the barrier of the blockade, a liſt of the current price of each ſort of proviſions, or other commodities, with order to cauſe them to be delivered at thoſe rates, for the avoiding the exactions to which the inhabitants of places blocked up are expoſed. But this article ought to be executed with great prudence and circumſpection, leſt the neighbours ſhould be diſcouraged from bringing ſupplies to the barriers; it being better to let goods be ſold a little dearer, to places ſhut up, than to put them to the riſque of wanting them. The chief officers ought alſo to be very careful to chuſe in the places infected, ſome perſon capable of commanding there, with a number of armed men who may be depended upon, to ſee the orders of the municipal officers executed, and to give all encouragement to the latter, to acquit themſelves well of their duty, by animating them even by promiſes of rewards from court, upon the repreſentations which thoſe commanding officers will ſend thither of their conduct.

Within the places infected, the firſt care of the commanding officers and of the municipal officers, ſhould be to eſtabliſh one or more infirmaries, according to the neceſſities and the abilities of the place infected, they ought to chuſe as much as is poſſible for this uſe houſes ſeparate and diſtant from the place, and ſee even whether they cannot ſet up barracks for receiving the ſick, which many think is much the better method.

Whatever place is choſen for an infirmary, care muſt be taken to cauſe the ſick to be carried thither, upon the firſt tokens of the plague that appear upon them.

It is neceſſary beſides to have other houſes, ſome of which ſhould be appointed for receiving thoſe who grow well, as ſoon as they are in a condition to be removed thither: and others for thoſe who tended the ſick, or who ſtaid with them, to perform quarantain in.

The houſes which ſhall be appointed for theſe two uſes ſhould alſo be choſen at ſome diſtance from the other houſes of the places infected.

When a rich perſon is carried to the infirmary, his quilts and ſheets ſhould be carried thither with him, and the ſtraw-mats and bed-cloths, the wearing apparel and linnen which were uſed about the body of the ſick, muſt be burnt, it not being ſufficient to ſteep and waſh them with wood-aſhes, which in ſeveral places has not prevented the communicating of the contagion by ſuch linnen.

At the time the ſick are carried into the infirmaries, care muſt be taken to have their houſes perfumed with a ſtrong perfume, then to ſet open the windows, and keep the door faſt forty days, after which it muſt be perfumed again, in the ordinary manner, for it's thorough diſinfection, before any be permitted to dwell in it.

To theſe directions is annexed the receipt of a perfume which has been uſed in Provence with ſucceſs.

It is neceſſary to have a number of men that can be depended on, always armed, to make thoſe who bury the dead do their duty, and to hinder all communication with ſuſpected houſes, to ſhoot dead any employed in the infirmaries, buriers of the dead, or private perſons, and even women, who ſhall ſteal or hide the bed-clothes or apparel of thoſe infected with the plague. It is alſo neceſſary to have in the infirmaries honeſt perſons for intendants, whoſe great care ought to be to cauſe the bed-clothes and apparel of thoſe brought thither to be burnt, but to ſave their quilts and ſheets, which may ſerve other infected patients. The community is to make good to the owners, if poor, the apparel burnt, if in a condition to do it; if not, it muſt be endeavoured to be made up by charity and alms, which ought in an eſpecial manner to be applied to this uſe.

It has been practiſed with ſucceſs in Provence, to pay to private perſons the price of the bed-clothes or apparel they brought in, or which they gave an account of to the pariſh-prieſts; without which method it is almoſt impoſſible to ſtop the progreſs of the contagion, becauſe there are always ſuch things in the hands of ſome miſerable creatures, who will ſell them, tho' at never ſo ſmall a price, to others; the charge of purchaſing whatever ſhall be produced is inconſiderable, and will be a very great good.

The Biſhops ſhall be deſired to give order, that divine ſervice may not be performed in the churches, becauſe of the danger of the communication, but in places quite open to the air, or in the field. No aſſembly, or concourſe of people of what kind ſoever is to be ſuffered during the continuance of the contagion, nor till a long time after it has ceaſed.

By concert with the Biſhops and pariſh-prieſts, convenient places ſhall be appointed for interring the bodies of thoſe who die of the plague; the pits for them muſt be twelve feet deep at leaſt; and care muſt be taken to have lime to throw into thoſe pits, in a ſufficient quantity, for conſuming thoſe bodies.

The ſhops of mercers, drapers, and others dealing in goods ſuſceptible of contagion, are to be kept ſhut as long as it laſts, and till ſufficient means have been uſed afterwards for their intire diſinfection by perfuming: but the ſhops of thoſe who ſell the neceſſary proviſions to ſupport life, and whoſe houſes are not ſuſpected, are to be open.

Whereas the phyſicians and ſurgeons do often withdraw themſelves, or will not attend the ſick, if they cannot be brought to their duty by motives of religion and honour, or by the promiſe of a reaſonable gratuity, they muſt be compelled to it, in caſe of neceſſity, by the fear of a death more certain and more ſpeedy than that they would avoid.

Thoſe who command without the infected places ought eſpecially to be very active in procuring them all neceſſary ſupplies for their ſubſiſtence; and if thoſe places want money to buy ſufficient proviſions, they are to give notice to the Commander in chief, or to the Intendant of the province, who ſhall oblige the neighbouring communities, that are able, to advance money to them, which they ſhall be afterwards reimburſed; and as ſome communities, eſpecially in ſuch a time as this, are not able to purchaſe what is neceſſary for furniſhing their infirmaries, in that caſe the private perſons of ſubſtance in thoſe places ſhall be obliged to advance the ſum neceſſary, according to a tax which ſhall be laid on them by the municipal officers, who ſhall promiſe in the name of the communities to reimburſe thoſe private perſons.

As to the appointing and furniſhing of infirmaries, it muſt not be delayed till the places are actually viſited with the contagious diſtemper, but the places in the neighbourhood of thoſe which are infected muſt be obliged to have their infirmaries ready in caſe of accident; for which purpoſe there muſt be collected from the inhabitants, ſuch a number of ſtraw-mats, quilts, and ſheets, as each can furniſh, allowing them to ſet their marks on them, to the end each may have again what he contributed, in caſe the diſtemper ſhould not come into the place; or that the ſame may be made good by the community, if the contagion ſhould enter, and if afterwards it ſhould be neceſſary to burn what was lent for the uſe of the infirmaries.

Thoſe who ſhall be cured of the plague ſhall not be at liberty to converſe with the other inhabitants of the place, till after they have performed two quarantains, and till after they have been perfumed more than once, and had in general all they wore about them burnt.

The fines, which may often be levied for breach of orders not deſerving death, ſhall be applied to the uſe of the poor of the place; and probably the beſt uſe that money can be put to, will be to buy them clothes, inſtead of thoſe which ſhall have been burnt.

A compoſition for the plague.

The compoſition of the perfume (recommended in the directions to be obſerved by order of the government of France, with relation to the plague) is as follows:

To make a quintal (or hundred weight) of perfume, take common brimſtone, gun-powder, of each fifteen pounds; pitch, reſin, black pitch, of each ſeven pounds and an half; white arſenick, orpiment, cinnabar, antimony, realgal (or red arſenick) of each half a pound; in the want of realgal put four ounces of red precipitate; ivy berries, juniper berries, of each fourteen pounds; the ſaid berries to be roaſted, and the whole to be reduced to a very fine powder, and to be well mixed together: for the body and baſis of this perfume take twenty-five pounds of bran dried, in which the forementioned ingredients are to be mixed; the perſon that mixes them, with a long wooden ſpatula, ſhould be muffled in ſuch a manner, that he may not draw in the duſt with his breath. For perfuming a chamber of fifteen foot ſquare uſe one pound and a half of the perfume, and for larger or leſſer chambers, the doſe muſt be in proportion.

The method of perfuming is this; all the windows muſt be cloſed, the chimnies ſtopt, and generally all holes by which wind and air might penetrate; the cloſets, preſſes, cabinets, and trunks are to be ſet open; the other houſhold-ſtuff to remain in it's uſual ſituation: then a whiſp of hay of three or four pound weight, is to be laid in the midſt of the floor, the doſe of perfume is to be ſpread upon it, and the perſon, who ſets it on fire, is to retire out of the chamber as quick as he can, faſtening the door after him. Care muſt be taken, if wearing apparel, which is not ſuſpected, be found in infected houſes, that they be hung up upon pegs, or otherwiſe, that they may thoroughly receive the perfume; and great care muſt be taken to ſecure the doors, and ſtop up the chimnies and holes in ſuch a manner that the ſmoak may not get out.

Twenty-four hours after the windows may be ſet open, and all the openings unſtopped, and the chamber be left airing for three days before any one lie in it.

For perfuming perſons, the ſame compoſition of brimſtone, gun-powder, pitch, reſin, ivy-berries, juniper-berries, and bran is to be uſed; leaving out all the arſenicks and the antimony. The quantity or doſe for a perſon may be one third leſs than that above ſpecified for a chamber.

It muſt be acknowledged, that the meaſures taken by the Court of France to prevent the ſpreading of the plague, were of infinite ſervice to the northern provinces of the kingdom; for though it continued a year and half in Provence and Languedoc, and diſtroyed vaſt multitudes of people there, (eſpecially at Marſeilles and Toulon) it never reached further. People generally look upon the plague as an extraordinary judgment of heaven; though it is evidently the ſenſe of all the kingdoms of Europe, that it may be ſpread or avoided by human means, or they would not oblige perſons coming from places infected to perform quarantaine. The ſame may be ſaid in this caſe of drawing lines of circumvallation about the places infected, and uſing ſuch other precautions as we ſee the French did, which certainly prevented the ſpreading of the contagion. And indeed, though we all allow that heaven can inflict diſeaſes whenever it ſees fit; yet on the other hand it muſt be granted, that they may ſometimes be avoided and removed, and frequently are, by human means; or to what purpoſe is the profeſſion of phyſick?

But notwithſtanding the drawing lines, and compelling people to remain in places infected, removing a wealthy man from his family, and burning his houſe and effects, are methods practiſed in arbitrary governments, a law to authorize theſe rigorous proceedings may be very dangerous in a land of liberty; for under this pretence, (allowing the Court to be judges of the neceſſity of putting them in practice) how precarious muſt ſuch a law render the lives, liberties, and properties of the ſubject? Better one generation ſuffer by the plague, than their whole poſterity be reduced to a ſtate of ſlavery, and be plagued for ever after.

The parliament oppoſe the tyranny of the Duke of Orleans.

They are baniſhed to Pontoiſe.

The miſeries of France inexpreſſible.

The peſtilence itſelf does not ſeem more intolerable than the acts of tyranny and oppreſſion committed during the adminiſtration of the late Duke of Orleans. The Parliament of Paris, to their eternal honour be it ſpoken, conſtantly oppoſed the Miſſiſſippi project, and the reſt of his deſtructive ſchemes: they had wiſdom enough to ſee through them, and reſolution to refuſe the regiſtring ſuch edicts as evidently tended to the ruin of their fellow-ſubjects. The Duke-Regent hereupon aſſembled an army of forty-five thouſand men, and quartered them in Paris and the neigbourhood of that city, in order to keep the parliament in awe; and being ſtill apprehenſive of an inſurrection, he ordered that high court to remove to Pontoiſe, a town about ſix leagues from Paris, on Pain of their being declared rebels; which order they were obliged to comply with, and here they remained a conſiderable time. And to mortify them ſtill more, the Regent erected a new tribunal to regiſter edicts, and adminiſter juſtice during the vacation or receſs of the parliament, with the ſame powers as the parliament uſed to exerciſe. In the mean time the miſeries of the people were inexpreſſible, as appears from ſome paſſages in a letter from the Biſhop of Caſtres to the Marquis of Vrilliere, Secretary of State; in which he acquaints him with the reaſons that hindered the people of his dioceſe, from contributing to the relief of thoſe countries afflicted with the plague, ſo largely as otherwiſe they would have done.

‘Notwithſtanding my utmoſt endeavours, my whole dioceſe has raiſed no more than one hundred piſtoles in money, and five thouſand livres in bills and other paper-effects, the inundation of which has done us an inconceivable miſchief: here is no more trade, no more confidence; even the moſt prudent and diligent have no way left to ſubſiſt: the decay of trade has rendred even induſtry it ſelf inſignificant and uſeleſs: want of truſt breaks all friendſhip, and makes men cautious of lending their money to their friends and neareſt relations, tho' formerly they parted with it chearfully to ſtrangers. Charity itſelf, which always contrives methods of doing good, has her hands tied, ſince there is now no other way left her, than to weep with thoſe that deſpair of ever having their tears wiped away. I daily expect to ſee my clergy ſo far reduced, that they will not be able to exerciſe their functions; and the poor nuns wanting the relief their friends uſed to give them, will be obliged to leave their cloyſters to ſeek for bread. There is nothing of an hyperbole in what I ſay, it is the ſimple naked truth, ſo that I find it impoſſible to execute the orders of his Royal Highneſs ſucceſsfully. If the people would ſtill be ſatisfied with bank-bills, and other paper-ſecurities, they may have enough of them, but we have no money left.’

Stock-jobbers obliged to refund their ill-gotten goods.

Amidſt the many misfortunes that France underwent at this time, the people were infinitely pleaſed with one act of juſtice of the Regent's, which was the erecting a court to enquire what perſons had got eſtates by ſtock-jobbing in the Miſſiſſippi adventure, and obliging them to refund, whereby he acquired a prodigious ſum of money. And indeed whoever were loſers by that variety of projects which were ſet on foot at that time, the gentlemen in the adminiſtration were always ſure to be gainers. And this occaſioned ſome other courts, no doubt, to take the hint, and follow the ſteps of the French, as far at leaſt as their reſpective conſtitutions would admit.

The French King marries the Infanta.

A match being propoſed between the moſt Chriſtian King LEWIS XV, and MARIA-ANNA-VICTORIA, Infanta of Spain, his Majeſty declared his aſſent to it in council on the 17th of September N. S. tho' this Princeſs was then but in the fourth year of her age, being born the 31ſt of March 1718. This, 'tis generally ſaid, was another project of the Duke Regent's, to eſtabliſh the ſucceſſion in his own family; for if the King had died without iſſue, the Duke of Orleans or his poſterity would have inherited the crown of France. But to proceed: Were we to judge of the condition of this kingdom from the vaſt preparations that were made to receive the Infanta, or by the ſplendor of the Court at the audience of the Turkiſh Ambaſſador about the ſame time, we might eſteem France one of the richeſt and happieſt countries in Europe. The King's robes were covered with diamonds and precious ſtones at that audience, to the value of twenty-five millions, and weighed thirty-five or forty pounds weight: all the Princes of the blood, and great officers of the crown, were clothed in the richeſt habits; and in the great gallery were placed three hundred ladies of the firſt quality, who dazzled the eyes of the ſpectators with the brightneſs of their jewels and other ornaments: no cries of the miſerable could reach theſe happy ſeats: the wretched ſtarving people, whoſe ſpoils had contributed to render the Court thus glorious and reſplendent, were driven far from hence. No foreigner could imagine, from the gaiety of the court, that the ſubjects in general were labouring under the moſt exquiſite calamities, as beyond contradiction they were, if the above-cited relations may be credited: there is no making an eſtimate conſequently of the happineſs of a people, from the ſhining appearance of a Court and it's immediate dependants.

At the ſame time the marriage was agreed on between his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty and the Infanta, another was concluded between the Prince of the Aſturias, eldeſt ſon of Spain, and Madam DE

Montpensier, daughter to the Duke of Orleans; and the two Princeſſes were exchanged in the iſle of Pheaſants, on the frontiers of France and Spain, the ninth of January 1721-2; and on the ſecond of March following the Infanta made her publick entry into Paris, where ſhe was received with all the honours the Court of France could pay to the young Queen.

1722. State bills worth little or nothing.

The finances were ſtill in a wretched condition; the ſtate-bills which the government had iſſued out were at 75 per Cent. diſcount, and not long after became worth little or nothing, the miniſtry iſſuing an order for their liquidation, as 'twas called; that is, they reduced them as low as they pleaſed; a perſon that had an hundred pounds due to him by a ſtate-bill, was obliged to take another bill in lieu of it for five pounds or leſs: and thus the debts of the crown, which were ſaid to be ſo great in one of the King's declarations, that they could not be computed by arithmetick, were reduced to a very moderate ſum; a method of paying of debts that ſome other countries poſſibly may be obliged to imitate, who mortgaged their revenues to maintain their Confederates in the late war.

Marſhal Villeroy diſplaced.

The Duke-Regent thought fit about this time to diſplace Marſhal Villeroy, Governor to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, and to put the Duke of Charoſt in his room, and ſome days after communicated his reaſons for it to the foreign miniſters; the ſubſtance of which were, that the Marſhal had inſinuated things to the diſadvantage of his Royal Highneſs; that he refuſed to retire when the Regent came to talk with his Majeſty in private; and that the Marſhal aimed at rendering himſelf independent of the Regency. The Cardinal du Bois was immediately afterwards conſtituted Prime Miniſter; and on the twenty-fifth of October the King was crowned at Rheims, at which ceremony the Infanta-Queen was not preſent, but remained at the palace of Verſailles.

1723. A new ſect.

A new ſect of fanaticks were diſcovered at Montpelier in the year 1723, of whom ſome were condemned to death, others impriſoned, and ſome ſent to the gallies. The government gave a very imperfect account of their principles, or the reaſons of theſe ſevere proceedings againſt them: they relate only, that the civil magiſtrate being aſſiſted by a guard of ſoldiers, broke open the doors where theſe people were aſſembled, and that a man dreſſed in a white ſurplice demanded of the officers in a big magiſterial voice, what they would have; to which the Provoſt made no anſwer, but knocked him down: That another of them on his knees, holding a book in his hand, cryed out to the ſoldiers, Reverence the word of God: that ſeveral more of them being dreſſed in albs or ſurplices, the commanding officer aſked one of the congregation who they were, and was anſwered, they were the Levites of the Holy Ghoſt: and as they were pulling down their ſanctuary, one of them ſaid, Cauſe thy ſoldiers to deſiſt, and ſuffer them not to deſtroy the temple of the Holy Ghoſt. The number of theſe fanaticks was about four hundred, and aſſembled in a room adjoining to their ſanctuary, in which there was a large pulpit, that they called the pulpit of Elias: over-againſt it was a bay-tree in a large vaſe, with bottles of water, wine, and brandy, and near the vaſe a loaf of bread, full of ſugar-plumbs and almonds, a large picture repreſenting Moses with the tables of the law, a fountain to baptize in, ſtreamers full of inſcriptions, alluding equally to love and religion, and in the middle of the ſanctuary a large lamp. This ſect began about the firſt of January 1721-2, as appears by an inſcription on one of their tables, on which are written theſe words; 'Behold, the time is come when all men ſhall be equal; the poor ſhall be as the rich, and the rich as the poor. God has at length manifeſted his will by his ſpirit. His will is, that men ſhould learn to pray of women.' And in another inſcription; 'The kingdom of God the Father was firſt; thencame that of God the Son; at preſent 'tis the reign of the Holy Ghoſt; and 'tis by women only that the ſpirit can communicate itſelf to men.' They met regularly on Saturday nights, and continued their aſſemblies till Monday at break of day. They adminiſtered a kind of communion, and heard a ſermon; after which (if they are not miſrepreſented) the lights were put out, and the preacher cried aloud, Go increaſe and multiply: the women were in common, every man matched himſelf as he could, and they were married by the preacher before they left the aſſembly; but theſe contracts were no longer binding then both parties pleaſed, ſome of them, 'tis ſaid, had changed their huſbands ſeveral times. But whether theſe people were not miſrepreſented in many things by their proſecutors, who were bigotted Roman Catholicks, I find is made a queſtion.

On the tenth of Auguſt, N. S. died William du Bois, Cardinal-Prieſt, Archbiſhop and Duke of Cambray, Prince of the Empire, principal and prime Miniſter of State, Secretary of State for foreign affairs, firſt Preſident of the general aſſembly of the clergy of France, &c. and formerly Preceptor to the Duke of Orleans, upon whoſe death his Royal Highneſs took upon him the adminiſtration of affairs of ſtate, and acted as Prime Miniſter.

A fever in French Flanders taken for the plague.

The inhabitants of French Flanders being viſited with a fever the latter end of this ſummer, which carried off great numbers of them, it was immediately given out to be the plague, that diſtemper having lately raged in the ſouthern parts of France, and ſeveral people, 'tis ſaid, died at firſt of the fright; but the Court ſending down phyſicians to examine into the nature of the diſeaſe, they found it no more than a fever, which tho' it appeared dangerous, they obſerved might very eaſily be cured, where people did not give way to fear, nor let blood after the ſymptoms were manifeſt. The patients alſo were adviſed not to provoke or hinder ſweating, or to drink wine, brandy, beer, or any ſpirituous liquors; but they were allowed ſmall beer, barley-water, or broth made of chickens, veal, or mutton, after having ſkimmed off the fat. Thoſe that obſerved this regimen, generally recovered.

The King reſerves penſions out of the biſhopricks.

The King having nominated ſeveral Biſhops and Abbots to the vacant benefices in France this year, was pleaſed to reſerve conſiderable penſions out of them; particularly out of the Archbiſhoprick of Cambray, a penſion of two thouſand livres, payable to the Baron of Rocheplate, a Brigadier of the army, and a penſion of fifteen hundred livres to the Chevalier de Herbouville: which is a way of gratifying the creatures of the court and army that our Princes have not yet hit upon.

Duke of Orleans dies, and the Duke of Bourbon made Prime Miniſter.

On the ſecond of December, N. S. died of an apoplectick fit, the Regent of France, Philip Duke of Orleans, Valois, Chartres, Nemours, and Montpenſier. He was the ſon of Philip Duke of Orleans, brother of Lewis XIV, and of

Madam Elizabeth-Charlotte of Bavaria. He married Maria-Franciſca, a baſe daughter of Lewis XIV, whom that Prince had legitimated; by whom he had iſſue the Duke of Chartres, now Duke of Orleans, born the fourth of Auguſt 1703, and four daughters. The Duke of Bourbon coming to court the very moment the late Duke of Orleans expired, obtained the office of Prime Miniſter of his Majeſty, and his letters patent were ſigned the day following, and regiſtered in Parliament on the fourth of December: ſoon after which, the Duke of Villeroy, the King's governor, who had been diſmiſſed by the late Duke of Orleans, was ſent for to court.

Philip King of Spain reſigns his crown to his ſon.

In January following, anno 1723-24, his Catholick Majeſty, Philip V, made an abſolute renunciation of the crown of Spain, in favour of Don Lewis, Prince of the Aſturias, having determined to retire with the Queen his conſort to the palace of St Ildefonſo, there to devote the remainder of his days to the ſervice of God and the care of his ſoul. He wrote at the ſame time to the moſt Chriſtian King and the Duke of Bourbon, to acquaint them with his reſolution, and aſſure them of a continuance of his friendſhip, and of the Prince of Aſturias, whom he had appointed to ſucceed him.

The congreſs of Cambray opened.

The inveſtiture of Tuſcany and Parma granted to Don Carlos.

The ſo-much-talked-of congreſs of Cambray, where moſt of the Princes of Europe had their Plenipotentiaries, in order to explain or ſupply what was thought defective in the treaty of Utrecht, was opened on the 26th of January, N. S. 1723; the Imperial miniſters having two days before delivered to the miniſters of Spain, purſuant to the quadruple alliance, the original act of inveſtiture for the duchies of Tuſcany, Parma, and Placentia, in favour of Don Carlos, ſon to the preſent Queen of Spain.

The value of the coin reduced.

1724.

The people of France were very little bettered by the change of the miniſtry, which happened on the death of the late Duke of Orleans. The Duke of Bourbon found himſelf under a neceſſity of lowering the coin, in order to revive their foreign trade: to this end an arret was publiſhed on the 4th of January for reducing the Lewis d'Or, which was then current at 27 livres, to 24, and the other ſpecies of gold and ſilver proportionably. By this means the butchers, bakers, and other retalers of proviſion, who had any quantity of ſpecie by them, became very great ſufferers; and expecting another reduction, they refuſed to part with their goods but at extravagant prices. The magiſtrates of Paris hereupon ſent for the heads of the ſeveral trading companies, and commanded them to ſell their goods at a moderate rate; but were anſwered, that they could not, becauſe a ſecond reduction of the coin was daily expected, by which they ſhould probably loſe as much as they had done by the firſt. The government thereupon licenſed other tradeſmen who were not free of the city, to ſell fleſh and other neceſſaries at more moderate rates, whereby they brought down the price of fleſh from fifteen pence to ſeven pence a pound, and other things in proportion. But this exaſperated the trading companies in Paris, eſpecially when they found their fears were but too juſt; for in April 1724, the government again reduced the Lewis d'Or from twenty-four to twenty livres, and other ſpecies in proportion. This uncertainty in the value of the coin occaſioned a perfect ſtagnation of trade, no body caring to part with their goods till the value of money was fixed, and abundance of people were reduced to a ſtarving condition; murders and robberies were frequent in the ſtreets of Paris, nor could any thing have prevented a general inſurrection, but the drawing of great bodies of regular forces together to keep the people in awe.

The clergy at variance about the Conſtitution.

The Proteſtants perſecuted.

The clergy at the ſame time were engaged in a kind of civil war about the Conſtitution Unigenitus, and ſeemed to agree in nothing but the perſecution of their Proteſtant brethren, which was carried on with the utmoſt fury in all parts of the kingdom. The young King was prevailed on to publiſh edict after edict, to cauſe the penal laws to be executed upon that unhappy people; in the preamble to one of which he is made to ſay, *That of all the great deſigns which his great-grandfather* Lewis XIV *formed during the courſe of his reign, there was none he had more at heart to purſue and ſee executed, than that of extinguiſhing hereſy out of his kingdom.*

Paris, like London, increaſing every day in it's extent, by the numerous buildings added to it, the government thought fit this year to publiſh a declaration for fixing the limits of it. The Court ſeemed determined alſo to compel the Biſhops and Clergy of France to accept the Conſtitution Unigenitus; for an arret was publiſhed againſt the Biſhop of Montpelier, the famous anti-conſtitutioner, confiſcating his temporalties, and declaring his benefices vacant. With ſuch rage did the clergy proſecute each other for they knew not what, the controverſy being chiefly about grace and free-will, which perhaps will never be ſettled as long as the world ſtands.

Lewis King of Spain dies.

Lewis, the young King of Spain, died on the 31ſt of Auguſt of the ſmall-pox, after a reign of ſeven months and ſome odd days, whereupon his father Philip V was prevailed on by his ſubjects to reſume the government; and it was agreed that the young Queen-dowager, daughter of the late Duke of Orleans, ſhould return to France and enjoy her dowry there, (which amounted to 500,000 livres) in purſuance of the marriage-articles.

The French King ſends back the Infanta.

The French Court conſidering that his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty could not poſſibly have any iſſue by the Infanta of Spain in many years, determined to ſend that Princeſs home, and marry his Majeſty to one of riper years. Accordingly, on the 22d of March 1724-5, the King of Spain received a letter from the King of France, wherein his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty expreſſed the great concern he was under upon his ſeparation from the Infanta; but ſaid, that a King being born for his ſubjects rather than himſelf, he could not excuſe himſelf from yielding to the ſtrong ſollicitations of all his States to marry forthwith, that he might have iſſue, and thereby prevent the troubles and revolutions which might happen in the kingdom if he ſhould die before the Infanta (who was but ſeven years of age) was marriageable.

1725.

And marries the daughter of King Stanislaus.

The King and Quen of Spain were not a little piqued at this conduct of the French, and having received advice that the Infanta ſet out from Verſailles to return to Madrid on the fifth of April, they ſent back Madamoiſelle de Beaujolois, daughter of the late Duke of Orleans, who had been contracted to Don Carlos, with her ſiſter the Dowager-Queen of Spain, and theſe Princeſſes were exchanged on the frontiers of France and Spain about the middle of May following on the Infanta's arrival there; whereupon his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty declared, that he had determined to marry the Princeſs Mary Leczinski, daughter of King Stanislaus; and the marriage was celebrated firſt by proxy at Straſburgh, and afterwards

wards in perſon by their Majeſties on the fifth of September 1725; the conſequence of which was an alliance between Spain and the Emperor, afterwards called the Vienna Alliance: for the Spaniards were ſo provoked at ſending back the Infanta, that they refuſed the Emperor nothing he demanded; there was now no further need of a congreſs at Cambray to decide their differences: and had the Britiſh miniſters laid hold of the ſame favourable juncture, probably they might have obtained what terms they pleaſed of Spain.

The Vienna alliance.

By the Vienna treaty, after confirming the quadruple alliance, and the reciprocal renunciations of the parties to the Spaniſh territories in their reſpective poſſeſſions, the Emperor granted the inveſtiture of the duchies of Tuſcany and Parma in favour of Don CARLOS, the Queen of Spain's ſon: then they guaranteed their ſeveral dominions, engaged reciprocally to favour the commerce of each other's ſubjects, and particularly his Imperial Majeſty's ſubjects were permitted to import merchandizes from the Eaſt-Indies to Spain; and all other powers were to be admitted into this alliance who deſired it within the term of a year. Beſides which, 'twas given out there were ſome ſecret articles to the prejudice of France, Britain, and the States-General; at leaſt Britain was ſo apprehenſive of ſomething of this nature, that ſhe loſt all the glorious advantages ſhe might otherwiſe have obtained at this time, by cultivating a good correſpondence with Spain, and entered into an alliance with France, a nation whoſe friendſhip has ever been fatal to her. The King of Pruſſia and the States-General alſo became parties to the treaty; but by their future conduct, 'tis evident they never intended to concur with France and Britain in all the meaſures they had concerted. This obtained the name of the Hanover Alliance, having been concluded there on the 3d of September 1725.

The Hanover alliance.

By this alliance the contracting parties guarantee to each other their reſpective dominions and territories, rights and privileges, eſpecially thoſe in relation to trade: and it was agreed, that if any of the parties ſhould be attacked or moleſted in any of the aboveſaid particulars, that then the other powers, within two months after demand, ſhould furniſh the following ſuccours, viz. Britain 3000 foot and 4000 horſe, France 8000 foot and 4000 horſe, Pruſſia 3000 foot and 2000 horſe, or an equivalent in ſhipping or money; one thouſand foot to be valued at 10000 Dutch florins per month, and a thouſand horſe at 30000 florins per month: and in caſe of neceſſity the ſaid allies ſhould aſſiſt each other with all their forces, and declare war againſt the aggreſſor.

They engage alſo to enter into no alliance with any other power, but in concert with the parties hereto, and to communicate all propoſals which ſhall be made to any of them on that head.

By a ſeparate article, their Britiſh and Pruſſian Majeſties, as members of the Empire, agree not to furniſh their contingent of troops in caſe of a war with the Empire.

In the mean time the court of France continued every year to increaſe their taxes, tho' the nation was in full peace, and amongſt the reſt a tax of two per Cent. was laid upon all real and perſonal eſtates, and even upon thoſe who had money in the funds, which extended to the clergy and nobility; in the preamble to the declaration for levying of which tax it is recited, that the King within the compaſs of ſeven years, viz. from 1716 to 1723, by raiſing the value of the coin, and new ſtamping it, had gained upwards of three hundred and fifty-three millions of livres; and in the years 1719 and 1720, by the royal bank notes which had been iſſued by the government, (and never paid) above three millions of millions; and that notwithſtanding theſe prodigious profits, the crown was ſtill ſo far in debt, that it paid fifty-one millions of livres annually for intereſt-money, tho' that intereſt was but two per Cent.

The debts of France, and the methods of paying them.

The parliament forced to record the King's edicts.

There were ſeveral other edicts and declarations read on his Majeſty's coming to the parliament the eighth of June, which being very long, the firſt Preſident deſired they might deliberate upon them before they paſſed that aſſembly; but the King, as had been uſual in the late tyrannical adminiſtrations, required them to be regiſtered immediately without any debate; which was done accordingly, the members being ſenſible it would be to no purpoſe longer to oppoſe it: but thus much muſt be ſaid to the honour of thoſe gentlemen, that tho' it has not for many years been in their power to reſiſt the force put upon them, they have ſo far maintained their character, as to deliver their opinions againſt moſt of the deſtructive ſchemes that have been introduced ſince the loſs of their liberties: and notwithſtanding that vaſt body of troops which the French maintain in conſtant pay to keep things quiet, ſuch has been the oppreſſion of the people, that there have been frequent tumults and inſurrections of late years in this kingdom, particularly in Paris and Rouen, which are never without numerous garriſons, or bodies of forces in their neighbourhood; there were two inſurrections this very year on account of the extravagant rates of proviſions, occaſioned by the frequent alterations in the value of the coin, &c. Bread was generally ſold at eight and ten pence the pound, and other proviſions proportionably at this time.

The parliament of Britany repreſent the diſtreſſes the nation is under, occaſioned by the taxes, &c.

The general aſſembly of the clergy, and moſt of the parliaments of France, made their repreſentations to the throne, againſt the various taxes and oppeſſions which were the occaſion of this general diſtreſs, but none with more freedom than the parliament of Britany: they tell his Majeſty, that under the calamities of the two laſt long wars, they had liberally and chearfully made a ſacrifice of their lives and fortunes, in hopes that at the end of the wars they ſhould likewiſe ſee an end of their miſeries; but tho' the peace they had ſo much longed for came at laſt, and they had enjoyed it now twelve years, bitter was the fruit they gathered from it. Many of the beſt families were ruined by paper-money, a new project introduced in oppoſition to the remonſtrances of all his parliaments, and the nation groaned under the ill effects of it at that day: That the capitation-tax was ſtill levied, tho' it was introduced only as an extraordinary reſource in time of war, and was to ceaſe as ſoon as the peace was made.

The tenth penny was only taken off in part, and inſtead of it four pence was laid on every livre, which was a fifth part of their revenues.

That the frequent alteration of the coin had deſtroyed all confidence, and the laſt diminution of it's value alone had leſſened the ſubject's caſh almoſt one half.

The dearth and ſcarcity of the laſt three years, had reduced the people to a miſerable condition, and under theſe diſmal circumſtances, when they expected ſome alleviation of their miſeries, a new tax was impoſed.

That the ſtrength of the State conſiſted in trade and agriculture, and the ſubjects of France were acknowledged to be extremely laborious: where they had a proſpect of ſmall gain, they would undergo any hardſhip or fatigue without reluctance; but where no profit was to be had, and nothing to be got by the ſweat of their brows, they would de diſcouraged and dejected. The antient furrows in the untilled grounds, which made up one half of their lands, ſeemed to reproach the preſent generation with ſloth; but it was their great miſfortune, not their fault. They groaned under the burthen of ſo many duties and taxes, that they thought it to no purpoſe to labour or cultivate the earth, but for the neceſſary ſupport of life; and trade, which was of no leſs importance, eſpecially in that province, was perfectly at a ſtand, for want of credit and money to ſupport it. For theſe, and many other motives equally perſuaſive, they deſire his Majeſty to look upon them with an eye of compaſſion, &c.

The Court force the acceptation of the bull Unigenitus.

The forcing the acceptation of the bull Unigenitus, occaſioned alſo great diſturbances among the clergy and religious orders, ſeveral of whom were impriſoned, baniſhed, and their goods confiſcated for oppoſing it. Even the Abbeſs DE CHELLES, daughter to the late Duke of Orleans, was cenſured for proteſting againſt it; but ſhe perſevered in her opinion, and let her perſecutors know, that ſhe ſhould think herſelf happy to ſuffer with ſo vaſt a number of innocent people as had been ruined for purſuing the dictates of their conſciences. But the ſtorm ſeems to have fallen hardeſt upon the Carthuſian friars, who were many of them obliged to become refugees in Holland this year, for refuſing to accept the Conſtitution.

1726.

It was expected that this year would have produced a war between the allies of Hanover and thoſe of Vienna: France, and moſt of the powers of Europe, augmented their forces, and ſeemed prepared to take the field; but no hoſtile attempt was made till the ſiege of Gibraltar was formed in the month of February 1726-7, unleſs his Britiſh Majeſty's ſending a ſquadron of men of war this ſummer to lie upon the coaſts of Spain, and another to block up the galleons at Porto-Bello, may be reckoned ſuch, as the Spaniards inſiſted.

The French King takes the government into his hands.

Cardinal FLEURY firſt miniſter.

In the mean time his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty thought fit to ſuppreſs the office of prime miniſter, and take the reins of government into his own hands; whereupon the Duke of Bourbon was diſmiſſed, and the King made choice of the old Biſhop of Frejus to aſſiſt him in the adminiſtration of affairs. The advancement of this Prelate in the French court ſoon after procured him a Cardinal's cap, and he has been ſince known by the title of Cardinal DE FLEURY. 'Tis ſaid that the moſt Chriſtian King, in order to ſhew how acceptable this promotion was to him, publiſhed the declaration in favour of the Conſtitution Unigenitus, whereby he requires it to be accepted throughout the kingdom, and obſerved as a law equally binding both to church and ſtate.

The foreſt of Fontainbleau takes fire.

A fire broke out in the foreſt of Fontainbleau in the month of September this year, by ſome unknown accident, which continued burning twelve days together, and conſumed an hundred and twenty acres of wood, and three hundred acres of broom, and was ſtopped with difficulty at laſt by the French and Swiſs guards and country-people, who dug a trench of three leagues in length to prevent the ſpreading of it.

1727. Siege of Gibraltar.

The French give no aſſiſtance to the Engliſh in this war.

The moſt remarkable occurrence which happened in Europe in the year 1727, was the ſiege of Gibraltar by the Spaniards, when the King of Great Britain ſeemed to expect, that by virtue of the Hanover treaty, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty ſhould have attacked Spain on the ſide of Catalonia, and obliged them to have withdrawn their forces from before that place. But notwithſtanding this boaſted alliance with the French, they ſuffered his Britiſh Majeſty to bear the whole charges of the war alone by ſea and land: and tho', it is true, the Engliſh fleet ſuffered very little from that of the Spaniards while it lay before Porto Bello, yet the ſhips were moſt of them rotted or eaten up by the worm, and their whole crews, both officers and ſoldiers, periſhed by ſickneſs; according to ſome advice, ſeveral ſhips were re-manned more than once: and why the French and Dutch ſhould not have had their ſhare in this deſtructive expedition as well as Britain, I believe poſterity will ſcarce be able to diſcover. As to the French indeed, 'tis ſaid they had engaged that Gibraltar ſhould be delivered up to the Spaniard, and obtained a promiſe from his Britiſh Majeſty to that end. They were alſo concerned in point of intereſt that it ſhould remain in the hands of the Spaniards, who were in no condition to obſtruct their paſſage through the ſtreights, as the Engliſh might in caſe of a rupture between the two nations. But admitting theſe particulars to be true, why did Britain then enter into ſuch a forced and unnatural alliance with France? Could they ever expect to ſee that Court ſo complaiſant as to act contrary to their intereſts, and the engagements they had already entered into with Spain? If they did, 'tis evident they were deceived; for notwithſtanding the frequent advices we received from time to time that the French were aſſembling an army to attack Spain, we do not find any one motion of their troops that tended that way; they choſe rather to act the part of mediators, and in effect became umpires of the differences between Britain, Spain, and the Emperor. We received at length preliminary articles of peace from France, ſuch as the miniſtry there were pleaſed to preſcribe.

Preliminary articles of peace between the Emperor, Spain, France, Britain, &c.

Theſe articles were dated at Paris the laſt of May 1727, the moſt material whereof were, that the Emperor ſhould ſuſpend the commerce between Oſtend and the Eaſt-Indies for ſeven years: that the privileges of commerce of the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, ſhould be reſtored them: that immediately after ſigning the articles all hoſtilities ſhould ceaſe, and with reſpect to Spain, within eight days after his Catholick Majeſty ſhould receive them: that within four months a congreſs ſhould be formed at Aix la Chapelle, where the rights and pretenſions of the ſeveral powers ſhould be examined and diſcuſſed.

King GEORGE dies.

Soon after the ſigning of theſe articles, viz. in the night of the tenth of June 1727, GEORGE King of Great Britain died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon GEORGE the Second: but this event occaſioned no alteration, either in the miniſtry or meaſures concerted in that kingdom. Some few days after the ſiege of Gibraltar was raiſed, in purſuance of the preliminary articles above-mentioned, and Europe once more reſtored to a ſtate of peace.

The Queen delivered of two Princeſſes.

Te Deum was ſung at the cathedral of Notre-dame in Paris on the 17th of Auguſt for the birth of two Princeſſes, of which the Queen was delivered on the 14th inſtant; but the joy had been much greater at court had a Dauphin been born; and indeed, their hearts were ſo ſet upon a ſon, that they could not conceal their chagrin at the diſappointment. The King in his letter to the Archbiſhop of Paris on this occaſion, deſires his prayers that he may be bleſſed with a Dauphin the next time the Queen lies in.

The validity of orders in the Church of England aſſerted.

A book having been publiſhed by Father LE COURAYER, to ſhew the validity of ordinations in the Church of England, was about this time cenſured by the Cardinal DE NOAILLES, Archbiſhop of Paris, as containing a doctrine falſe, erroneous, ſcandalous, injurious to the Church and Holy See, and favouring hereſy, ſchiſm, &c. The moſt Chriſtian King alſo iſſued an arret, dated the 7th of September 1727, requiring the ſaid books to be ſuppreſſed, and that all perſons who had them ſhould bring them to the Regiſter's office of the Lieutenant-General of the police, under ſevere penalties.

1728.

A congreſs having been agreed upon to be held at Cambray, in order to treat of a general peace among the Princes of Europe, the Cardinal DE FLEURY, who was now become umpire of their differences, prevailed with them that it might be held at Soiſſons. The Cardinal, it ſeems, did not care to truſt theſe negotiations to the conduct of any but himſelf, and at the ſame time was equally afraid to leave his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty in the hands of other miniſters. The opening of the congreſs had been delayed almoſt a year, on account of ſome difficulties which had ariſen between Britain and Spain, concerning the true ſenſe of the preliminary articles; but at length an act was ſigned at the Court of Spain, dated the ſixth of March 1727-8, for the due execution of them by the Miniſters of the ſaid powers; the ſubſtance whereof was, that his Britiſh Majeſty ſhould forthwith ſend orders to his Admirals WAGER and HOSIER, or thoſe who commanded in their ſtead, to withdraw from the ſeas of Spain and the Weſt-Indies. That the counterbands, and other complaints of that kind made by the Spaniards in relation to the Prince Frederick, ſhould be decided in the enſuing congreſs; as alſo whether the prizes taken by both parties at ſea ſhould be reſtored. His Catholick Majeſty, on the other hand, promiſed to raiſe the blockade of Gibraltar, and level the works before it; to ſend orders for delivering up the ſhip Prince Frederick and it's cargo to the Engliſh South-ſea company, and to reſtore the commerce of the Engliſh according to the Aſſiento-treaty. To cauſe the effects of the flotilla to be diſtributed, and thoſe of the galleons when returned. And laſtly, that his Catholick Majeſty, as well as his Britiſh Majeſty, would abide by the deciſions of the future congreſs.

Diſputes about the preliminary articles agreed.

Congreſs of Soiſſons opened.

The much-expected Congreſs was at length opened at Soiſſons on the 14th of June 1728, when the ſeveral miniſters produced their full powers from their reſpective maſters, viz. thoſe of the Emperor, Britain, France, Spain, and the States-General. His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, that he might not be too far removed from his Prime Miniſter Cardinal FLEURY during theſe negotiations, came with his court from Verſailles to Compeigne, which is not more than thirteen or fourteen miles from Soiſſons, from whence the Cardinal might eaſily come to court when he pleaſed in two hours time: but it ſoon appearing that this congreſs was like to have no better ſucceſs than one of the ſame kind held not many years ſince at Cambray, the French Court returned to Verſailles on the firſt of July, where Cardinal FLEURY alſo arrived about the ſame time, and was followed thither by moſt of the miniſters plenipotentiaries.

While the King remained at Compeigne, as he was hunting in the foreſt there, his horſe ſtarted on a bridge, whereupon his Majeſty threw himſelf off, and received no manner of hurt; and, according to the French writers, he did not betray the leaſt emotion or concern on the occaſion. Thoſe about him were no leſs charmed with the courage and preſence of mind he had ſhewn, than they had been ſurprized and terrified juſt before at the accident; though it is not to be doubted, if he had behaved himſelf ever ſo meanly, his courtiers would have given it a favourable turn. Little truth is to be expected where a ſlave or dependant relates the actions of his prince or patron, who has his fortunes in his power.

The Queen delivered of another daughter.

On the 28th of July the Queen was delivered of another Princeſs, to the great mortification of the Court of France, who had put up their prayers for a Dauphin ever ſince the laſt lying-in. The hailſtorms and unſeaſonable weather which deſtroyed the corn and other fruits of the earth in ſeveral parts of the kingdom this year, was another very great misfortune, and obliged his Majeſty to make conſiderable abatements in the Taille, or land-tax, which the natives were in no condition to pay.

The Archbiſhop of Paris accepts the Conſtitution abſolutely.

The Court of France appearing determined to compel the acceptation of the bull Unigenitus, the Cardinal DE NOAILLES, Archbiſhop of Paris, who had long oppoſed it, and could never be brought to accept it hitherto, but upon certain conditions, thought fit at this time to accept it abſolutely; and to declare further, that he would proſecute all thoſe who ſhould preſume to ſpeak, teach, preach, or write againſt the ſaid Conſtitution, or diſſuade the clergy from the obedience they owed to it.

The Queen offers up her prayers for a Dauphin.

As the Queen of France had been twice diſappointed in her expectations of a Dauphin, ſhe determined to offer up her devotions in the metropolitan church of Paris, dedicated to the bleſſed Virgin, for better ſucceſs in her next accouchement: accordingly on the ninth of October ſhe came to that cathedral, and being met by the Cardinal DE NOAILLES, Archbiſhop of Paris, in his pontifical habit, at the head of his canons at the church-door, that Prelate made the following ſpeech to her on the occaſion, which is thus rendered into Engliſh:

‘ On this memorable and ſolemn day, when ‘ your Majeſty gives ſo ſignal a teſtimony of your ‘ piety and devotion, the miniſters of the Lord ‘ are bound in juſtice to give to this innumerable ‘ multitude which ſurrounds your Majeſty on ‘ all ſides, an example of the joy, affection, re‘ſpect, and veneration your ſacred preſence in‘ſpires us with; what ſatisfaction for me that ‘ I can ſtill be the interpreter of their ſentiments, ‘ and eye-witneſs of the homage which your Ma‘jeſty is going to pay to the Almighty in this ‘ holy temple.

‘ Come, Madam, to the foot of his altar, and ‘ even into his ſanctuary, and implore the inter‘ceſſion of that holy Virgin whoſe ſuccour and ‘ protection always proved favourable to our Kings. ‘ Beg of her, without heſitation, that precious gift ‘ which is the object of our moſt ardent vows, on ‘ which depends the happineſs of the King, ‘ the comfort of your Majeſty, the tranquillity of ‘ France, and the quiet of all Europe.

‘All things may be obtained by faith; and this day we may ſay with confidence to your Majeſty, what formerly was ſaid to that holy woman who was ſo earneſtly praying to God for a ſon, Depart in peace, and may the God of Iſrael grant the juſt deſire your heart has conceived.’

The King was taken ill of the ſmall-pox the twenty-fifth of the ſame month, but had them ſo favourably, that it was attended with no ill conſequences: his Majeſty was in a condition to go abroad again the beginning of November.

Leave having been obtained of the Grand Signior, to tranſcribe the manuſcripts in his library at Conſtantinople, whether Greek, Latin, Arabian, Turkiſh, or Perſian; his Majeſty ſent the Abbots SEVIN and TOURMONT, of the academy of inſcriptions, to Turkey, to copy ſuch of them as they apprehended to be of the moſt importance.

A ſevere winter in France.

The winter was very ſevere in France this year, which, with the ſcarcity of proviſions, reduced the people to great diſtreſs, eſpecially in and about Paris; but they were in ſome meaſure relieved by the generoſity of the King and the Nobility, who diſtributed large ſums among the poor. In the mean time the ſnow was frozen ſo hard, that ſledges were become the common diverſion of the Court, as in more northern countries; and notwithſtanding the poverty and diſtreſs of the peaſants and inferior ſort of people, the nobility and grandees never made a more glorious figure than in theſe amuſements: they were uſually cloathed in black velvet, ſet thick with ſparkling diamonds, when they were drawn in their ſledges on the ſnow.

1729.

A peace concluded between Spain and England.

Great part of the year 1729 was taken up in fruitleſs conferences at Soiſſons, Paris, &c. to ſettle the differences between Great Britain and Spain; though ſome are of opinion that the French, who pretended to act the part of mediators, never ſincerely deſired to ſee them accommodated. The Spaniards however were at length induced to abandon their great confederate the Emperor, and enter into a ſeparate treaty with the allies of Hanover, on their engaging to ſecure the reverſion of Tuſcany and Parma to Don CARLOS, by introducing immediately Spaniſh troops into thoſe duchies This was ſtrenuouſly oppoſed by the Emperor, as directly contrary to the quadruple alliance. But what will be the conſequence of this treaty, muſt be the ſubject of future Hiſtory; no man living can divine at preſent. I proceed therefore to ſuch other particulars as may beſt tend to illuſtrate the preſent ſtate of France.

CHAP. XXXV.

Treats of the civil government of France.

The civil government.

Parliaments.

Parliament of Paris.

THE legiſlative, as well as executive power in France, is veſted ſolely in the King: his edicts are of the force of acts of parliament with us, and he appoints the judges and officers who are to put them in execution. Nothing of conſequence in relation to the ſtate was formerly decreed or enacted, but by the conſent of the three eſtates, conſiſting of the repreſentatives of the clergy, the nobility and third eſtate; but theſe aſſemblies are entirely laid aſide, and have never been convened ſince the year 1614. The courts wherein juſtice is now uſually adminiſtred are, 1. Their parliaments, which are the laſt reſort where the court does not interpoſe; but it appears by the preceding hiſtory, that ſtate-criminals, of what rank ſoever, are frequently tryed by judges or commiſſioners nominated on purpoſe by the Court; and that the privilege the Peers of France antiently claimed of being tried only in parliament, is in a manner aboliſhed, for which they are chiefly indebted to the adminiſtrations of the Cardinals RICHLIEU and MAZARIN. The King has alſo his intendants in every government of the kingdom, who are veſted with an almoſt unlimited authority, though the original deſign of appointing theſe officers ſeems to have been to ſuperintend the King's revenues and treaſure only. But to return to the courts of parliament, they are fifteen in number, viz. 1. That of Paris. 2. Thoulouſe. 3. Rouen. 4. Grenoble. 5. Bourdeaux. 6. Dijon. 7. Aix. 8. Rennes or Vannes. 9. Pau. 10. Beſançon. 11. Mets. 12. Doway. 13. Perpignan or Rouſſillon. 14. Arras. And, 15. That of Alſace, held at Colmar or Straſburgh. Theſe parliaments conſiſt of a certain number of preſidents and inferior judges, who purchaſe their places either of the crown, or of thoſe who are in poſſeſſion of them; for all magiſtrates and officers of juſtice in France purchaſe their places openly, and the government make a conſiderable revenue by theſe ſales. They enjoy their poſts for life, unleſs they have been guilty of ſome notorious crime in the exerciſe of their offices. The parliament of Paris is much the moſt conſiderable of the kingdom, for hither the King frequently comes in perſon, and here his royal edicts are recorded and promulged, till when they have not the force of laws. But from many repeated inſtances of late, we learn that he will not ſuffer the parliament to deliberate and debate on the ſubject of his edicts, as they were uſed to do before they regiſtered them, but obliges them to do it without entring into the merits of the caſe. This parliament alſo is held in the higheſt eſteem, as it is compoſed of the Princes of the blood, Dukes and Peers of France, beſides the ordinary judges, and takes cognizance of all offences committed by Peers, where the court does not interpoſe, and iſſue a ſpecial commiſſion for that end.

The parliament of Paris had antiently under it's juriſdiction, the duchies of Burgundy, Normandy, Guienne, and Britany, and the counties of Flanders and Thoulouſe; whereupon it is evident, that the parliaments of Dijon, Rouen, Bourdeaux, Rennes, Flanders, and Thoulouſe, have been diſmembered from that of Paris. At preſent it's juriſdiction extends over the Iſle of France, la Beauce, Sologne, Berry, Auvergne, Lyonnois, le Forets, and Beaujolois, Nivernois, Bourbonnois, Anjou, Angoumois, Picardy Champaigne, la Brie, Maine, Perche, Tourain, Poitou, Aunis, and Rochelois.

The Princes of the blood have a ſeat and voice in this parliament at the age of fifteen, and the Peers of France at twenty-five; with this difference, that the Princes of the blood enter as of right, but the Peers cannot ſit there till they have taken an oath of fidelity, and ſworn to do juſtice to poor and rich, to obſerve the rules of the court, and keep their deliberations ſecret. Affairs which concern the perſons of Peers, their eſtates and rights of peerage, ought to be determined in the grand chamber of the parliament of Paris in the firſt inſtance, for which reaſon it is called the parliament of the Peers: and they take cognizance in the grand chamber alſo of the regalia, and ſuch things as concern the crown and the King's demeſns, excluſively of the reſt of the parliaments of France.

This parliament conſiſts of ten chief preſidents, ſome honorary counſellors or judges, four maſters of requeſts of the houſhold, of one and twenty preſidents a mortier, ſo called from the faſhion of their caps, and of two hundred and thirty-two other counſellors or judges, an attorney-general, advocates, ſollicitors-generals, regiſters, notaries, ſecretaries, &c. Theſe members are diſtributed into, 1. The grand chamber. 2. Five chambers of enqueſts. And, 3. Two of requeſts. The grand chamber is compoſed of ten preſidents, the honorary counſellors, the four miniſters of requeſts of the King's houſe, and of thirty-three counſellors or judges, viz. twenty-one lay judges, and twelve excleſiaſticks. Every one of the chambers of enqueſt hath thirty-two counſellors or judges. In the firſt chamber of requeſts there are fourteen, and in the ſecond, fifteen. Beſides theſe eight chambers, there is another called the Tournelle, which takes cognizance of criminal matters where the nobility are not concerned, for theſe are tried, as has been obſerved already, in the grand chamber; it conſiſts of five preſidents, ten counſellors of the grand chamber, who ſerve ſix months by turns, and of two counſellors from each of the chambers of enqueſts, who ſerve alſo three months by turns; from whence 'tis ſaid to have obtained the name of Tournelle. In the chambers of enqueſt, depoſitions of witneſſes are taken, and the proceedings are by way of bill and anſwer, as in the court of Chancery in England; and the chambers of requeſt take cognizance of cauſes relating to privileged perſons.

On days of ceremony the preſidents of the parliament wear a ſcarlet robe, with a mantle lined with ermins, and a black velvet cap bordered with gold lace, in the faſhion of a mortar, that of the chief preſident's being diſtinguiſhed by a double gold lace: the honorary counſellors, the maſters of requeſts, the preſidents of inqueſts and requeſts, the attorney, and ſollicitors general, have ſcarlet robes and caps bordered with ermins; the chief regiſter for civil cauſes, has a ſcarlet robe and mantle lined with ermins; the chief regiſter for criminal cauſes, the four notaries and clerks, or ſecretaries of parliament, have alſo ſcarlet robes and caps lined with ermins; the advocates have black gowns and caps, and all the reſt of the officers black gowns.

The reſt of the parliaments of the kingdom have their reſpective diſtricts, and are divided into chambers or houſes, among which the ſeveral branches of buſineſs are diſtributed, as in that of Paris; only they are excluded from taking cognizance of any cauſes which relate to the crown or the Peers of the realm. The King's edicts alſo are regiſtred in theſe parliaments before they have the force of laws in their reſpective diſtricts.

The chambers of accounts.

The courts of aids.

Beſides the parliaments of France, there are ſeveral other ſupreme courts for particular branches of buſineſs, as the chambers of accounts, eſtabliſhed in ſeveral parts of the kingdom, and the courts of aid. The chambers of accounts are held at Paris, Rouen, Dijon, Nantz, Montpelier, Grenoble, Aix, Pau, Blois, Liſle, Aire, and Dole. This court adminiſters the oath of fealty to the Archbiſhops, Biſhops, Abbots, &c. examines the accounts of the treaſury; receives the homage of the vaſſals of the crown; records treaties of peace, and other contracts and grants of the crown. The courts of aids are eſtabliſhed at Paris, Montpelier, Rouen, Clermont, Montferraud, Bourdeaux, Aix, Grenoble, and Dijon. Theſe courts are the laſt reſort in all cauſes relating to the taxes and revenues of the crown.

The court of money.

There is alſo a court called the court of money, which is the laſt reſort in all cauſes concerning the coin, metals, mines, weights, and the officers and artificers employed in the mints.

The court of the waters and foreſts.

Another ſupreme court is that of the waters and foreſts, which takes cognizance of all offences committed in the King's foreſts, woods, and waters; and alſo of all controverſies between private perſons relating to their woods, warrens, rivers, iſlands, mills, fiſheries, chaſes, &c.

To form a juſt notion of their inferior courts of juſtice, it will be neceſſary to obſerve how juſtice was adminiſtered antiently. The Franks as well as the Romans, we find, eſtabliſhed Counts or Earls, in all the cities and great towns of the kingdom, who were the governors and judges in thoſe places, and the territories belonging to them: theſe conſtituted Viſcounts, who adminiſtered juſtice in their abſence. In leſſer towns and diſtricts there were inferior magiſtrates called Vicars, and under them, ſtill leſſer officers called Centeniers, *Centenarii*, as their juriſdiction extended over no more than an hundred families. Theſe were all at firſt but temporary magiſtrates: the Count was appointed by the King, and he nominated the Viſcounts, Vicars, and Centeniers under him. The courts of juſtice of theſe Counts were called Malls, and the aſſeſſors and judges, he called to his aſſiſtance, Rachimburges, of whom he uſually had ſeven. The Duke was eſteemed an officer ſuperior to the Count, but had much the ſame juriſdiction. The King alſo held a court in his palace from time to time, to determine matters of the greateſt importance, calling the Dukes, Earls, Biſhops, Abbots, and other great Lords to his aſſiſtance.

Under the firſt race of Kings, great eſtates were given to the church, whereupon the Prelates, who were poſſeſſed of large fees, committed the adminiſtration of juſtice in their territories to officers called Vidames.

Under the ſecond family of their Kings, the Counts, Viſcounts, Vidames, Vicars, and Centeniers, continued to adminiſter juſtice in the provinces; but the King from time to time deputed commiſſaries, to hear the complaints of the people, and reverſe unjuſt ſentences: theſe were generally Biſhops, Abbots, or Counts. The commiſſaries appointed Eſchevins or Aldermen in towns, choſen by the aſſent and approbation of the people, in the room of Rachimburges, who had been aſſeſſors to the Counts during the firſt race. Theſe were ordinarily ſeven, and ſometimes twelve; and when there was a vacancy, it was ſupplied out of the principal inhabitants.

Towards the end of the ſecond race, the Dukes, Earls, and Viſcounts, aſſumed the dominion of thoſe territories, which they held before but as Governors or Deputies of the Prince. That uſurpation was confirmed to them in the beginning of the third race, and the King had only the counties of Paris and Orleans left him, beſides ſome demeſnes in the other duchies and counties. He then adminiſtered juſtice at Orleans and Paris, by his Viſcounts, and every year deputed officers into the other provinces, to hear the complaints of his immediate ſubjects; and theſe Deputies were called Bailiffs, becauſe to them was bailed or given the protection or guardianſhip of the ſubject, though in ſome provinces they were called Seneſchaux, or ſtewards.

The King however continued ſtill to take cognizance of affairs of the higheſt nature; to which end he convened aſſemblies of the grandees, and theſe were called Parliaments, the grandees that conſtituted them being ſtiled Barons of the kingdom, and afterwards Peers of France; they were either Biſhops, Dukes, or Earls, great vaſſals holding immediately of the crown: and to theſe the King added other members learned in the laws, who were ſtiled Maitres du Parlement.

A little before the reign of PHILIP-AUGUSTUS, Provoſts were eſtabliſhed, who were ſubſtitutes to the Bailiffs. The great Lords, who had uſurped the inheritance of the ſeveral provinces of which they were at firſt but governors, imitated the King in the appointment of their courts and officers of juſtice; they had their great councils, bailiffs, ſtewards, &c. in their reſpective territories; but inſtead of the office of Vicar, that of Caſtellan was introduced, to whom the adminiſtration of juſtice was committed in caſtles and the diſtricts belonging to them, afterwards called chatellanies. The counties of Champaigne and Poitou had each of them ſeven Peers or Barons, who ſat with their Earl in his great council; but generally the reſt of the counties had but four apiece: and this was the original of Peers and Barons in the provinces.

The Bailiffs and Seneſchals finding buſineſs increaſe upon their hands, ſubſtituted Lieutenants, who were gentlemen learned in the law, to aſſiſt them. At firſt their office continued only a year, as the Bailiffs did, but at length both of them became hereditary in their families. Theſe were however always accountable to the high court of Parliament, which at firſt followed the Court, and was afterwards fixed at Paris; and when the diſtant provinces became re-united to the crown, for the eaſe of the ſubject ſeveral parliaments were erected in other parts of the kingdom, to whom the people might appeal from thoſe inferior courts, as has been intimated already.

The Bailiffs, Seneſchals, Provoſts, Caſtellans, or their ſubſtitutes, are ſtill judges of the inferior courts in the country; and in towns, the Provoſt and Eſchevines, or Mayor and Aldermen, as in our corporations, to which they have added a judge of the police, who takes cognizance of ſome ſpecial criminal caſes. But they differ from us in this very material point, that their trials are not by juries in any of their courts; the Bailiff, Seneſchal, &c. with their reſpective aſſeſſors, are judges both of the law and fact.

The civil law generally prevails in France, beſides which every province and diſtrict has it's particular cuſtoms; but the King's edicts, ordinances, declarations and arrets, (for by all theſe names are their acts of ſtate called) repeal and alter any of them at pleaſure, the legiſlative authority being veſted ſolely in the Prince.

Generalties or Intendancies.

Beſides the courts and officers of juſtice abovementioned, France is divided into twenty-five generalties, every one whereof hath an Intendant, on whom the King ſeems to rely for the due adminiſtration of juſtice, both civil and criminal, and the ordering of his finances or revenues, more than on any other officers in the kingdom, and to whom all the reſt are in a manner ſubordinate. They are uſually members of parliament, and of that body that are ſtiled maſters of requeſts.

Preſidial courts.

There are alſo preſidial courts eſtabliſhed in moſt great towns, who have cognizance of civil cauſes in the firſt inſtance, and receive appeals from the bailiwicks and inferior courts, where the ſum in diſpute does not amount to more than 500 livres, or twenty livres per annum.

The great councils for ſtate-affairs.

I come next to inquire into the great councils by which all affairs of ſtate are governed, which are ſix in number. 1. The council of ſtate. 2. The council of finances. 3. The council of diſpatches, or that of the Secretaries of ſtate. 4. The privy council. 5. The council of conſcience. And, 6. The council of commerce.

1. The council of ſtate, conſiſting of the King, the Chancellor, and Miniſters of State, which forms foreign alliances, determines peace and war, and the moſt important affairs of the kingdom, being at preſent the ſupreme council.

2. The council of finances, which has the direction of the royal revenues, eſtabliſhed in the year 1661, on ſuppreſſing the office of ſuper-intendant of the finances.

3. The council of diſpatches, which tranſacts affairs relating to the reſpective provinces, as commiſſions and orders to the Governors, Commandants, and other officers of the provinces and towns.

4. The privy-council, which ſeems to meet only for form ſake at preſent, the buſineſs being tranſacted in a cabinet-council.

5. The council of conſcience, conſiſting of the King's Confeſſor, and ſome Eccleſiaſticks, who apprize the King of the ſtate of religion, and attend when he nominates to biſhopricks and abbies.

6. The council of commerce, held at the eldeſt counſellor's of ſtate, and conſiſts of the Secretary for marine affairs, the Comptroller-General of the finances, ſeveral other Counſellors of ſtate, ſix Maſters of requeſts, who have been Intendants of commerce, and of the Deputies of twelve trading towns.

The great officers of the crown.

The great officers of the crown are, the Chancellor, who peſides in all courts and councils of ſtate in the King's abſence; the Keeper of the Seals, four Secretaries of State, the Marſhals of France, the Colonel-General of the Horſe, the great Maſter of the Artillery, the Admiral of France, two Vice-Admirals, the General of the gallies, the four great officers of the order of the Holy Ghoſt, viz. the Chancellor, the Maſter of the Ceremonies, the Great Treaſurer, and the Secretary, the chief Preſidents of the ſeveral parliaments, the Governors and Lieutenant-Generals of the provinces.

The principal officers of the houſhold are, the Great Maſter of the Houſhold, the Great Maſter of the Horſe, the Great Almoner, the Great Chamberlain, the Gentlemen of the Bedchamber, the Great Butler, the Great Huntſman, the four Captains of the guard du corps, and the chief Porter.

CHAP. XXXVI.

Treats of the finances, or revenues of the crown; and of the forces by ſea and land.

Of the finances, or revenues of the crown.

ANtiently there was but one Grand Treaſurer for the kingdom of France, but at preſent there are twenty-five, viz. one for every generalty into which the kingdom is divided. Of theſe there are nineteen in the Pais de elections, as they are called; that is, in thoſe provinces where courts of election are eſtabliſhed, of which there are ſeveral in every generalty; and ſix in the Pais d'etats, that is, in thoſe provinces where the States are ſtill permitted to aſſemble, and ſeemingly to give their conſent to the taxes demanded. The Pais de elections are thoſe of Paris, Amiens, Soiſſons, Chalons, Lyons, Montauban, Bourdeaux, Limoges, Poitiers, Rochelle, Tours, Caen, Alençon, Rouen, Orleans, Bourges, Moulins, Riom, and Auch: and the ſix within the Pais d'etats, are thoſe of Britany, Burgundy, Dauphiné, Provence, Montpelier, and Thoulouſe.

Every generalty is compoſed of ſeveral elections, which comprehend a certain number of pariſhes.

Intendants, their authority.

In every generalty there is an Intendant deputed by the King, who takes cognizance both of civil and criminal cauſes, as well as of the finances, and other matters that concern the publick good and his Majeſty's intereſts; only the generalties of Montpelier and Thoulouſe, which comprehend the province of Languedoc, have but one Intendant; ſo that there are but twenty-four Intendants in the twenty-five generalties. There are however ſix more diſtributed in Flanders, Hainault, Alſace, Metz, Eranche Comte, and Rouſſillon, which makes in all thirty intendancies.

30 intendancies, in which are 38,502 pariſhes.

There are in every generalty two Receivers-general of the finances, who take it by turns annually to receive the taxes of the collectors of the ſeveral pariſhes, and remit them into the royal treaſury or exchequer. The whole number of pariſhes contained in the ſaid thirty general intendancies, amount to thirty-eight thouſand five hundred and two, in which are comprehended one million five hundred eighty-five thouſand one hundred and twelve families, liable to pay the Taille or land-tax.

The ſeveral ſpecies of taxes.

The taxes uſually levied in France, are the taille or land-tax, the taillon, the ſubſiſtence money, the aides, and the gabelles.

The manner of levying the taille or land-tax.

As to the manner of levying the taille, after the King has determined what ſum he will raiſe, an order is iſſued to every generalty, aſcertaining what part of it ſhall be levied in each election. The Intendant, with the two Receivers of the generalty, hereupon viſit every election, and with the officers thereof, aſſign what proportion every pariſh in the election ſhall raiſe, having informed themſelves of the alterations that have happened in the reſpective pariſhes ſince the preceding year. When the tax is ſettled, the intendant ſends a copy of the aſſeſſment to the royal treaſury, and duplicates of the ſums aſſeſſed on every pariſh to the reſpective elections, who tranſmit to the collectors of every pariſh a particular of the ſum to be raiſed by them, with an order to aſſeſs the ſeveral inhabitants according to their conſciencies, in proportion to the lands and goods they poſſeſs. This aſſeſſment or roll is confirmed by an officer of the election, and the tax levied accordingly by the collectors, who tranſmit it to the receivers of the election every quarter, and theſe pay it to the receivers of their generalty; from whence it is either conveyed to the royal treaſury or exchequer, or wherever elſe the government appoints.

The Taille, or land-tax, is only paid by the third eſtate, that is, by tradeſmen, or thoſe that hold by baſe tenures, like our Copyholders in England, called in France *Roturiers*; tho' others affirm, that thoſe that hold in ſocage alſo are included, which are the ſame with our ordinary Freeholders; and this I am inclined to believe from the great numbers there are of them. The Nobleſſe therefore, (that is, the nobility and gentry who hold by knights ſervice) and the clergy are exempted, unleſs in Languedoc, Provence and Dauphiné, where the lands and immovable eſtates only are chargeable. Here the Roturiers or copyholders pay nothing for that part of their eſtates which they hold by knights ſervice; and on the contrary, the gentry pay the Taille for all ſuch eſtates as they hold by baſe tenures, for the Taille is a real and not a perſonal tax there. In all the generalty of Montauban, and in the elections of Agen and Condom, which are in the generalty of Bourdeaux, as alſo in the election of Lanes, belonging to the generalty of Auch, the tax is alſo real, that is, paid for the lands, without any regard to the quality of the perſon who poſſeſſes them: but in every other generalty, the clergy and the gentry are exempt from the Tailles, as well as the officers of the ſuperior courts, and courts of judicature, who are alſo exempted from watch and ward.

The Burgeſſes of Paris, and ſome other free cities, are exempted from the Tailles.

Taillon.

The Taillon was eſtabliſhed by King HENRY II, anno 1549, for augmenting the ſoldiers pay; and is payable by the ſame perſons as the Taille, and amounts to about a third of that tax.

The Subſiſtence is a tax which was firſt levied by LEWIS XIV, for the ſubſiſtence of his armies in their winter-quarters, and is paid in the ſame manner as the Taille.

Aides.

By Aides are underſtood all duties and cuſtoms on goods and merchandizes except ſalt.

Gabelles.

The Gabelles are the taxes ariſing from ſalt. LEWIS the Fourteenth raiſed this duty beyond what it had been in any preceding reigns, dividing the whole kingdom into the great gabelles, the little gabelles, and the countries exempt from gabelles. The country of the great gabelles, where ſalt is ſold at the higheſt price, comprehends the generalties of Paris, Soiſſons, Amiens, Chalons, Orleans, Tours, Moulins, Bourges, Dijon, Rouen, and Caen. The country of the ſmaller gabelles, where ſalt is ſold at a leſs price, comprehends Lyonois, Provence, Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Rouſſillon: and the countries exempt from gabelles are, Poitou, Limouſin, Auvergne, Guienne, Gaſcogne, and Bretagne. In the biſhopricks of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and Franche Comte, the price of ſalt is various. The farmers of the gabelles are obliged to buy their ſalt at the ſalt-pits and bays at a certain price, and to carry it to the ſtore-houſes eſtabliſhed by the King, where it is delivered out to the people. There is one of theſe ſtore-houſes, or greniers of ſalt, in almoſt every great town, which have their directors and other officers belonging to them, who are judges of all offences relating to ſalt, as the making and ſelling it without licence, and not bringing it to the King's ſtore-houſes, &c. They take cognizance alſo of the goodneſs of the ſalt, and of the weights and meaſures, and examine if every family takes ſuch a quantity of ſalt annually as is preſcribed them by the government.

Capitation.

The other taxes are the capitation, or poll-tax, firſt eſtabliſhed in the year 1695, and taken off at the end of that war, but laid on again in the year 1701.

Tenths.

The tenths of all the eſtates of the kingdom was levied by the crown in the year 1710, and affected not only real eſtates, but all offices, employments,

ployments, and commiſſions, which paid proportionably to their annual revenues and incomes; as alſo all money in the funds, or private hands.

50th penpy.

Another tax alſo has been levied of late years, from which neither the clergy or nobility are exempted, called the fiftieth penny, or the fiftieth part of the produce of the earth; againſt which repreſentations have been made by the clergy, and the ſeveral parliaments of the kingdom, but to very little purpoſe.

Tenths and free gifts of the clergy.

The tenths and free gifts of the clergy, who are allowed for the moſt part to tax themſelves, amount alſo to a very conſiderable ſum, they being poſſeſſed of a third part of the lands of the kingdom, and it being expected that they ſhould pay at leaſt as great a proportion of their revenues towards the ſupport of the government, as any other ſubjects.

The demeſns, fines, forfeitures, &c.

Beſides theſe, there is a great revenue ariſing from the crown-lands, and woods, fee-farms, forfeitures, fines, &c. and from the high duties impoſed on all proviſions brought into Paris; all which, are computed to amount to fifteen millions ſterling and upwards, annually to the government; and it is ſuppoſed that the King makes as much ſome years by raiſing the value of the coin, and other oppreſſive ways and means, as by compelling the people to take paper for their money, and then compounding with them to take half, or perhaps a quarter of their reſpective debts, when they come to be paid. And in ſhort, the whole produce of the country is the King's: he takes from the ſubjects what part of their eſtates he ſees fit, and of late years has ſcarce left them a ſubſiſtence for their families.

Coins.

Their coins, real and imaginary, are crowns, livres, ſols, and deniers. 12 deniers make a ſol, or ſou; 20 ſols a livre, or florin; 3 livres, or 60 ſols, make a crown. A French crown is of equal value with 4s. 6d. Engliſh: an Engliſh crown yields in France 65 ſols; a pound ſterling yields 13 livres, and an Engliſh guinea 14 livres. The other monies of France are a double, which is two deniers; a liard, the fourth part of a ſol; pieces of three and a half, and five ſols; the quarter and the half crown; the two livre piece: and of gold, the crown, value five livres 14 ſols; lys de or, value 7 livres ten ſols; the half louis, the whole louis d'or, value 11 livres; double louis, &c.

Of the land forces.

The officers of the land-forces in France, who have the higheſt command in their armies, are the Marſhals, of whom originally there was but one, afterwards there were two; in the reigns of FRANCIS I, and HENRY II, there were four, and under the reigns of LEWIS XIII, and LEWIS XIV, there number was not limited. There were actually in the year 1715, no leſs than fifteen Marſhals of France. They enjoy their offices during their lives, and are deemed officers of the crown. They are judges of points of honour, and have Provoſts or Lieutenants in the provinces, who have a juriſdiction over all vagrants, robbers, incendiaries, aſſaſſins, &c. of which offences they take cognizance, and judge in the laſt reſort.

The Lieutenant-Generals command bodies of forces under the Marſhals; and when they ſerve in the ſame army, every one of them commands his day by turns, according to their ſeniority.

The Marſhals de camp are the next officers to the Lieutenant-Generals. Their buſineſs is to mark out the encampments, to command the van-guard, and reconnoitre the country.

The Brigadiers command a brigade of cavalry or infantry: a brigade of horſe is ten or twelve ſquadrons, and a brigade of foot five or ſix battalions.

The Meſtre-de-camp is an officer that commands a regiment of cavalry, which is compoſed of ſeveral troops, each of which is commanded by a Captain, Lieutenant, and Cornet.

A Colonel commands a regiment of foot, which conſiſts of ſeveral companies, each of them commanded by a Captain and two Lieutenants.

The Dragoons are deemed bodies of infantry, though they ſerve ſometimes on horſe-back, and ſometimes on foot; and the commander of a regiment is ſtiled Colonel.

There was formerly a Colonel-General, who commanded all the infantry; but that office was ſuppreſſed on the death of the Duke of Epernon in 1661.

There is ſtill a Colonel-General of the cavalry, a Meſtre-de-Camp General, and a Commiſſary General, who are ſuperior to the Meſtres-de-camp. The Colonel-General of the Swiſs, commands all the Swiſs troops in the ſervice of France.

The Colonel-General of dragoons, commands all the French dragoons. There is alſo in that body a Meſtre-de-camp General under the Colonel-General.

The armies of France were never ſo numerous as in the reign of LEWIS XIV. In the war which preceded the peace of Utrecht, they amounted to near four hundred thouſand men, and they are not much reduced at preſent. They retain all or moſt of their officers and regiments, and only diſcharge ſome of the private ſoldiers, which they can eaſily replace when they pleaſe; which method has been imitated of late in Britain.

Number of regiments.

The author of the *Deſcription de la France*, publiſhed in the year 1719, ſays, that the infantry conſiſted then of two hundred and ſixty-four regiments, without including the two regiments of the houſhold-troops: that ſome of thoſe regiments conſiſted of four battalions, moſt of them of two, and the reſt of one: that their cavalry was then compoſed of an hundred and ſeven regiments, and the dragoons of thirty-ſix.

Guards.

That the troops of the houſhold conſiſted of ten thouſand men, horſe, and foot, the cavalry comprehending the four companies of the guards de corps, viz. that of the gendarmes of the guards, that of the guard of light-horſe, the muſketeers, and ſixteen companies of gendarmerie, every one whereof conſiſted of ſixty gendarmes, or light horſe.

The infantry of the houſhold comprehends the regiment of French guards, conſiſting of thirty-two companies, every company of an hundred and forty men, without reckoning the officers, and the regiment of Swiſs guards containing twelve companies of two hundred men each. Theſe guards are always placed at the gates and avenues of the palace where the King reſides, the French guards always taking the right of the Swiſs.

The Colonel of the French foot-guards is uſually a Marſhal or Lieutenant-General. The late King, by an edict anno 1691, gave the title and rank of Colonel to the Captains of the guards; and by another edict in 1693, he gave them the rank of Colonels before the Colonels of other regiments created ſince 1691, and the Lieutenants of this regiment command all Captains of infantry.

The grand maſter of the artillery commands all the French artillery, orders the making of gunpowder, and the founding of guns, and has the conduct of that body on marches and ſieges. He commands in the French arſenals, and eſpecially that of Paris. He is always Colonel of the regiment of artillery and bombardiers, and in every army has his lieutenant, who commands the artillery. The Engineers are a body of three hundred men, commanded by the Intendant of the fortifications.

Navy royal and maritime forces.

The maritime forces of France were inconſiderable till the reign of LEWIS XIV; but in the laſt war, ſays my French author, the naval army (the royal navy) of France not only defended itſelf againſt the Engliſh and Dutch, but often beat them: though I believe he cannot give one inſtance of that nature in a general battle; they may have defeated ſome ſingle ſquadrons when they happened to out-number them, but never the grand fleet, either of England or Holland. The Admiral of France is General of the royal navy, and takes cognizance of all offences committed therein; and he conſtitutes the members of the admiralty, who adminiſter juſtice in his name concerning all controverſies at ſea, either relating to war, the fiſheries, or merchandize. He has a right to a tenth of the prizes taken at ſea. The king however at preſent reſerves to himſelf the power of appointing the officers concerned in building and fitting out the fleet, and buying in proviſions and ammunition for the naval magazines and arſenals. The Admirals had formerly a right to wrecks, but LEWIS XIV, by an ordinance in 1681, decreed that they ſhould be reſtored to the owners, if claimed within a year and a day, after charges paid.

Prizes are adjudged by the Admiral and commiſſioners appointed by the King. The Admiral hath under him two Vice-Admirals, who are uſually Marſhals of France, and under them are Lieutenants-general of the royal navy, who have the precedence of the commanders of ſquadrons, and give them orders, which they communicate to the inferior officers. There are uſually four Lieutenant-generals, but in the year 1715 there were five. The commanders of ſquadrons hold the ſame rank as the Marſhals de camp at land; there are at preſent eleven of theſe commanders. The captains of men of war, are the next to the commanders of ſquadrons, and when they ſerve on ſhore have the ſame rank as colonels; and there are actually in France an hundred and ſeventy-one captains of men of war, and fifty-three captains of frigates; and of all kinds of commiſſion officers not leſs than eighteen hundred, without reckoning the commanders of ſquadrons. In time of war there are nine hundred guards marine, diſtributed in three companies, viz. at Toulon, Breſt, and Rochfort, who are gentlemen volunteers, taught navigation and other parts of mathematicks at the King's charge, out of whom the vacant commands are ſupplied. Beſides which, his Majeſty entertains an hundred companies of marines, of an hundred men each, commanded by the lieutenants of the men of war. It appeared in the year 1713, that there were fifty-two thouſand five hundred and fifty-four ſeamen employed in the royal navy, beſides officers, and a vaſt number of workmen in their ports and magazines, employed in making and providing naval ſtores, upwards of twelve thouſand invalids, ten thouſand cabbin-boys, powder-monkeys, &c.

Ports of the royal navy.

The royal navy is diſtributed in the ports of Toulon, Breſt, Port Louis, Rochfort and Havre de Grace, where there are magazines filled with all manner of neceſſaries and ammunition for building and rigging out a fleet; which conſiſted the laſt war in twenty-ſix firſt rates, thirty ſecond rates, forty-ſix third rates, twelve fourth rates, twenty-ſeven light frigates, five bomb-galliots, twenty-two fireſhips, beſides flutes, tenders, &c. The firſt rates being an hundred and ſixty-three feet long, and forty-four foot broad, and carrying from ſeventy to an hundred and twenty guns, and about nine hundred men each. In every port where the King has a magazine, there is an Intendant of the Marine, who takes cognizance of civil and criminal cauſes, and the revenues relating to the ſea-ſervice, and takes care to furniſh the magazines with all manner of ſtores.

Number of men of war.

Intendants of the marine.

Galleys.

The galleys of France are another conſiderable force, of which there are thirty in the port of Marſeilles, and ten more in other ports. The General is independent of the Admiral, and ſtiled General of the galleys, and Lieutenant-General, of the Levant ſeas. He has under him a Lieutenant-General, and five commanders of ſquadrons. The principal galley is called the Reale, on account of the royal ſtandard which it carries, and the General goes on board it. The ſecond galley is called the Patron, in which the Lieutenant-General commands. The Reale and the Patron are larger than the reſt, and have three hundred ſlaves on board each, whereas the other galleys have but two. But beſides the crew, every galley has a company of foot, conſiſting of ſixty men, commanded by the officers of the galley. There is alſo a company of young gentlemen belonging to the galleys, called the guards of the ſtandard, who are inſtructed in navigation at the King's charge, as thoſe of the guards marine are, which belong to the royal navy. There are alſo belonging to the galleys an Intendant, Inſpector, Comptroller, Commiſſary-General, Secretary-General, and two Treaſurers General. The guards of the coaſt are commanded by their proper officers on all the ſhores of the kingdom, but are ſubject to the Admiral of the royal navy. Theſe were inſtituted to prevent any ſurprize from an enemy, who ſhould attempt to invade or harraſs the maritime provinces. They are exempted from ſerving in the ban and arrear-ban, which are the ordinary militia of France, and enjoy many other privileges, on account of their being always in readineſs to prevent a deſcent from a foreign enemy.

CHAP. XXXVII.

Treats of their religion, and the eccleſiaſtical government of France.

Religion.

AS to the religion of the antient Gauls, the firſt eſtabliſhment of the Chriſtian religion in France, the oppoſition made by the Albigenſes to the errors and encroachments of the church of Rome, the introduction of Calviniſm, the toleration of it by the edict of Nantz, the repeals of that edict, the civil wars that happened in this kingdom on account of religion, and the perſecution of the Proteſtants; theſe have been largely treated of in the chapter containing the antient and modern hiſtory of France: there remains therefore nothing more than to conſider the preſent ſtate of religion here.

The eſtabliſhed religion in France is notoriouſly that of the Roman Catholick; but the Gallican church pretends to enjoy greater liberties and privileges, and to be leſs ſubject to the See of Rome, than any other Chriſtian ſtate of that communion, as will appear hereafter. However, we find the nation divided into two great parties, one of them zealous in defending the rights of the Gallican Church againſt the encroachments of Rome, and the other no leſs zealous in aſſerting the Pope's ſupremacy. Of the latter party are the Jeſuits, who at this day ſeem to have the greateſt influence, and to whoſe indefatigable induſtry we may aſcribe the receiving of the Conſtitution Unigenitus, after ſo long and warm a ſtruggle.

Eccleſiaſtical government.

All ſpiritual cauſes are cognizable at this day in their eccleſiaſtical courts, provided they are not intermixed with temporal matters, or concern the ſtate or civil judicatures. On the contrary, all temporal matters, and thoſe which regard the civil government, are ſubject to lay juriſdiction. The Biſhops exerciſe their authority by an official, who ought to be a graduate and a prieſt.

Their Biſhops antiently were not tryed in the temporal courts, even for high-treaſon, but by other Biſhops, or in Parliament, where all the Biſhops aſſiſted; but there are ſeveral inſtances of late years where they have been tryed by lay-judges, or commiſſioners ſpecially appointed for that purpoſe.

And as the Kings of France are no farther ſubject to the laws of the Holy See than they think fit, conſequently all the privileges which the eccleſiaſticks enjoy, they derive from the crown, and theſe may be reſtrained and revoked when his Majeſty ſees proper. To entitle any ſubject of France to the privileges of the clergy, it is neceſſary that he actually be in holy orders, or at leaſt that he has received the tonſure, wears the habit of a clerk, ſerves in the church, and applies himſelf to no buſineſs inconſiſtent with that character.

Privileges of the clergy.

The privileges the clergy of France enjoy, are, 1. That they cannot be brought before any lay-juriſdiction for perſonal matters: on the contrary, they cannot bring laymen before their eccleſiaſtical courts for any cauſe whatever; and in real or mixed actions, the clergy themſelves muſt try their cauſes in the civil courts. 2. The clergy as well as the nobility, are exempted from the tailles, or land-tax. 3. Neither their movables employed in divine ſervice, or neceſſary for their uſe, nor their books to the value of an hundred and fifty livres, can be ſeized. 4. In criminal caſes they may be tryed before the grand chamber, if they deſire it. 5. A perſon in holy orders condemned for any capital crime, may not be executed till he is degraded, unleſs for treaſon or aſſaſſination. 6. They are exempted from quartering ſoldiers. 7. Their perſons cannot be taken in execution in civil actions, unleſs they have been guilty of ſome fraud.

The King nominates to all biſhopricks and abbies, and the Pope afterwards grants his bulls of conſecration, &c. to the Biſhop, provided the party nominated be twenty-ſeven years of age, and a doctor of divinity or law. The age required for abbots and priors is twenty-three. The Pope agreed to the King's nomination of Biſhops, &c. when the Concordat was made at Bologne, in the room of the Pragmatick Sanction; and the King, on the other hand, granted to his Holineſs the annates, or firſt-fruits. But neither Britany, nor the new-conquered country, being comprehended in the Concordat, the King always receives a brief, or indulto, from the Pope, when he nominates to thoſe biſhopricks. Beſides the uſual bulls, the Pope ſends to an Archbiſhop the pallium, which is an ornament they wear when they officiate pontifically, and ſhews their authority over their ſuffragans.

The crown ſeizes the temporalities of all vacant archbiſhopricks and biſhopricks, and this in France is called the Regale. The King has alſo the preſentation of vacant benefices belonging to the biſhopricks, till the oath of fidelity of the ſucceſſor be regiſtred in the chamber of accounts, and he has obtained an order there to take poſſeſſion of it. And the King frequently grant penſions to laymen out of the biſhopricks and abbies.

Liberties of the Gallic Church.

The liberties of the Gallican Church, which my French author makes diſtinct from her privileges, are two. 1. The Pope cannot intermeddle in things relating to temporal affairs in any of the King's dominions; and if he does, the clergy are not bound to obey him. 2. Though the Pope be acknowledged head of the Church in ſpirituals, his power is nevertheleſs bounded in France by canons and antient councils received in the kingdom; for the Gallican Church has always held, that a general council is above the Pope.

Aſſembly of the clergy.

The clergy of France cannot aſſemble without leave of the King: theſe aſſemblies are of two kinds, the one ſtiled general, becauſe it is compoſed of the deputies or repreſentatives of all the eccleſiaſtical provinces; the other private, becauſe it conſiſts only of ſuch prelates as are about Paris, who are called to treat of ſome matter of importance, when there is not time to chuſe and aſſemble the deputies of the provinces.

The general aſſemblies again are divided into ordinary and extraordinary: the extraordinary are called on great emergencies, and the ordinary have their fixed ſtated times, and are held every five years. The ordinary aſſemblies again are divided into great and leſſer; the firſt are called great, becauſe the provinces uſually ſend four deputies to them, two of the higher orders, as Archbiſhops or Biſhops, and two of the inferior orders, as Abbots, Priors, or other beneficed clergymen of the province. The ſecond are called the leſſer aſſemblies, becauſe the provinces ſend but two deputies, one of the firſt order and the other of the ſecond. The great aſſemblies were heretofore called *Decennates*, becauſe they meet but once in ten years, and in the intervals are held the leſſer aſſemblies; for example, if the leſſer aſſembly be held in 1730, the greater will be held in 1735, ſo that there are five years between the one and the other.

The great aſſemblies are held to renew their contract for paying their tenths to his Majeſty, which is in force ten years. The buſineſs of the leſſer is to take the accounts of the Receiver-General: but both the one and the other grant the King a further ſupply, which paſſes under the name of a free-gift, which is levied on all the clergy of France, and is more or leſs, according to the exigencies of the ſtate. There are but ſixteen of the provinces that have a right of ſending their deputies to the ordinary aſſemblies, viz. Aix, Alby, Ambrun, Arles, Auſch, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Lyons, Narbonne, Paris, Rheims, Rouen, Sens, Thoulouſe, Tours, and Vienne. The other provinces were not united to the crown when the firſt contract for tenths was made; but they ſend deputies to the extraordinary aſſemblies, which treat of the general affairs of the church of France, of matters of faith, manners, or diſcipline.

Agents of the clergy.

The clergy of France have always two agents-general, which attend the Court to make their remonſtrances to the King and Council, againſt any edicts or arrets, which appear contrary to the intereſts of the Church, or ſeem to encroach on her juriſdiction, and they are allowed a ſeat in the Council of State and Parliament of Paris for that end. They continue five years in their office, and are named alternately by the provinces. They ought to be prieſts of the province that elect them, and to be poſſeſſed of a benefice that pays tenths, and are allowed each of them a ſalary of ſeven thouſand livres per annum.

The controverſies which happen about the levying the tenths, or other taxes or impoſitions on the clergy, are tried in the courts of the ſeveral dioceſes in the firſt inſtance; but are afterwards frequently brought by way of appeal to ſome of the nine ſuperior eccleſiaſtical courts, eſtabliſhed in ſeveral parts of the kingdom, which are the laſt reſort within their reſpective limits. Theſe ſuperior courts or councils are held at Paris, Rouen, Lyons, Tours, Thoulouſe, Bourges, Bourdeaux, Aix, and Pau. The dioceſan courts aſſeſs and aſſign what proportion every clergyman is to pay towards the tenths, &c. for though they have obtained the name of tenths, the ſum raiſed has been ſometimes more and ſometimes leſs. The ſum which is demanded by way of free gift, is uſually named by the court, and they will not often take much leſs than they aſk.

The kingdom of France contains eighteen Archbiſhopricks, and a hundred thirteen Biſhopricks, viz.

1. The Archbiſhoprick of Aix, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Apt. 2. The Biſhop of Riez. 3. The Biſhop of Frejus. 4. The Biſhop of Gap. 5. The Biſhop of Siſteron.

2. The Archbiſhoprick of Alby, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Caſtres. 2. The Biſhop of Mande. 3. The Biſhop of Cahors. 4. The Biſhop of Rodez. 5. The Biſhop of Vabres.

3. The Archbiſhoprick of Ambrun, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Digne. 2. The Biſhop of Graſſe. 3. The Biſhop of Vence. 4. The Biſhop of Glandeve. 5. The Biſhop of Senez.

4. The Archbiſhoprick of Arles, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Marſeilles. 2. The Biſhop of St Paul trois Chateaux. 3. The Biſhop of Thoulon. 4. The Biſhop of Orange.

5. The Archbiſhoprick of Auch, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Dax, or Acqs. 2. The Biſhop of Laictoure. 3. The Biſhop of Comenge. 4. The Biſhop of Conſerans. 5. The Biſhop of Aire. 6. The Biſhop of Bazas. 7. The Biſhop of Tarbes. 8. The Biſhop of Oleron. 9. The Biſhop of Leſcar. 10. The Biſhop of Bayonne.

6. The Archbiſhoprick of Beſançon, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Belley, &c.

7. The Archbiſhoprick of Bourdeaux, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Agen. 2. The Biſhop of Condom. 3. The Biſhop of Angouleme. 4. The Biſhop of Saintes. 5. The Biſhop of Poitiers. 6. The Biſhop of Rochelle. 7. The Biſhop of Lucon. 8. The Biſhop of Perigueux. 9. The Biſhop of Sarlat.

8. The Archbiſhoprick of Bourges, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Clermont. 2. The Biſhop of St Flour. 3. The Biſhop of Limoges. 4. The Biſhop of Tulles. 5. The Biſhop of Puy.

9. The Archbiſhoprick of Cambray, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Arras. 2. The Biſhop of St Omer. 3. The Biſhop of Tournay. 4. The Biſhop of Ypres.

10. The Archbiſhoprick of Lyons, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Autun. 2. The Biſhop of Langres. 3. The Biſhop of Chalons. 4. The Biſhop of Macon.

11. The Archbiſhoprick of Narbonne, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Beziers. 2. The Biſhop of Agde. 3. The Biſhop of Carcaſſonne. 4. The Biſhop of Niſmes. 5. The Biſhop of Montpelier. 6. The Biſhop of Lodeve. 7. The Biſhop of Uzez. 8. The Biſhop of St Pons de Tomieres. 9. The Biſhop of Alet. 10. The Biſhop of Alais. 11. The Biſhop of Elne, or Perpignan.

12. The Archbiſhoprick of Paris, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Chartres. 2. The Biſhop of Meaux. 3. The Biſhop of Orleans. 4. The Biſhop of Blois.

13. The Archbiſhoprick of Rheims, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Soiſſons. 2. The Biſhop of Chalons ſur Marne. 3. The Biſhop of Laon. 4. The Biſhop of Senlis. 5. The Biſhop of Beauvais. 6. The Biſhop of Amiens. 7. The Biſhop of Noyen. 8. The Biſhop of Bologne.

14. The Archbiſhoprick of Rouen, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Bayeux. 2. The Biſhop of Avranches. 3. The Biſhop of Evreux. 4. The Biſhop of Seez. 5. The Biſhop of Lizieux. 6. The Biſhop of Coutances.

15. The Archbiſhoprick of Sens, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Troyes. 2. The Biſhop of Auxerre. 3. The Biſhop of Nevers. 4. The Biſhop of Bethlem.

16. The Archbiſhoprick of Thoulouſe, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Pamiers. 2. The Biſhop of Montauban. 3. The Biſhop of Mirepoix. 4. The Biſhop of Lavaur. 5. The Biſhop of Rieux. 6. The Biſhop of Lombez. 7. The Biſhop of St Papoul.

17. The Archbiſhoprick of Tours, the ſuffrages whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Mans. 2. The Biſhop of Angers. 3. The Biſhop of Rennes. 4. The Biſhop of Nants. 5. The Biſhop of Vannes. 6. The Biſhop of Cournouailles, or *Quimpercorantim*. 7. The Biſhop of St Paul de Leon. 8. The Biſhop of Treguier. 9. The Biſhop of St Brieux. 10. The Biſhop of St Malo. 11. The Biſhop of Doll.

18. The Archbiſhoprick of Vienne, the ſuffragans whereof are, 1. The Biſhop of Valance. 2. The Biſhop of Die. 3. The Biſhop of Grenoble. 4. The Biſhop of Viviers. 5. The Biſhop of Geneve.

19. The three Biſhopricks are thoſe of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, all ſuffragans to the Archbiſhop of Triers in Germany.

20. The Biſhop of Straſburg, is ſuffragan to the Archbiſhop of Mentz.

21. The Biſhop of Perpignan in Rouſſillon, to the Archbiſhop of Terragona in Spain.

They compute there are about ſeven hundred and fifty abbies of Monks, and two hundred of nuns in France, and about ten thouſand other leſſer convents. That there are in all upwards of two hundred thouſand monks and nuns in the kingdom, and that the revenues of the clergy and religious houſes of all kinds, amounts to twenty-ſix millions ſterling, per annum.

CHAP. XXXVIII.

Treats of the King's ſucceſſion to the crown; of his minority and majority; titles, prerogatives, ornaments, arms, coronation, orders of knighthood; and of the Princes of the blood, nobility, gentry, and commonalty.

Of the ſucceſſion to the crown.

THE French boaſt much of their Salique Law, which limits the ſucceſſion of the crown to the male iſſue: but whether by that law the eldeſt ſon only was to inherit the kingdom, or it was to be divided equally among the ſons, they do not ſeem to inſiſt much upon. If we were to be guided by the cuſtom that prevailed during the two firſt races of their Kings, all the ſons would have an equal right; where the deceaſed King made no diſpoſition or diviſion of his dominions, they were parted of courſe between his male iſſue. LOTHAIRE was the firſt that ſucceeded to the whole monarchy where there were more brothers than one, and this was not till the year 954. But further, notwithſtanding this pretended Salique Law, the Kings of France, when the legiſlative authority was lodged in them ſolely, and the King and States or Parliaments, when the legiſlative authority was veſted in them jointly, have taken upon them to ſet aſide the eldeſt ſon of the preceding King, and fix another upon the throne. As in the caſe of HENRY V, King of England, who having married the daughter of CHARLES VI, King of France, was declared preſumptive heir to the crown of France, to the excluſion of the Dauphin; which ſettlement was approved and ratified by the Parliaments and States of the kingdom, and HENRY VI, King of England, ſon of HENRY V, in purſuance of that ſettlement, was afterwards recognized, and crowned King of France in Paris.

The Regency during a minority.

At this day, according to the French writers, their King never dies; but in that moment the eyes of the preceding King are cloſed, his eldeſt ſon, or in default of male iſſue, the next Prince of the blood ſucceeds to the throne, and is veſted with the ſupreme authority, before he is either anointed or crowned. But where the King is a minor, that is, before he has entered the fourteenth year of his age, the adminiſtration of the government is lodged in a Regent, uſually the Queen-mother, if ſhe ſurvive the deceaſed King, or the firſt Prince of the blood, according as either of them can make intereſt, or influence the parliament of Paris, whoſe determination in this matter is uſually acquieſced in by the reſt of the kingdom. But if the deceaſed King appoints a regent by his will, there is ſeldom any diſpute about the matter.

When the King is become major, or entered into the fourteenth year of his age, he goes in great ſtate to the parliament of Paris, attended by the Princes of the blood, Peers, and great Officers of ſtate, which aſſembly is uſually called his bed of juſtice, and here his majority is declared; notwithſtanding which, the regent frequently procures himſelf to be conſtituted prime miniſter, and under that title continues to govern the kingdom till his Majeſty thinks fit to take the reins of government into his own hands. There have been inſtances where the prime miniſter has continued in the ſame power during the King's whole life, as in the reign of LEWIS XIII, when Cardinal RICHLIEU had in effect the adminiſtration of all affairs, and the King was little more than a cypher. Some Princes, it is obſerved, cannot go without leading-ſtrings; and if you take them out of the hands of one miniſter, they immediately put themſelves under the conduct of another.

Stile of the King.

The French King ſtiles himſelf, LEWIS, by the grace of God, King of France and Navarre. The Pope in his bulls gives him the title of eldeſt Son of the Church, and the moſt Chriſtian King, as he is ſtiled by foreigners; but his ſubjects, in writing or ſpeaking of him, call him the King, or his Majeſty only, and in ſpeaking to him give him the appellation of Sire.

Arms.

The arms of France are three flowers de lys Or, in a field Azure, ſupported by two angels in the habit of Levites, having each of them a banner in his hands with the ſame arms; the creſt is an open crown; the whole under a grand Azure pavilion ſtrewed with flowers de lys Or and ermins, and over it a cloſe crown with a double flower de lys Or; on the ſides of it are flying ſtreamers on which are written the words uſed in battle, *Montjoye, St Denis*, and above them on the royal banner or oriflame, *Lilia non laborant neque nent*, taken from ſcripture; which are, 'tis ſaid, an alluſion to the Salique Law that excludes females from the ſupreme command.

The marks of ſovereignty, or royal ornaments, as the French call them, when his Majeſty appears on ſolemn occaſions, are the ſcepter, which he wields in his right hand, and the hand of juſtice, which is a kind of ſcepter too, that he holds in his left; the latter is a ſtaff about two foot long, at the end of which is an ivory hand: the King uſes it chiefly at the coronation, the ſcepter only on other days of ceremony.

Coronation.

There is no ſet time preſcribed for the coronation, or anointing of the Kings of France; but the ceremony is performed whenever the court thinks fit. They are uſually crowned at Rheims, by the Archbiſhop of that city, aſſiſted by five other eccleſiaſtical Peers, and ſix noblemen, who repreſent the other ſix antient lay peers of France. The oil with which his Majeſty is anointed, according to their traditions, was brought from heaven by a dove, and is kept in a phial called the holy bottle. The crown of CHARLEMAGNE is at firſt ſet upon the King's head; but being very weighty, is exchanged for another. As for the reſt of the ceremony, I refer the reader to the French hiſtorians, who are very large upon this head, as they are upon all matters of ceremony.

Prerogative of the Kings of France above other Princes.

As to the prerogative of the Kings of France, in taking place of all the Kings of Europe, which their writers endeavour to maintain, it was never yielded them by Spain, till that monarchy was reduced ſo low, that the Spaniard was in no condition to diſpute it; and I am apt to think that the Sovereign of Ruſſia, who hath of late aſſumed the imperial title, ever did, and always will, expect the precedence. The Sovereigns of Britain have never given up this point, nor is there any manner of reaſon they ſhould, ſince France has been actually conquered by England, and our Princes have always given England the precedence in the royal ſtile. It would be ridiculous while they write themſelves Kings of Great Britain, France, &c. that they ſhould give place to the French King. Even CROMWELL, who only called himſelf Protector of the commonwealth of England, in his treaties with that nation, obliged them to place his title before that of the French King's, as he called him; for he inſiſted that the French King had no right to ſtile himſelf King of France; and this happened but in the reign of the laſt Monarch, LEWIS le Grand.

Of their touching for the evil.

The Kings of France touch for the evil as well as the Kings of England. According to tradition, CLOVIS received this privilege from heaven, at the time he became a Chriſtian; though others ſay, their Kings have not uſed it more than ſix hundred years. Before his Majeſty touches, the firſt phyſician and the phyſicians of the place examine the patient: the King makes a croſs upon the party's forehead, and ſays to every one of them, The King touches, and God heals you.

Nobility.

The nobility of France conſiſts of four degrees; 1. That of the Princes of the blood. 2. The higher nobility. 3. The ordinary nobility. And, 4. The nobility lately made. He is denominated firſt Prince of the blood, who ſtands next the crown after the King's children. The late King legitimated his baſe iſſue, and gave them the precedence of all the nobility after the Princes of the blood. The Duke of Maine and the Count de Thoulouſe, two of his ſons by his miſtreſſes, by an edict in July 1714, he declared legitimate, and them and their children and deſcendants, born in lawful marriage, capable of ſucceeding to the crown of France after the laſt of the Princes of the houſe of Bourbon. And by another edict in 1715, he declared, that in parliament, and all other courts and places, there ſhould be no diſtinction made between theſe and the Princes of the blood. But in the year 1717, LEWIS XV reverſed both thoſe edicts, reſerving only to the Duke of Maine and the Count de Thoulouſe the honours they enjoyed in parliament by the edict of 1714.

The twelve antient Peers of France.

The Dukes and Counts, Peers of France, after the Princes of the blood, have the precedence among the higher nobility. Antiently there were but ſix eccleſiaſtick and ſix lay-peers: three of the eccleſiaſticks were Dukes, viz. the Archbiſhop of Rheims, and the Biſhops of Langres and Laon; the other three eccleſiaſticks were Counts, viz. the Biſhop of Beauvais, the Biſhop of Chalons, and the Biſhop of Noyons: the three Lay-Dukes were the Duke of Burgundy, the Duke of Normandy, and the Duke of Guienne; and the three Courts were thoſe of Champaigne, Flanders, and Thoulouſe. The lay-peerages have been re-united to the crown, except Flanders, which at preſent has another ſovereign; and the Kings of France have ſince created many Dukes, Counts, and Peers, without limiting them to any certain number; and theſe take place according as they are regiſtered in parliament. However, at a coronation ſix Princes or Noblemen are appointed to repreſent and perform the offices of the ſix antient lay-peers. Thoſe who are Dukes and Peers have a right to ſit in parliament, and ſeveral other privileges annexed to their peerages: but there are a great many Dukes who are not Peers, and conſequently are excluded from thoſe privileges; but are ranked however among the higher nobility. The officers of the crown alſo are in the ſame degree, as the Chancellor, the Grand Maſter of the Houſhold, the Admiral, the Marſhals of France, the Grand Maſter of the Artillery, and, according to ſome writers, the Grand Chamberlain, the Great Huntſman, the Great Maſter of the Horſe, and the Great Almoner, the Gentlemen of the Bed-chamber, and the Captains of the Guard du Corps.

The knights of the order of the Holy Ghoſt alſo are ranked with the higher nobility; as alſo the Governors of provinces and Lieutenants-general.

Inferior nobility and gentry.

In ſeveral provinces, as in Normandy, private gentlemen have the title of Noblemen; but in much the greateſt part of the kingdom they go under the denomination of Eſquires.

The ordinary nobility are divided into thoſe who have been ſuch for time immemorial, and thoſe families who have been created by patent: if the firſt can ſhew they have enjoyed that honour an hundred years, it is ſufficient to give them the privileges of the Nobleſſe (as they are called) and exempt them from the tallies, and ſome other taxes.

The nobility which is obtained by being members of parliament, or of the ſuperior courts, is but perſonal, and does not deſcend to their poſterity, unleſs the grandfather and father have enjoyed ſuch offices ſucceſſively, and exerciſed them twenty years, or died poſſeſſed of them. The crown has alſo granted the privileges of nobility to the Aldermen or Magiſtrates of ſome cities.

Nobility forfeited.

Nobility may be loſt by following any trade, or taking a farm of lands; but when LEWIS XIV endeavoured to reſtore maritime affairs in France, he did by his declaration expreſly permit perſons of quality to apply themſelves to foreign commerce, without derogating from their nobility.

The exerciſe of mechanick arts, or any mean office or employment, deprives a perſon of his nobility.

The gentlemen of Britany wave their nobility while they apply themſelves to trade, and when they leave it off, reſume their privileges again without a new grant.

Thus we ſee the French include all their gentry under the general title of Nobility or Nobleſſe. As for the third eſtate, the Roturiers, the moſt wretched of theſe miſerable people, which comprehends their tradeſmen, yoemen, and huſbandmen, or peaſants, they are liable to the land-tax and many others from which the nobility and gentry are exempted, as well as to the quartering of ſoldiers. Nor is this all, they are as much tyrannized over by the quality, as the quality and the reſt of the ſubjects of France are by the court. If a peaſant or a tradeſman meets a gentleman upon the road, he gets out of the way as ſoon as poſſible, and makes ten thouſand cringes as he paſſes by, or he may expect to be well drubbed without remedy: whereas an Engliſh farmer, or a common waggoner, will frequently diſpute the way with a perſon of quality and a numerous equipage, and perhaps turn a coach and ſix out of the road;

and if a law-ſuit is commenced on any damage received, ſhall have as much juſtice done him as a nobleman.

The Proteſtant refugees happier than the preſent ſubjects of France.

The poor Proteſtants have been often pitied that they have been forced to fly from their dwellings and take refuge in foreign countries; but conſidering how kindly they have been received every where, eſpecially in England, where they have been naturalized by thouſands, and obtained the privileges of free-born Britons for a trifle; that many of them have gotten great eſtates, and moſt of them are in a way to maintain themſelves and their families very handſomely; they may thank heaven for ſuffering them to be expelled a country which about that time began to be a ſcene of ſo much miſery. How have thoſe they left behind them either been forced into the army, where they have undergone inconceivable hardſhips, or plundered of their goods and money to maintain the glory of their grand monarch. No man at this day can ſay he is maſter of any thing in France: if he is ſuſpected to have any treaſure, it ſhall be borrowed of him, or the money ſhall be called in and paper-bills given him in the room of it, which ſhall firſt be compounded for half the money they were given for, and then the remainder paid, if ever, in money that is not of half the intrinſick value which is put upon it. Add to this the diſcouragement that theſe arbitrary proceedings have given to trade and induſtry, inſomuch that great part of their lands lie uncultivated, they plant and ſow no more than for their preſent neceſſity; and this has of late years occaſioned frequent famines, inſomuch that they forſake their country to find bread, as the Proteſtants did formerly to avoid perſecution. But the Sovereign of this miſerable people is our good ally, and therefore I ſhall not dwell any longer on this melancholy ſubject; only give me leave to wiſh, that none of the Princes of Europe may endeavour to imitate the maxims that Court has been governed by, to aggrandize a ſingle family, or immortalize their names in the manner LEWIS XIV attempted to eſtabliſh his.

Orders of knighthood.

The three orders of knighthood in France are, the order of St MICHAEL, the order of the Holy Ghoſt, and the order of St LEWIS. The order of St MICHAEL was inſtituted in the year 1469 by LEWIS XI, in honour of St MICHAEL the archangel, and conſiſted of thirty-ſix knights at firſt, but has been ſince enlarged to an hundred. It is not eſteemed very honourable at preſent, only it is neceſſary a perſon ſhould be admitted of this order before he receives that of the Holy Ghoſt.

The order of the Holy Ghoſt was inſtituted in 1578 by HENRY III, King of France and Poland. This order is compoſed of an hundred perſons, without including the Sovereign, and is conferred on the Princes of the blood, Peers, and other great men of the firſt quality.

The order of St LEWIS was inſtituted in the year 1693, by LEWIS XIV, and was deſigned purely for the encouragement of the Generals and officers of the army.

CHAP. XXXIX.

Contains a further account of their diet and diverſions.

Their diet.

THE diet of the French conſiſts chiefly of bread and herbs: the common bread, or *pain de goneſſe*, which is brought twice a week to Paris, is purely white, firm, and light, and made altogether with leaven, moſtly in three pound loaves. That which is baked in Paris is coarſer and much worſe.

As for the fine manchet, or French bread, it is of late, ſince they have made it of yeaſt, ſo bitter, that it is not to be eaten, and we far exceed them now in this particular; but the grey ſalt they make uſe of is incomparably better, and more wholeſome than our white ſalt.

In Lent the common people feed much on white kidney-beans and white lentils, of which there are quantities in all the markets, and to be had ready boiled. This lentil is a ſort of pulſe we have none of in England.

Their roots differ much from ours: here are no round turneps, but all long ones, and ſmall, but excellently well-taſted, and are of a much greater uſe, being proper for ſoups alſo, for which ours are too ſtrong; we have indeed of late got them into England, but our gardeners underſtand not the managing of them. The ſandy plains of Vaugerard near Paris are famous for this ſort of excellent root.

Potatoes are ſcarce to be found in their markets, which are ſo great a relief to the people of England, and very nouriſhing and wholeſome roots; but there are ſtore of Jeruſalem artichoaks.

They abound in vaſt quantities of large red onions and garlick, and the long and ſweet white onion of Languedoc; alſo leeks, rockambole, and ſhallots are in great uſe.

The leeks are here much ſmaller than with us; but to recompence this, they are blanched with more care and art, and are three times as long in the white part, which is by ſinking them early ſo deep in mellow earth. There is no plant of the onion-kind ſo hardy as this, and ſo proper for cold mountains, and it is excellent againſt ſpitting of blood, and all diſeaſes of the throat and lungs.

Though the lettice be the great and univerſal ſallad in France, yet it does not come near ours for the largeneſs and hardneſs of it, except the long Roman lettice, which is incomparably beyond our Sileſian.

In April and May the markets are ſerved with vaſt quantities of white beets.

The aſparagus here are in great plenty, but for the firſt month they are very bitter.

They are ſo great lovers of ſorrel, that they plant whole acres of it in the fields; and nothing is more wholſome: it ſupplies the place of lemons againſt the ſcurvy, or any ill habit of the body.

But after all, the French delight in nothing ſo much as muſhrooms, of which they have daily, and all the winter long, ſtore of freſh and new gathered in the markets. They raiſe them on hot beds in their gardens.

Of forced muſhrooms they have many crops in a year; but for the months of Auguſt, September, and October, when they naturally grow in the fields, they prepare no artificial beds.

They make in the fields and gardens of Vaugerard long narrow trenches, and fill them with horſe-dung two or three foot thick, on which they throw up the common earth of the place and cover the dung with it like the ridge of a houſe, and over all they put long ſtraw or long horſe-litter: out of this earth ſprings the champignons after rain; and if rain comes not, they water the beds every day in winter. They are ſix days after their ſpringing or firſt appearance before they pull them up for the market. On ſome beds they have plenty, on others but few; which demonſtrate they come of ſeed in the ground, for all the beds are alike.

They deſtroy their old beds in ſummer, and dung their grounds with them: they prepare their new beds the latter end of Auguſt, and have plentiful corps of muſhrooms towards Chriſtmas, and all the ſpring till after March.

The Moriglio muſhroom is much eſteemed in France, and is moſtly gathered in woods at the foot of oaks. There are ſome of them as big as turkey-eggs. They are found in great quantities in the woods in Champaigne about Rheims and Noſtre Dame de Lieſſe. They ſtring them and dry them, and they ſeem to have a far better reliſh than the champignons.

The city of Paris is well ſerved with carp, of which there is an incredible quantity ſpent in Lent. They are not large, but very clean of mud, and well-taſted.

They have a particular way of bringing freſh oyſters to town; they put them up in ſtraw-baſkets, cut from the ſhell, and without the liquor. They are thus very good for ſtewing, and and all other manner of dreſſing.

There is a vaſt plenty of macreuſe, a ſort of ſea-ducks, in the markets all Lent, which are eſteemed as fiſh, and therefore they take them with great induſtry. They have a rank fiſhy taſte, yet for want of other fleſh are very welcome.

As for their fleſh, mutton and beef, if they are good in their kind, they come little ſhort of ours; but their veal is not to be compared with ours, being red and coarſe. Their meat is leaner and drier, and is long kept before it is ſpent, which gives it a higher and ſalter taſte; for as meat rots, it becomes more urinous and ſalt. Our people indeed covet the freſheſt meat, and cannot endure the leaſt tendency to putrefaction; and we have good reaſon to do ſo, becauſe our air is twice as moiſt as theirs, which does often cauſe in the keeping of meat a muſtineſs which is intolerable; whereas the air of France being ſo much drier, keeping of meat not only makes it tender, but improves the taſte; ſo that could we ſecure our meat in keeping it from that unſavoury quality, it would far out-do the French meat, becauſe much more juicy.

As for their fruits, the bon-chretien and virgoleuſe pears are admirable.

The Kentiſh pippin, as we call it, alſo is excellent: but two other ſorts of apples ſtock the markets; the winter calvil, or queening, which though a tender and ſoft apple, yet continues good till after Eaſter: alſo the pome d'apis, which is ſerved here for ſhew more than uſe, being a ſmall flat apple, very beautiful, very red on one ſide, and pale or white on the other, and may ſerve the French ladies at their toilets, for a pattern to paint by.

Wines.

The wines about Paris are very ſmall, yet good in their kind; thoſe de Surene are excellent ſome years. In all the taverns they have a way to make them into the faſhion of Champagne and Burgundy.

The tax upon wines is now ſo great, that whereas before the war they drank them at retale at 5 d. the quart, they now ſell them at two and three ſhillings the quart, and dearer; which has enhanced the rates of all commodities and workmen's wages, and alſo has cauſed many thouſand private families to lay in wines in their cellars at the cheapeſt hand, which uſed to have none before.

The wines of Burgundy and Champagne are moſt valued, and indeed not without reaſon; for they are light and eaſy upon the ſtomach, and give little diſturbance to the brain, if drawn from the hogſhead or looſe bottled, after their faſhion.

The moſt eſteemed are Vin de bonne of Burgundy, a red wine which is Dolce piquante.

Volne, a pale Champagne, but exceeding briſk upon the palate, is ſaid to grow upon the very borders of Burgundy, and to participate of the excellency of both counties.

There is another ſort of wine called Vin de Rheims; this is alſo a pale or grey wine, it is harſh, as all Champagne wines are.

The white wines of value are thoſe of Maſcon in Burgundy.

Mulſo in Champagne is a ſmall and not unpleaſant white wine.

Chabri is a quick and ſharp white wine well eſteemed.

Vin de Turenne in Anjou of two years old, is one of the beſt white wines drank in Paris.

Gannetin from Dauphiné is a very pale and thin white wine, very like the Verde of Florence, ſweet and of a very pleaſant flavour.

The red wines of Burgundy, des quatres Feuilles, as they ſay, or of four years old, are rare, but they are eſteemed very wholeſome, and are permitted to the ſick in ſome caſes to drink of. They are fine, and have a rough but ſound taſte, not prickt. This term des quatres Feuilles, is uſed alſo to Velne, or any other ſort of wine which is kept any time.

There are alſo in eſteem ſtronger wines at Paris, as Camp de perdris, and Coſte bruſlee, both red wines from Dauphiné, of very good taſte, and hot upon the ſtomach.

De l'hermitage upon the Rhone is much admired. But the moſt excellent wines for ſtrength and flavour are the red and white St Laurence, a town betwixt Thoulon and Nice in Provence; this is a moſt delicious muſcat. Theſe are of thoſe ſorts of wines which the Romans called *vinum paſſum*, that were made of half ſun-dried grapes, for the grapes (eſpecially the white muſcadine grapes) being uſually ſooner ripe than the common grapes of the country called Eſperan, viz. the latter end of Auguſt, they twiſt the bunches of grapes, ſo breaking the ſtalks of them that they receive no longer any nouriſhment from the vine, but hang down and dry in the then violent hot ſun, and are in a few days almoſt turned into raiſins of the ſun; hence from this inſolation the flavour of the grape is exceedingly heightened, and the ſtrength and oilineſs, and thick body of the wine, is mightily improved.

Beſides theſe, here are alſo the white wines of Orleans, Bourdeaux claret, and thoſe excellent wines from Cahors; alſo Cabreton white and red from about Bayonne, ſtrong and delicious wines; and all ſorts of Spaniſh wines, as ſack, palm, mountain Malaga, red and white ſherries; and indeed the French are of late very deſirous to drink of the ſtrongeſt wines.

Strong waters.

Beſides wines, there is no entertainment without drinking at the deſert all ſorts of ſtrong waters, particularly ratifia's, citron-waters, &c.

Vattee is a ſort of perfumed ſtrong water from Provence, made (as it is pretended) of Muſcat wine, diſtilled with citron-peels and orange-flowers.

Fenoulliet de l'iſle de Ree is valued much, 'tis like our anniſeed-water.

Theſe and many other ſorts of ſtrong waters and ſtrong wines, both of France, and Italy, and Spain, are brought in at the latter end of the deſert in all great feaſts, and they drink freely of them, which cuſtom is new, the late long war introduced it: for the nobility and gentry ſuffering much in thoſe tedious campaigns, applied themſelves to theſe liquors to ſupport the difficulties and fatigues of weather and watchings, and at their return to Paris uſed them at their tables. The Pariſians, both men and women, are of late ſtrangely altered in their conſtitutions and habit of body, from lean and ſlender they are become fat and corpulent, the women eſpecially; which is ſuppoſed to proceed from nothing ſo much as the daily drinking ſtrong or ſweetened liquors, as coffee, tea, and chocolate, which are as much uſed in private houſes in Paris as in London. Theſe ſugared liquors, 'tis ſaid, add conſiderably to their corpulency.

Cyder.

But amongſt the drinks that are in uſe in Paris, cyder from Normandy muſt not be forgot. It is the beſt of that kind of liquor, of the colour of claret, reddiſh and brown. The apple that it is made of is called Frequin, round and yellow, but ſo bitter that it is not to be eaten, and yet the cyder that is made of it is as ſweet as any new wine. It keeps many years good, and mends of it's colour and taſte.

The French given to tippling of late.

There are alſo many publick coffee-houſes, where tea, coffee, and chocolate may be had, and all the ſtrong waters and wines above-mentioned; and innumerable ale-houſes, where the natives tipple very freely: the French are far from being that ſober people they were in the laſt age.

Water of Paris.

There are two ſorts of water which they drink at Paris, water of the river Seine, which runs through the town, and the water brought in by the aqueduct of Arcueil, which is one of the moſt magnificent buildings about Paris. This noble canal of hewn ſtone conveys the water fifteen miles to Paris.

The river-water is very pernicious to ſtrangers, and to the French alſo that come from any diſtance, but not to the natives of Paris, cauſing looſeneſs, and ſometimes dyſenteries; the many ponds and lakes that are let into it to ſupply the ſluices upon the canal de Briare, are in part the cauſe of it; but thoſe who are careful of themſelves purify it by filling their ciſterns with ſand, and letting it ſink through it, which way clears it, and makes it very cool and palatable.

As for the ſpring-water from the Maiſon des Eaux, it is wholeſome in ſome reſpect, and keeps the body firm; but it is very apt to give the ſtone, which the people of this town are infinitely ſubject to.

Diverſions.

The uſual diverſions of the French are either plays, gaming, walking, or taking the air in coaches. They have two kinds of play-houſes, one for opera's, and another for comedies; their opera's in Paris are extremely fine, the muſick and ſinging admirable, the ſtage large and magnificent and well filled with actors, the ſcenes well ſuited and changed almoſt imperceptibly; the dancing exquiſite, and the cloathing rich, proper, and with great variety; many of the nobility frequent them every day, and ſing them, all frequently joining their voices with the actors. The diſpoſition of the theatre for comedies is much the ſame, but leſs; there is ſome little comical entertainment exhibited at the end of almoſt every play, which 'tis to be preſumed the Engliſh took from them. They avoid all obſcenity and immorality upon the ſtage as much as poſſible, and yet they are frequently prohibited acting, at the deſire of the clergy, who look upon them as tending to incite and encourage vice.

They are pretty much given to gaming, but games of meer hazard are prohibited. Great part of the time of people of quality is taken up in viſiting in their coaches: in the evening they take the air in the Courſe, which conſiſts of three pleaſant walks of trees along the banks of the river Seine, incloſed at each end with magnificent gates, and in the middle is a circle to turn in. The middle alley contains four lines of coaches, and the ſide alleys two a-piece, and they may amount in the whole ſometimes to ſix or ſeven hundred. Thoſe who have a mind to take the air further out of town drive to the Bois de Bologne or the Bois de Vincennes; and as Paris is of a round form, it is but a little way to the fields from any part of the town.

About eight or nine o'clock in the evening moſt of the coaches return to the gate of the Tuilleries, where the company alight, and walk in the fine gardens of that palace; nor can there be a more delightful ſcene, as one of our countrymen obſerves, than the middle walk of the Tuilleries when it is filled with ſo much good company. This garden is vaſtly great, bounded with a terrace wall planted with trees and the river Seine on one ſide, and another terrace on the other, having great parterres in the middle, and fountains always playing: at one end of the gardens is the magnificent palace of the Louvre, and at the other a fine proſpect of the neighbouring fields: the reſt is diſpoſed into walks of trees, copſes of wood, and graſs-plots, with alcoves and ſeats at convenient diſtances.

Baron POLLNITZ's remarks.

Baron POLLNITZ ſeems to admit that London exceeds Paris about one fifth in bigneſs, and as much in the number of it's inhabitants; but obſerves, that Paris abounds in elegant palaces of the nobility, and fine convents, which are not to be met with at London. In the character he gives of the natives, he ſays, Tho' the French have their faults as well as other nations, they have, however, a thouſand good qualities; and I think them, ſays he, much more amiable at home than they are abroad, where, be a man ever ſo much prepoſſeſſed in their favour upon other accounts, he is ſurfeited with their eternal criticiſms, and to hear them inceſſantly remarking, They don't do ſo at Paris; You don't ſee this in France. Here they are polite, good-natured, humane, civil, and engaging; and a foreigner, who can bring himſelf ever ſo little into their way of thinking, acting, and ſpeaking, will always be ſorry to leave them.

But that itch of gaming, adds the Baron, which has infected the generality of the French, is looked upon as one of the plagues of the nation. I can't imagine how 'tis poſſible for people, who can ſcarce ſtay a quarter of an hour in one place, but are generally reſtleſs wherever they are, to ſit five or ſix hours together in cutting and ſhuffling the cards. 'Tis however, a neceſſary evil, eſpecially for a foreigner, who muſt otherwiſe make a very ſilly figure, till he is initiated in the cuſtoms of the country. The ladies ſay of a man who does not play, that he is a uſeleſs piece of lumber; and the moſt flaming lovers ceaſe to make love as ſoon as cards are brought upon the carpet.

There are ſome houſes, however, where this paſſion for gaming is not quite ſo prevalent; 'tis ſaid too, that the lawyers houſes are not ſo liable to the contagion; but I own I am not converſant enough with them to know the difference. 'Tis certain that at court they play deeper than any where; and very many of the nobility have impaired their fortunes, for the ſake of having the honour to be one of a party with the King. His Majeſty commonly plays at lanſquenet; the party conſiſts of twelve cutters, who ſet a lewis d'or upon the card. The King, and the principal gameſters, as the Count DE THOULOUSE, the Duke D'ANTIN, the Duke DE GRAMMONT, and the like, ſet two, and ſometimes four lewis d'ors upon a ſtake. The King is reckoned to have the beſt luck of all that play in the Queen's apartment. Any body that is well dreſſed, is admitted to make one of the company, which forms a great court tho' a mixed aſſembly. All the ladies ſit round the gaming table, and the men ſtand. The French ſay, that gaming ſets every body upon a level. There is one St REMI, who had been a lackey, firſt to the Marſhal DE ESTREES's, lady, and then to the Duke of BOURBON, who preferred him to be his valet de chambre, and at the Queen's arrival gave him a poſt in her Majeſty's houſhold, which he held at the ſame time that he officiated as the duke's valet de chambre: I have ſeen this man raiſe or fall the mirth of the King's company at pleaſure. It is true he does not cut, but he is at every card, and makes very good paſtime. At Fontainebleau, I heard him one day bet the King twenty lewis d'ors upon his own card againſt his Majeſty's. The King anſwered coolly, No, marquis; which is a nickname his Majeſty has given him, and may, nevertheleſs, be tranſmitted to the poſterity of this St REMI, who is moreover fop enough to be a marquis.

This medley of people at play has been the cuſtom in France at all times.

It is certain, however, that this liberty, with which all ſorts of people are indulged, of coming in for a game and away, renders them ſaucy. That noted comedian BARON, the greateſt coxcomb of all men living before the QUINAULTS, was one day at the houſe of the Prince DE CONTI, the ſame that had been choſe King of Poland, where they were playing at lanſquenet. BARON, pulling his purſe out with a careleſs air, ſaid to the Prince, Ten Lewis d'ors upon the knave, M. DE CONTI. Done, Britannicus, ſaid the Prince DE CONTI, who knew that BARON had been juſt acting that part in a play. It is certain, that at many of the womens houſes, the gameſters are as much pampered, as a father confeſſor is by his female votaries. A great many houſes ſubſiſt here by the emoluments of gaming; where, were it not for the money ariſing from their cards, their ſuppers would be very light, and many that now ride would go on foot. The Duke DE GESVRES, Governor of Paris, and the Prince of Carignan, who have a grant for licenſing all manner of gaming, have farmed it out, and get one hundred and twenty thouſand livres apiece by it, clear money, which one ſhall hardly find in any city of the world.

In ſpeaking of Mr LAW's ſcheme, or the Miſſiſſippi project, he obſerves, that the debts of LEWIS XIV, a little before he died, amounted to Two thouſand two hundred millions of livres; but by the reduction of the principal and intereſt of the revenues of the town-houſe (of Paris) by ſtriking off two fifths upon all contracts, and by reducing intereſt to four per cent, the debts of the ſtate were reduced to One thouſand eight hundred millions, which was the very ſum that was owing from the crown when LEWIS XV came to it. The debts of the government were afterwards reduced to One thouſand four hundred millions, by ſinking a quarter, a half, and three fourths, upon the ſtate-bills, as well as other debts owing by the King, as alſo on penſions, and by the recovery of great ſums thro' the chamber of juſtice.

And in this ſtate were the finances in France, when Mr LAW undertook to pay the remainder of the debts of the crown by the Miſſiſſippi ſcheme, which he did in a manner effect, but it was by robbing multitudes of private people of their fortunes.

The players are much more reſpected at Paris, according to the ſame writer, than here, which makes them inſolent to the laſt degree. The nobility are fond of their company, and admit them to their parties of pleaſure: as they are kings upon the ſtage, and equals and companions at table with the beſt lords in the kingdom. The actors in the opera, as well as they divert the publick for lucre, have indeed the privilege, that a gentleman may be admitted among them without diſparagement to his title: this is a favour, ſays a modern author, very juſtly, which had never yet been granted to thoſe who perform in the publick ſpectacles, and who give diverſion for money; becauſe in moſt of the ages of Chriſtianity they had been looked upon as perſons excommunicated and infamous, by reaſon of the corruption in morals, owing to their then too licentious repreſentations, which, perhaps, is no longer apprehended to be the caſe at preſent. It is certain, that if a performer in an opera may be noble, I cannot ſee why a perſon may not be the ſame in a comedy; tho' it is my opinion, that if ſtage-players may be gentlemen, rope-dancers and tumblers have a title to it: for, beſides the honour they have of diverting the publick, they run the riſk of breaking their necks every day; and is not that the lot of the nobility?

Tho' lackeys are not commonly the ſubjects of converſation, yet, I think, that thoſe of Paris deſerve ſome notice. They form ſo conſiderable a body, that there are many Kings who have not ſo numerous an army. Beſides, theſe fellows make ſuch extraordinary fortunes, and often riſe from valets to be maſters and gentlemen, that really they ought not to be confounded in the lump with the European lackeys. Thoſe of them that ſet up for fine fellows, as many of them do (for in the livery of Paris, you meet with every thing that is handſome and gay) ſuch, I ſay, as are in the ſervice of ſome young noblemen, are commonly equals and companions with their maſters. There are others, who are the darlings of the fair ſex; and, if ſatire may be credited, and appearances perhaps, into the bargain, there are ladies even of the firſt quality, who do not always treat their lackeys as ſervants. It is true, they moſt commonly take them out of the livery, and in order to bring them near their perſons, they make them their pages, or valets de chambre. Nothing is thought too good for theſe favourites of VENUS; they are rigged out like Princes, and were you to ſee one of theſe fortunate lackeys, you would naturally take him for ſome perſon of conſequence. And, indeed, there are ſome who act the man of quality to ſuch a perfection, that nothing can exceed it, and they have often better manners than their maſters. The airs of importance, and of quality, are very natural to the French. There are others of the menial claſs that enjoy the favour of their young maſters, in a way ſo uncommon, that one knows not what to think of it; and many of theſe young gentlemen, forgetting the reſpect that is due to their own perſons, and their families, make parties at ſupper with them, at which time, I fancy, converſation is the leaſt part of the entertainment. But ſuch is the ſpirit of debauchery, that has infected the generality of the young people at court, tho' it is true enough that it ever was ſo.

I do not ſay that exceſſive debauchery is the univerſal goût — of the nation; for, on the contrary, the French are virtuous from the cradle to the grave, if they are but ſo happy as to get over the four or five years of juvenile fury, and to ſurmount the tumultuous paſſions which their great vivacity kindles in their breaſts, and prompts them to do things at twenty years of age, which at thirty they deteſt and abhor: and I affirm of the French, in general, that they are not vicious by inclination. The nobleman is infinitely more ſo than the bulk of the people; and whether it is bad company, bad counſel, or whatever it is that miſleads him, he thinks that to be debauched gives him a fine air, and many of them really boaſt of being greater debauchees than in fact they are.

But this does not ſeem to me to be the caſe of the women (I mean thoſe that are not very rigidly attacked to the precepts of virtue). They always preſerve an appearance of decency, which impoſes on ſuch as do not know them: nor is their converſation licentious; and if they are naughty, it is in private. It is certain, that our countrymen do not do the French ladies juſtice. Many of our young fellows, when they come home from Paris, affecting to be coxcombs, tell ſtories ſo much to the diſadvantage of the fair ſex, that moſt of the German gentlemen, and eſpecially of our ladies, think the reverſe of what they ought to do. Virtue and modeſty are as eminent among the ſex here as elſewhere; and thoſe whifflers that give themſelves the liberty of ſcandalizing them, very often know not how to call one woman of quality by her right name, and even never ſaw her antichamber. It is certain, that there are women of quality here who have laid aſide the maſk; but of theſe there are ſo few, that the whole ſex ought not to be reproached for their miſconduct. I give you my word and honour, that there are fine young ladies here, born to charm our ſex, whom calumny itſelf is obliged to reſpect, and I do not ſee what more can be deſired. I will not vouch the ſame for the young gentlemen, of whom, indeed, the greateſt number is very much debauched; but there are ſome that have quitted the reins of modeſty. A TREMOUILLE, a LUXEMBOURG, a BOUFFLERS, and many more may be ſet up as examples to our youth, who perhaps would be worſe than the youth of France, if they were entered as young into company, and ſeated in the centre of joy and pleaſures.

The hiſtory of France was brought down to the year 1729, in the former part of this work; and as to the French wars in Poland, Germany, and Italy, ſince that time, they have been already treated of in the continuance of the hiſtory of the reſpective countries above mentioned. I proceed now to enquire, what other occurrences of conſequence have happened in the hiſtory of France, between the year 1729 and the preſent time: and the firſt we meet with is the birth of a Dauphin, on the 24th of Auguſt, O. S. 1729, to the unſpeakable joy of the French nation. The queen had three daughters before, as was related in the former edition of this MODERN HISTORY.

In the month of November 1729, the Marquis of Villeneuve, ambaſſador of France at Conſtantinople, ſent to his maſter, the moſt Chriſtian King, a dictionary of the Turkiſh and Arabian languages, being the firſt book that was printed in the Grand Signior's preſs at Conſtantinople; and they had begun an impreſſion of the Alcoran there.

The Duke of Lorrain arriving at the court of France at Chriſtmas 1730, did homage to the French King at Verſailles on new-year's-day following, for the duchy of Bar, and other domains of that crown. The duke made but a ſhort ſtay in France, but during his reſidence there, preſented the officers and attendants of his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, with the value of an hundred and fifty thouſand livres. And, on the other hand, the King gave the Duke eight pieces of rich tapeſtry, repreſenting the works of RAPHAEL, wrought in gold, valued at two hundred thouſand livres. And now the controverſy relating to the bull Unigenitus being revived in France, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty publiſhed a declaration on the 24th of March 1730, ordaining, that the Conſtitution Unigenitus ſhould be inviolably obſerved; and that as it was become the law of the Church, the acceptation of it ſhould be looked upon as a law of the kingdom; and cauſed the ſaid declaration to be regiſtered in his preſence, at his bed of juſtice, held on the third of April 1730; tho' ſeveral counſellors ſpoke with great warmth againſt it, deſiring the King to ſuſpend the regiſtering the declaration, ſince it might be attended, as they ſuggeſted, which fatal conſequences.

There were about three hundred and twenty preſidents or counſellors preſent, of whom not above thirty or forty voted for the regiſtering of the declaration; and yet, the chancellor commanded, in the King's name, that the ſaid declaration ſhould be regiſtered ſimply, that is, without any reſtriction or limitation. Among the opponents, ſome were for making remonſtances to his Majeſty, and others, for deſiring that Prince to revoke his declaration.

Amongſt the reſt, the abbot GUILLEBAUD ſaid: ‘To accept the bull in the ſenſe required by the declaration, they muſt think as the author of the bull did, on all the propoſitions condemned therein: this is required upon pain of excommunication. Now every body knows, ſays he, what the Pope thinks in the ninety-firſt propoſition: he believes he hath a right in certain caſes, to wreſt the ſcepter from the King's hand, and diſpoſe of his crowns as he ſhall think fit.’ Here the chancellor interrupted him, and ſaid: Pray, Sir, where have you learned, or who has told you, that the Pope thinks ſo? ‘In the legend of GREGORY VII., replied Monſieur GUILLEBAUD, and ſeveral other counſellors with him. To which the abbot added, for the concluſion of his vote, ‘This is ſo frightful and terrifying, that we have no other part to act, or any other courſe to take, but humbly to requeſt his Majeſty to withdraw his declaration.’

Monſieur DELPECHE ſaid, ‘I ſhould think myſelf guilty of high-treaſon, if I conſented to the regiſtering of this declaration.’

M. VERRIN expreſſed himſelf in theſe words, directed to the chancellor. ‘I believe, Sir, this declaration cannot but kindle a fire both in Church and State.’ This, ſaid the chancellor, is very far from our intentions, ſeeing that, on the contrary, we deſign to reſtore peace to both. ‘A falſe and inſidious peace, replied M. de VERRIN, which would tend to ſubject the King to the Pope, whereof, the diſmal conſequences ought to ſtrike all good ſubjects, and eſpecially magiſtrates, to the very heart: therefore, Sir, my opinion is, that his Majeſty may be moſt humbly addreſſed to recall his declaration.’

When the King's declaration for the acceptation of the bull Unigenitus was produced in the parliament of Normandy, it was reſolved, by a majority of voices, to appoint a committee to examine that declaration; who having made their report, it was agreed to make remonſtrances to the King: thoſe remonſtrances were accordingly drawn up and read in an aſſembly of the chambers, the 17th of May, and ſent to court the ſame day: but the parliament having received a lettre de juſſion (a letter of command) containing an expreſs order from his Majeſty to regiſter the King's declaration, they obeyed his Majeſty's intentions the nineteenth. The remonſtrances above-mentioned were to this effect: ‘That when they regiſtered the Conſtitution Unigenitus, in 1714 and 1720, it was done with modifications and explanations, eſpecially with regard to the XCI propoſition, which was condemned by the Pope's bull, and implied, That the fear of an unjuſt excommunication ought not to hinder us from doing our duty: that his Majeſty's new declaration, ordering the Conſtitution to be obſerved according to it's form and tenor, ſeems to annul theſe modifications: that the ſafety of his Majeſty's ſacred perſon, and the rights of the independency of his crown, ought not to be grounded upon ambiguous propoſitions, which may make room for interpretations, of which the Ultramontains may take advantage for the ſupport of their doctrine, concerning the temporalities of Kings; eſpecially at a time, when the legend of GREGORY VII ſhews the ſecret motives of the 91ſt propoſition: that by condemning this propoſition, it follows, that the fear of an unjuſt excommunication ſhould hinder the parliament from doing their duty; ſince, if it ſhould happen, that the court of Rome ſhould threaten his Majeſty's ſubjects to fulminate his excommunication upon their heads, they would then be diſcharged from the oath of fidelity they have taken to him, &c.

‘Our fear increaſes, they add, when we reflect that the legend, which does a Pope the honour to rank among the ſaints, one who reckoned it a privilege annexed to his dignity, to exerciſe an authority of dethroning Emperors and Kings, and diſpoſing of their crowns as he pleaſed, came from the ſame hand, and the ſame power, that publiſhed the Conſtitution Unigenitus. What difficulties, Sir, nay what diſmal conſequences, may we expect, if the ſubjects, being accuſtomed to look upon the Conſtitution as a law of the Univerſal Church in point of doctrine, as it is called in your declaration, ſhould perſuade themſelves, that there are certain occaſions, wherein they may fall off from their fidelity to their King.’

Forty advocates of the parliament of Paris, who had oppoſed the regiſtering of the bull Unigenitus, were afterwards reſtored to the King's favour, on making a ſubmiſſion of the following tenor, viz.

‘We were always thoroughly convinced, and ſhall always take a pride in publickly profeſſing, that the kingdom of France is a ſtate abſolutely monarchical: that the ſupreme authority reſides in the ſingle perſon of the ſovereign: that your Majeſty holds in your kingdom the place of God alone, of whom you are the lively image: that the ſubmiſſion which is due to you is a duty of religion, which ought to be performed, not for fear of puniſhment, but out of motives of conſcience: that there is no power upon earth that can diſcharge people from the inviolable fidelity which they owe to their ſovereign: that excommunication itſelf, ſo terrible, when it is pronounced upon juſt grounds, can never break the ſacred knot which binds ſubjects to their King; that his authority is no ways to be ſtruck at under any pretence whatſoever: that he is the only ſovereign legiſlator in his dominions: that the Parliaments, and other courts of the kingdom, hold of your Majeſty alone, the authority they exerciſe: that the reſpect and ſubmiſſion which are paid to their arrêts center in your Majeſty, as the fountain from whence they ſpring, and that for this reaſon, juſtice is adminiſtered there in your Majeſty's name: that it is your Majeſty that ſpeaks in the arrêts, and that they are no farther to be executed, than as they are ſtamped with your Majeſty's ſeal.

'Theſe, Sire, are the truths, in which we are daily confirmed by the exerciſe of our office, in the preſence of the parliament, ſo careful to maintain all the prerogatives of your ſacred authority. Our conſciences ſhall never reproach us for departing from them; we will never abandon them, and ſhall be ready at all times, and upon all occaſions, to ſacrifice our lives and fortunes in the ſupport of theſe ſame truths.

'Moreover, Sire, we look on it as an unalterable principle, that the miniſters of the Church, who are members of the Sate and ſubjects of your Majeſty, are, like all the other orders of the kingdom, ſubject to all the laws which bear the character of the royal authority: that they hold of JESUS CHRIST alone, and of his Church, the ſpiritual power, of which the ſalvation of ſouls is the object, and which commands obedience, by the terror of ſpiritual puniſhment; but that it is to your Majeſty alone that they owe the outward juriſdiction, which they exerciſe in your dominions, for the uſe of which they are neceſſarily accountable to your Majeſty, and conſequently to the parliament, which adminiſters juſtice in your name, and to whom it belongs, under your authority, to prevent by way of appeal, any injury that might come from that quarter, to the law and maxims of the kingdom.

'This is the eſſential point upon which we uſed the liberty which we have to anſwer queſtions, concerning which we are conſulted by the parties that apply to us; and which we flatter ourſelves, Sire, your Majeſty will be pleaſed to preſerve to us.

'Laſtly, we take the liberty to proteſt to your Majeſty, that by the expreſſions in our paper, we did not mean any thing but what was conformable to the truths we have here laid before your Majeſty, and in the ſame ſenſe that ſeveral have uſed them before us, in ſome ordinances of the Kings, your Majeſty's predeceſſors, in the moſt approved authors. Every other ſenſe, every other interpretation, is ſtill farther from our thoughts; we diſavow, Sire, and deteſt, every thing that tends in the leaſt to ſtrike at your authority; and if we knew of any ſtronger terms we would make uſe of them, to expreſs to your Majeſty the integrity and fidelity of our ſentiments.'

It appears by this ſubmiſſion, as a certain writer obſerves, that the advocates here aſſert the pretenſions of the rights and privileges of the kingdom, againſt the Ultramontains, as well as the independance of the crown; and, it ſeems, the King was pleaſed to accept of it in the moſt authentick manner.

By an arrêt publiſhed on the tenth of March 1731, all diſputes and conteſts concerning the bull Unigenitus, were ſuppreſſed and prohibited, and particularly in the univerſities of the kingdom.

The Pope, in the mean time, condemned the principles contained in the aboveſaid ſubmiſſion of the advocates of Paris, and decreed that it ſhould remain eternally ſuppreſſed, as containing maxims and propoſitions, falſe, ſcandalous, raſh, ſeditious, tending to the deſtruction of the Hierarchy, and invading the juriſdiction of the Church, and contrary to the ſupreme authority of the ſovereign Pontiff; ſavouring and favouring hereſy; erroneous, ſchiſmatical, and heretical; forbidding to read, and keep the ſame upon the pain of major excommunication, that ſhall be incurred ipſo facto: His Holineſs reſerving to himſelf, to whom only it belongs, to abſolve from the ſame, &c.

In the mean time her Majeſty was delivered of another prince, (viz.) on the 30th of Auguſt, 1730, on whom the title of Duke of Anjou was immediately conferred by his Majeſty, together with the order of the Holy Ghoſt: and on the 12th of March, 1732, the Queen of France being delivered of another princeſs, the King of France had then two ſons and four daughters living; but in February 1733, their Majeſties third daughter died, aged four years and ſix months; and on the 7th of April following, their youngeſt ſon, the Duke of Anjou, died, aged two years and ſeven months: but to make ſome amends for theſe loſſes, the French Queen was delivered of a fifth princeſs the next month.

And now the French court, in contempt of the Britiſh nation, which they ſuppoſed durſt not reſent any injury offered them by their grand monarch, iſſued an arrêt or declaration, requiring all the Engliſh, Scotch, and Iriſh, out of employment in that kingdom, to inliſt in their ſervice, or tranſport themſelves from thence immediately, on pain of the gallies; and, without giving them time to conſider of it, immediately ſeized and impriſoned moſt of the ſubjects of Great Britain, that were then reſiding in France, in order to recruit their forces with them, or condemn them to the gallies on their refuſal to ſerve; and when Earl WALDEGRAVE, the Engliſh ambaſſador, preſented a memorial, ſetting forth the injuſtice and unreaſonableneſs of this inſult on a nation in alliance with them, the French did not think fit entirely to deſiſt from theſe practices, but only told him, that gentlemen of fortune and merchants, with their ſervants, were excepted out of the order. However, I don't find any ſatisfaction given the Britiſh ſubjects for this outrage, many of whom ſuffered great hardſhips in lothſome dungeons before they were releaſed: ſo very low is languiſhing Britain ſunk in the eyes of her neighbours, who in the reign of the glorious Queen ANNE trembled at her frown.

Another mark of French inſolence unhappy Britain ſuffered in the perſon of captain STEWARD, who putting into Dukirk to deliver ſome goods there, one of his ſailors was debauched from him and inliſted in the French ſervice. The captain immediately applied to the commandant, reclaming his ſoldier, and complained of the violation of treaties, adding, he muſt write to the court of Great Britain if he was refuſed juſtice there. But inſtead of doing him juſtice, the commandant ſent the captain to priſon, and would not releaſe him till he had given the ſailor a formal diſcharge, and paid him his wages, tho' he had not performed the voyage. As ſoon as the captain recovered his liberty, he made a proteſt againſt this proceeding, and ſent an information to the admiralty at London. But I could never learn the French made us any

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any ſatisfaction for this inſult, any more than for the former.

The ſame year the Briſtol-merchant, captain Scot commander, met a French ſhip of twenty guns and a hundred and fifty men off the weſtern iſlands, bound from Africa to Spain, who haled them, and ordered captain Scot to come on board; but the ſea running high, the captain would not venture to put out his boat; and upon his refuſal, the Frenchman fired a ſix pounder at the Engliſh ſhip, which pierced her under the cabbin windows, and broke one of her upper deck beams: after which he fired four or five more ſhot at her, which did ſome damage to her rigging, and then boarded her, and demanded a ſight of the captain's papers and bill of health. They threatened at firſt to throw the captain overboard; but at laſt they thought fit to retire without doing any further damage to the ſhip, or to any perſon on board.

But theſe inſults are trifles, compared with their expelling us from the iſlands of St Lucia and St Vincent, and their inciting the Indians in Nova Scotia, New-England, Virginia, and Carolina, to invade our plantations on the continent, and murder our people ſettled upon the frontiers; for an account whereof I refer the reader to the modern hiſtory of America.

The French, 'tis true, have paid off that vaſt debt they contracted in the late wars with Great Britain and her confederates; at leaſt they have wiped off the ſcore; ſo that the crown is no longer burthened with it. They have extended their frontiers, and enlarged their territories, by the addition of that fine country of Lorrain; and, it is ſaid, they are treating with the Emperor for Luxemburg, and ſome other frontiers in Flanders, which will entirely deſtroy that barrier, which coſt Great Britain, and the United Provinces ſo much blood and treaſure to obtain. They are erecting a harbour at Graveling, more commodious than that of Dunkirk was, and conſequently more prejudicial to the trade and navigation of Great Britain, in caſe of another war: they have vaſtly increaſed and enlarged their foreign commerce to Spain, Italy, Turkey, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies: they have improved their plantations to a miracle, and perfectly driven us out of the ſugar trade and other branches of commerce. And no wonder, in theſe circumſtances, if a people, naturally haughty and inſolent, treat the nations their neighbours with much injuſtice, contempt, and diſdain, eſpecially when they have made the Emperor their ally, hitherto their moſt conſiderable rival on the continent, but now ready to unite with France in diſtreſſing Great Britain, tho' he cannot but remember how lately he was ſaved from deſtruction by her influence; and that he is more indebted to Britain, for the extenſive territories he poſſeſſes, than to any power in Europe.

No wonder, if the French, who have ſo often felt the force of the Britiſh arms, are glad of every opportunity of depreſſing and inſulting a nation they ſo lately dreaded. France is now become the great umpire of the world, and gives law to every other power; and will no doubt to Britain, if ſhe ſuffers herſelf to be trampled on in the manner ſhe has been for ſome years paſſed.

The great duties laid on Sugars, and other produce of the plantations, have given the French great advantages.

The advantages the French have gained of late years, in point of trade in America, are very juſtly repreſented, in a petition of the merchants trading to the Britiſh ſugar-colonies, to the houſe of commons in the year 1739, wherein they ſet forth, that the great diſadvantage the Britiſh ſugar trade lies under, proceeds from the very high duties both at home and in the plantations, on our Engliſh ſugars, compared with thoſe laid on the French; and from the ſupplies of proviſions and other neceſſaries the French have from Ireland, and the Britiſh colonies in north America, without which they could not ſubſiſt; and to the reſtraints the Britiſh colonies are under, from ſending Sugar, Coffee, Cocoa, Indigo, and Ginger, to foreign markets before they are firſt landed in Britain, by which means they are liable to great charges, hazard, and delays attending a double voyage. And repreſenting, that the liberty of a direct exportation of the products of the Britiſh Sugar iſlands, to the ſeveral foreign ports in Europe, is the only means left to recover the foreign Sugar trade, and put the Britiſh merchants in a capacity of diſputing the foreign Sugar markets with the French; and they further repreſent, that another great diſadvantage the Britiſh Sugar ſettlements labour under, ariſes from the duties payable on Cocoa, Coffee, Ginger, and Rum, imported into Great Britain from the Britiſh colonies: and from the importation of French Sugars, Rum, and Moloſſes, into Great Britain and her northern colonies in America, without paying any more duty than if they were of Britiſh produce. And further repreſenting, that the trade of Indigo, which our Britiſh colonies had formerly ſo large a ſhare in, as to be able not only to ſupply enough for our home conſumption, but to export great quantities, is now wholly gained from us by the French, from whom we are under a neceſſity of buying almoſt all the Indigo we uſe, the loſs of which trade was entirely owing to the high duties laid on this commodity in Great Britain; that when the trade for Indigo was in the hands of the Britiſh merchants, it was ſubject to a greater duty than it could bear, but now it is in the hands of foreigners, it is exempted by the legiſlature from paying any duty at all; and that the ſum we pay annually to France for Indigo, amounts to one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds; they petitioned therefore that ſome encouragement might be given to the planting of Indigo, that they may be able to recover that trade; and that ſuch a reduction be made in the duties on other Weſt-India commodities, as may preſerve our trade therein.

The trade of Indigo loſt.

Whereupon it was reſolved, and afterwards enacted, that in order to encourage his Majeſty's ſubjects in the Britiſh Sugar colonies in America, they ſhould be permitted to carry ſugars of Britiſh growth from the ſaid colonies, directly to foreign parts under proper reſtrictions.

And that effectual proviſion ſhould be made for ſecuring the duties on the importation of foreign Sugars, Rum, and Moloſſes, into Great Britain, and the Britiſh plantations.

But I don't find any encouragement given for the planting of Cocoa or Chocolate-nut, Indigo or Ginger, and recovering the traffick in thoſe articles, from the French and Spaniards.

The French fiſhery on the coaſt of Ireland.

Nor have the French encroached only on our American trade and plantations, but have of late made very free with the fiſheries, upon our coaſt; and we are obliged to them for diſcovering one fiſhery which we ourſelves were ſtrangers to, on the ſouthern coaſt of Ireland, viz. on the

Nymph-bank, where they had fiſhed with fifty or ſixty large veſſels, for ſeveral years without interruption, and indeed without the notice of the Iriſh, till the year 1736, and might have continued it much longer, if they had not entered into the ſmuggling trade, carried off wool from the ſouth of Ireland, and run in brandy, alamodes, and other French goods, upon them, which the Cuſtom Houſe officers taking notice of, they were obliged to remove to a further diſtance. And ſome Iriſh gentlemen in that part of the country, have ſince employed fiſhing veſſels on this bank, where they catch great quantities of cod, hakeling, turbut, and other valuable fiſh. Thus we find Ireland has been of great advantage to the French of late years, for from hence their fleets were provided with beef and tallow, as well as fiſh. Here they found a vent for their wine, brandy, and dry goods; and from hence they fetched great part of the wool, ſo neceſſary in their manufactures; and here alſo they vended ſugars, rum, and other produce of their iſlands in the Weſt-Indies, to the unſpeakable damage of Great Britain and her American plantations.

The advantages of the French in trafficking with Ireland.

The definitive treaty between France, Spain, and the Emperor.

In the mean time the Kings of France, Spain, and Sardinia, concluded the definitive treaty of peace with the Emperor and Empire; preliminary articles had been agreed on, in the year 1735, but all matters in diſpute were not ſettled till the year 1739.

In theſe articles are contained the Duke of Lorrain's ceſſion of his dominions, to King STANISLAUS for his life, and the reverſion thereof to France. In conſideration whereof the French King agreed to pay the Duke of Lorrain, four millions and half of livres Lorrain money per. ann. till he ſhould take poſſeſſion of the Duchy of Tuſcany: He alſo agreed to pay the Ducheſs-dowager of Lorrain and her heirs, the revenues payable to her out of the ſaid territories, beſides fifty-eight thouſand five hundred livres of Lorrain money yearly, for the intereſt of that princeſs's portion; one hundred twenty-eight thouſand one hundred ſixty-one livres for her dowry, forty-two thouſand eight hundred fifty-ſeven livres to Prince CHARLES, and twenty-four thouſand four hundred twenty-eight livres to each of the two princeſſes for their appenage; and the French King having charged himſelf with the debts of that State, an account was added, by which it appears they amounted to eight million ſeven hundred eleven thouſand ſeven hundred twenty-ſix livres Lorrain money.

Another article contains King STANISLAUS's abdication of the crown of Poland, and his recognizing King AUGUSTUS. There is an article alſo containing the Emperor's reſignation of the two Sicilies, and the Spaniſh ports in Tuſcany, to the King of the two Sicilies; and the King of Spain's ſurrender of Parma and Placentia, to the the Houſe of Auſtria, and the eventual ſucceſſion of Tuſcany to the Duke of Lorrain.

The Emperor alſo cedes the Novareſe, Tortoneſe, and ſome other principalities in Italy, to the King of Sardinia: and the tenth article contains the guarantee of the Pragmatick Sanction, by the King of France, in manner following viz.

The French guarrantee the Pragmatick Sanction.

His Sacred, Royal, and Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, by the ſixth article of the preliminaries, with relation to the dominions in part then and before poſſeſſed, by his Sacred Imperial Majeſty, conform to the ſaid preliminary articles, took upon himſelf, in the beſt manner that was poſſible, the defence, commonly called, the guaranty of the order of ſucceeding in the Houſe of Auſtria, which was more fully ſet forth in the Pragmatick Sanction, publiſhed the nineteenth of April 1713. For it having been after mature conſideration concluded, that the publick tranquillity could not long ſubſiſt or endure, and that no certain method could be thought of for preſerving a durable balance of power in Europe, but by preſerving the ſaid order of ſucceſſion, againſt all future attempts of any kind, his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, moved as well by the ardent deſire he has to maintain the publick tranquillity, and preſerve the balance of Europe, as by the conſideration of the conditions of peace, which his Imperial Majeſty had agreed to, and principally for this reaſon, obliged himſelf, in the ſtrongeſt manner, to defend the ſaid order of ſucceſſion, and to the end that no doubt may hereafter ariſe about the effect of this ſecurity, or guaranty, his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, by virtue of this preſent article, engages to carry the ſaid ſecurity, commonly called guaranty, into execution at all times, and as often as there ſhall be occaſion; promiſing for himſelf, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, in the beſt and firmeſt manner that is poſſible, that he will with his whole force, defend, maintain, and as it is called, guarantee againſt all perſons whatſoever, and at all times when there ſhall be occaſion, that order of ſucceſſion which his Imperial Majeſty has declared and eſtabliſhed, by way of a perpetual, indiviſible, and inſeparable feoffment of truſt, in favour of primogeniture, for all his heirs of both ſexes, by the ſolemn act publiſhed the nineteenth of April 1713, and annexed at the end of this preſent treaty, which act was entered in the publick records, in order that it might have the force of a valid and perpetual law and Pragmatick Sanction, and which the Holy Roman Empire engaged to defend, or as is commonly ſaid, guarantee, by virtue of their concluſion, iſſued the eleventh of January 1732. And whereas according to this rule, and order of ſucceſſion, in caſe his Sacred Imperial Majeſty ſhould, by an effect of the divine goodneſs, have heirs male of his Body, then the eldeſt of his ſons, or he being dead, the eldeſt ſon, of that eldeſt ſon; and in caſe of failure of heirs male of the body of his Sacred Imperial Majeſty, the eldeſt of his daughters, the Moſt Serene Archducheſs of Auſtria, according to the order and right of primogeniture, which is for ever to be obſerved, is to ſucceed him, in all the kingdoms, provinces, and dominions, actually poſſeſſed by his Sacred Imperial Majeſty, without any diviſion or ſeparations having ever any place, in favour of him, her, or them, who may be of the ſecond, third, or any more diſtant branch, or degree; or in ſhort, in any otherwiſe, or for any other cauſe that can poſſibly exiſt: the ſaid order and right of indiviſible primogeniture, being likewiſe perpetually to ſubſiſt in all other caſes, and in all times and ages, as well in the male line, if it ſhall pleaſe God to grant to his Sacred Imperial Majeſty, the happineſs of having iſſue male, as in the female line, upon the former's becoming extinct; and, in fine, always and as often as any queſtion may ariſe about the right of ſucceeding to the hereditary kingdoms, provinces, and ſtates, actually poſſeſſed by his Sacred Imperial Majeſty; for this purpoſe his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty promiſes and obliges himſelf to defend him, or her, who, according to the above-mentioned order, ought to ſucceed to the kingdoms, provinces, and dominions, actually poſſeſſed by his Imperial Majeſty, and for ever to maintain him, her, or them, in the poſſeſſion thereof, againſt all and every perſon or perſons whomſoever, that may, in any manner, attempt to diſturb or interrupt the ſame.

The French King's eldeſt daughter married to Don PHILIP Infant of Spain.

The ſame year a match was concluded between Madam, eldeſt daughter of the King of France, and Don PHILIP, Infant of Spain, the Princeſs being then in the twelfth, and the Prince in the twentieth year of his age; the marriage-contract was ſigned on the twenty-fifth of Auguſt, and on the twenty-ſixth the ceremony was performed, the Duke of Orleans being proxy for Don PHILIP; ſhe was with great ceremony delivered into the hands of thoſe who were ſent by the court of Spain to receive her, in the iſle of Pheaſants, on the frontiers of France and Spain, on the eleventh of October.

French edict againſt Britiſh navigation and commerce.

About the ſame time an arret was revived, which was iſſued in the year 1701, againſt the importation of foreign goods in Britiſh bottoms, and alſo the following ſorts of merchandize of Britiſh produce, or manufacture, viz. all ſorts of Stockings and Caps of Silk, Wool, Thread, or Cotton; all ſorts of Cloth and Stuffs of Wool, Hair, Silk, Thread, or Cotton; Hats, Blankets, Hides, Gloves, Cutlery-ware, Iron-ware, Locks, Buttons, Ribbons, Watches, Clocks, Wine, Pewter, Lead, Mercery-wares, Drugs, and Grocery; but permitted the importation of Allum, Bottles, Wax, Coal, ſalted fleſh, Horſes, Glue, Horn, Copperas, Green Hides, Cryſtals, Elephants Teeth, Herrings, Cods, Bone, Furs, Calf-Skins, Ox-hides, ſalted Salmon, Tallow, Engliſh Carpets, Callicoes, Glaſſes, and Wool. The war having broke out the very next year, and all commerce between the two nations being prohibited, this edict did not much affect us then; and after the renewal of the peace, by the treaty of Utrecht, though commerce was not reſtored by a proper treaty, yet the execution of this edict, was in a great meaſure ſuſpended, and the importation of foreign merchandize in Britiſh Bottoms, as alſo of ſeveral of theſe ſorts of prohibited goods, connived at; but about the beginning of the laſt year, this edict was revived, and they began to put it ſo ſtrictly in execution, that the Britiſh ſhips then in their ports, loaded with foreign, or any ſort of prohibited goods, were not only prevented from unloading, but ordered to depart immediately, to the great loſs of the merchants concerned, who had ſent theſe goods thither upon the faith of the good correſpondence, that had for ſo many years ſubſiſted between the the two Nations; and upon a ſuppoſition, that this edict was, in a great meaſure, tacitly revoked.

French complain of their ſhips being ſtopped and viſited by the Engliſh.

Towards the end of September, the French Miniſtry declared to the Earl Waldegrave, that their Maſter had, with ſome concern, learned, that notwithſtanding the repreſentations which been before made, againſt the interruption given to the trade of France by Britiſh ſhips of war, thoſe ſhips continued to ſtop and viſit all French ſhips ſailing upon the coaſt of Spain: that his Majeſty could by no means conſent to a practice of this nature, and therefore demanded, that until an open rupture was declared, the Britiſh men of war ſhould let the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of France paſs freely, there being no pretence for ſtopping or viſiting them till after an open declaration of war againſt Spain, becauſe till then, there could be no ſuch thing as contraband goods on board French or any other neutral ſhips; and, that if this demand was not complied with, he ſhould think himſelf under a neceſſity of taking ſuitable meaſures for protecting his ſubjects from being ſtopt and viſited, as long as there was no declared war between Britain and Spain. The only anſwer that could be made to this, was a declaration of war againſt Spain, which took away all future pretence for ſuch a complaint; becauſe then, all neutral ſhips may by the law of nations be viſited at ſea, and if bound to an enemy's port with contraband goods on board, thoſe goods may be taken out, and condemned as good and lawful prize, in which limited ſenſe the latter part of his Majeſty's declaration of war is to be underſtood.

Britiſh ſhips taken in Bourdeaux.

Soon after the rupture between us and Spain, the Spaniſh privateers took ſome Britiſh merchant ſhips in the very mouth of the river of Bourdeaux; and about the beginning of November, one of them came up a great way, and, contrary to the law of nations, ſeized upon an Iriſh veſſel in the river; whereupon the captain of a ſtout New-England ſhip then at Bourdeaux, deſired leave to go and take the privateer, which he thought he could do, with the help of ſuch voluntiers as were willing to go along with him; but the Governor would neither grant him leave, nor take any other method for recovering the Iriſh veſſel ſo unjuſtly ſeized within the dominions of France. Earl Waldegrave complained to the court of France of theſe and the like practices; and he was aſſured, that orders were ſent to the proper officers at Bourdeaux to endeavour to ſeize the Spaniſh privateers, and to make them reſtore the veſſels and effects they had taken in that river; but I never heard that any ſuch attempt was made, or any of the Britiſh ſhips ſo taken reſtored.

French preparations for war.

Tho' the French did not declare openly againſt us in the war with Spain, yet from theſe accounts, it appears they were a little partial in favour of our enemies; but this was not all, from the very beginning of the war, they began to prepare for taking a ſhare in it as ſoon as they ſhould find a proper opportunity. About the beginning of September, orders were iſſued by the French court, for all the officers that had any poſt, or command, in their Colonies or Plantations, to repair to Rochefort, by the 20th of that month at fartheſt, where there ſhould be a man or war ready to tranſport them to their reſpective poſts in America; and even before the repriſals were publiſhed here, they began, at all the chief ports of France, to refit and augment their Navy; and we were told, that they had ordered ſix new men of war of the line to be built at their colony of Quebec in Canada, and that they had contracted for having eighteen others of the line, built for them in the ports of Sweden.

French ſquadron ſent to the Baltick.

Soon after the beginning of the year 1739, they began in France to talk of ſending a ſquadron of men of war to the Baltick, and to equip ſome ſhips at Breſt, as was ſaid, for that purpoſe. This political phænomenon raiſed the curioſity of the whole European world, and occaſioned many conjectures about the deſign of this ſquadron. Sometimes it was ſaid to be deſigned to conſiſt of a great number of capital ſhips, for the execution of ſome grand project; and at other times, it was only to be a ſmall number of ſhips for the inſtruction and exerciſe of the ſeamen. At laſt, about the middle of May, this myſterious ſquadron ſet ſail from Breſt, under the command of the Marquis D'Antin, conſiſting but of four men of war of the line, and one frigate, and ſailed directly to Stockholm, where they arrived the 11th of July, and ſtaid there till the firſt of Auguſt, which time was principally employed in feaſtings, balls, and ſplendid entertainments at the Swediſh court, which was all they did there. On the firſt of Auguſt this ſquadron ſet ſail from Stockholm upon their return to France; where they arrived about the end of September, the frigate which attended them having put into Dunkirk, which I particularly take notice of, becauſe that frigate was a ſhip that carried 18 guns, and her putting in there ſhews, that, in caſe of a war, the port of Dunkirk will again be a receptacle for French privateers to infeſt our trade, tho' by the treaty of Utrecht it was expreſsly ſtipulated, that the harbour of Dunkirk ſhould be filled up, *and never again repaired.* This ſquadron being thus returned to France, without attempting any thing, either for or againſt any power in Europe, the eyes of people were then opened, and every one ſaw that it was ſent to the Baltick, for no other reaſon but to furniſh the new miniſtry in Sweden with ſomething to amuſe their people with; which ſort of amuſement is often neceſſary upon the change of an adminiſtration in every country, where there is a popular ſort of government eſtabliſhed. Tho' ſome people imagined, the French had another deſign, which was to frighten us with an invaſion from Sweden, either upon the Britiſh or Hanoverian dominions, in order to prevent our ſending forces for attacking the Spaniards in the Weſt-Indies.

Preſs laid under reſtraints.

The preſs has always been under a licence in France, and great penalties upon thoſe that printed or publiſhed any book, pamphlet, or paper, without a licence; but this has of late been found inſufficient, as it always will, for preventing the printing and diſtributing privately, ſuch writings as are agreeable to the people, tho' unacceptable to the court. Such writings have often been ſuppreſſed by arrets of the King's council of ſtate, and the authors, printers, and publiſhers, when diſcovered, ſeverely puniſhed; yet ſtill they have found means to creep into the hands of the curious, and the prohibition has only ſerved to make the public ſeek after and read them with the more induſtry and fondneſs. Therefore his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty's council of ſtate iſſued a new regulation, by which the number of printing houſes in France is greatly leſſened, and for the future limited to 36 at Paris, and 209 in the other parts of the kingdom; and all magiſtrates whatſoever are thereby prohibited to licenſe Printers hereafter, to exerciſe the art of printing; and Printers are likewiſe forbid to intermeddle in the ſaid profeſſion by virtue of any privileges whatſoever, without having firſt proved their titles and qualifications before the Chancellor, and obtaining their admiſſion in the uſual manner, by an arret of council.

Great charities given to the poor.

A great ſcarcity of proviſions, particularly corn, having happened in ſeveral provinces of France, in the months of April and May, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, ordered all the Archbiſhops and Biſhops then in Paris, which were *ſeventeen* in number, to repair forthwith to their reſpective dioceſes, in order to ſuccour and relieve the poor; in which good office many of the Biſhops of that kingdom contended with emulation, which of them ſhould out-do the other; and in this glorious contention, the Biſhop of Limoges was particularly remarkable; for he gave a daily ſubſiſtence for ſeveral weeks together, to near one thouſand five hundred poor perſons of his dioceſe; and in order to enable him to do ſo, he was obliged to ſell all his plate, and the richeſt part of his furniture. The Duke of Orleans, who is always one of the foremoſt of the quality of France in all religious duties, laid out two millions of livres in buying up corn, which he diſtributed at a low price among the inhabitants of Berry, Maine, and Anjou, and in the countries belonging to the domains of the houſe of Orleans: likewiſe the Hôtel de Ville at Paris, ordered a certain quantity of beans and Iriſh butter to be delivered to each curate in that city and ſuburbs, to be diſtributed by them among the poor of their reſpective pariſhes; and the chapter of St Martin at Tours, as well as ſeveral other religious communities, forgave many of their farmers the rents of the current year, in order to enable them to ſupport their families, during that ſcarcity.

New manufactures ſet up.

Theſe charities ſhew the care the French take of their poor in time of diſtreſs; and to prevent their being ſo, all poſſible care is taken to encourage the ſetting up of manufactures in that kingdom. Among others, there was in November a beautiful piece of cloth, made of rabbets fur, ſhewn to his Majeſty at Verſailles, who immediately gave encouragement for the making more of the ſort; and at the ſame time, three pieces of flannel, as good as any made in England, and which could be afforded much cheaper, were alſo ſhewn to his Majeſty, and all proper encouragement promiſed, for improving that manufacture.

Gaming Houſes put down.

The Duke of Geſvres and the Prince of Carignan, having long had a permiſſion to have public gaming tables at their reſpective Hôtels, in the month of October, the King's advocate and his ſollicitor-general, the lieutenant criminal, and the lieutenant of Police at Paris, went to Cardinal FLEURY, and complained, that theſe gaming-houſes not only ruined many families, but were the cauſe of a great number of robberies, moſt of thoſe who had for ſome time before been executed for robberies, having confeſſed, that they were driven into that courſe of life by their misfortunes at play. Upon this the Cardinal repreſented the matter to the King, who immediately ordered, that a ſtop ſhould be put to the ſource of this grievance; but as theſe two noblemen had by a long poſſeſſion acquired a ſort of property in the revenue or profits that accrued by this grievance, the French government would not ſhut up theſe public gaming-houſes, till they had found means to indemnify the Duke of Geſvres and the Prince of Carignan, which ſhews how much regard is had even in France to any thing that looks like private property; and at the ſame time it ſhews how inconvenient and dangerous it is to allow any man to acquire a property, in what may afterwards appear to be inconſiſtent with the public good.

1740. The French fleet ſailed to America.

Subſtance of the French manifeſto thereupon.

The French having equipped a ſquadron of men of war at Thoulon, and another at Breſt, this year they ſailed to the Weſt-Indies, arriving at Martinico in September and October, but meeting with ſtormy weather they were forced to remain there a conſiderable time to refit, before they were in a condition for action; in the mean time the French court publiſhed a manifeſto, from whence it is eaſy to conjecture what was the original deſign of their voyage; for in this manifeſto his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty cenſures the Britiſh court for abruptly breaking off the conferences at the Convention, and beginning hoſtilities in America before war was declared; he obſerves, that France had on her own part great cauſe of complaint againſt England, many French ſhips having been ſtopt and viſited by her cruiſers, and other violences committed by them, but the King had connived at theſe infractions till he ſaw the Engliſh not only make war on the Spaniards at ſea, but demoliſh the forts of Porto-Bello and Chagre, in order to carry on a contraband trade to the prejudice of the commerce of all other European nations; that he had repreſented to the Britiſh Ambaſſador, that how patient ſoever France had ſhewn herſelf, it could not be expected ſhe ſhould look with an indifferent eye upon the enterprizes the Engliſh nation were forming in America; *or, that the King would ſuffer them to make any ſettlement in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies*; which the Britiſh Ambaſſador not giving any ſatisfactory anſwer to, the King judged he ought no longer to defer cauſing his ſhips to be equipped, *and put himſelf in a condition to prevent a danger which became every day more preſſing*; for England had cauſed eight thouſand regular troops to embark, in order to join thoſe which ſhe had ordered to be raiſed in her colonies, and not doubting of ſucceſs, had foretold as a thing certain the conqueſt of the Havanna and Carthagena; and that the manifeſto ſent by the Lord Cathcart to be publiſhed in America, ſufficiently explained the tendency of theſe prodigious armaments, of which the like had not been ſeen.

It was then the King found he had not a moment to loſe, in order to defeat thoſe projects which would have deſtroyed the balance of commerce in Europe, and that he had at the ſame time taken ſuch precautions at Dunkirk, as might prevent any ſurprize from Engliſh pyrates, which the inſults his ſhips had undergone rendered the more neceſſary; and though the court of London had expreſſed the ſharpeſt reſentments at it, France had contented herſelf with raiſing only four batteries there without any fortifications, from which it was eaſy to judge which ſide ought to be charged with the infraction of treaties.

Sir Chaloner Ogle, and Cathcart ſail to America.

From this manifeſto nothing is more evident, than that France intended to join the Spaniſh fleet which ſailed to America about the ſame time, and to have prevented the Engliſh attacking any of their ſettlements in that part of the world; and as the moſt effectual means of doing this, probably would have deſtroyed the ſquadron of men of war and tranſports which were intended for Jamaica in their paſſage thither, but very fortunately for England contrary winds and ſtorms prevented Cathcart's ſailing with the land forces ſo ſoon as was intended, and the ſame ſtormy weather ſo ſhattered the French and Spaniſh ſquadrons, that they were rendered unfit for action when they arrived there: and the Britiſh miniſtry being now ſufficiently apprized of the deſigns of France, ſent ſuch a ſtrong fleet, under the command of Sir Chaloner Ogle, to convoy the land forces to Jamaica, that the Britiſh fleets became much ſuperior to the united fleets of France and Spain in that part of the world; and thereupon the French fleet was ordered to return back to Europe, after the Spaniards had reinforced their garriſons in America; and poſſibly the French might bring over part of the treaſure of the Galleons with them; but this was all the effect of their mighty armament and threats, and they had ſoon after ſo much buſineſs upon their hands in Europe, on the death of the Emperor, that they left the Spaniſh ſettlements in America to ſhift for themſelves, and the Britiſh commanders there were at full liberty to invade or attack what part of Spaniſh America they ſaw fit, without interruption; what ſucceſs they met with there may be ſeen in the Modern Hiſtory of Spain, in the mean time the Breſt and Thoulon ſquadrons returned to their reſpective ports in Europe in a very weak condition, having loſt by ſtorms or ſickneſs three thouſand men 'tis ſaid.

France did not only ſuffer by this diſappointment in the Weſt-India expedition, but by prodigious inundations in all parts of that kingdom; this winter a third part of Paris was laid under water, and Lyons, Rouen, and other great towns ſuffered extremely, boats plyed in their ſtreets inſtead of coaches; and in the country the lands were overflowed for many miles, horſes, ſheep, and oxen, driven down the ſtream; nothing was able to reſiſt the force of the numerous torrents, multitudes of people, as well as cattle and houſes, were deſtroyed.

The Emperor Charles VI. dies.

But among the loſſes and diſappointments the French ſuſtained about this time, there was one event by which they hoped to reſtore their affairs, and make as conſiderable a figure in Europe as ever their anceſtors had done, and that was the death of the late Emperor Charles VI, which happened on the twentieth day of October 1740, N. S.

Several months after the death of this Prince, the French court expreſſed the higheſt friendſhip for the Queen of Hungary, his eldeſt daughter, who ſucceeded to all his hereditary dominions, and promiſed to perform their engagements relating to the guaranty of the Pragmatick Sanction, but at the ſame time augmented their forces and marched great bodies of their troops towards the frontiers of Germany; but in the beginning of Auguſt 1741, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty began to pull off the maſk, by publiſhing a declaration of the following tenor, viz.

The French King's reaſons for invading the Empire.

That ſome Electors and Princes of the Empire had informed him (as being guarantee of the treaty of Weſtphalia) of their uneaſineſs at the King of Great Britain's aſſembling a conſiderable body of troops, which might be made uſe of to influence the approaching election of an Emperor, or be employed againſt ſome member of the Empire: and therefore, in order to make good his engagements, he had cauſed ſome troops to advance towards the Rhine, that they might be ready to march to the ſuccour of the Electors and Princes who ſhould claim his guarantee, and that this ſtep ought not to be interpreted as acting contrary to the Pragmatick Sanction: his ſole view being the preſervation of the tranquillity of Germany, and the protecting the freedom of the election of an Emperor, and immediately after a French army of near forty thouſand men, commanded by the Marſhals BROGLIO and BELLEISLE, paſſed the Rhine at fort Lewis, and marched towards Bavaria, while another army of thirty thouſand men, commanded by Marſhal MAILLEBOIS, marched into Weſtphalia, where they were joined by the forces of the Elector of Palatine and the Elector of Cologn.

Conſtitutes the Duke of Bavaria General.

And another declaration was ſoon after publiſhed, wherein his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty ſets forth, that the Elector of Bavaria having demanded ſuccours of him, to fruſtrate the deſigns of his enemies, he was inclined to ſend an auxiliary army into his dominions, having himſelf an intereſt in ſupporting that prince; and had conſtituted him his Lieutenant-General, to repreſent his perſon in his army in Germany, as well over the French as foreigners, to oppoſe the deſigns of his enemies, and even enter their dominions, beſiege and take their towns, give them battle, &c.

Dated at Verſailles, Aug. 20, 1741.

The Hanover miniſtry obtain a neutrality.

The march of the French army into Weſtphalia, and even to the frontiers of Hanover, ſo terrified and confounded that miniſtry, who were not in a condition to oppoſe them, that the French charge them with begging a neutrality for that Electorate, and promiſing a vote for the Duke of Bavaria in the approaching election of an Emperor, on condition their forces would advance no further: and we began to be in ſome pain, leſt his Britiſh Majeſty ſhould be ſurrounded by the armies of France and Pruſſia, and prevented returning to his dominions. And now the French court ordered their Thoulon ſquadron, commanded by DE COURT their Admiral, to ſet ſail for the coaſt of Spain, (which he did on the 9th of October, N. S.) and took upon him to protect the Spaniſh fleet againſt Admiral HADDOCK, as is related in the Modern Hiſtory of Spain.

The French protect the Spaniſh fleet againſt Admiral HADDOCK.

The King of Pruſſia reduces Sileſia, and is joined by the King of Poland.

The French were encouraged to invade the Empire, and inſult Great Britain in this manner, not only by the Elector of Bavaria, who laid claim to the Auſtrian dominions, but by the King of Pruſſia, who, notwithſtanding his pretended friendſhip for the Queen of Hungary, invaded her duchy of Sileſia within two months after the late Emperor's death, and by this time had made almoſt an entire conqueſt of that province, being joined afterwards by the Elector of Saxony (King of Poland) who formed pretenſions alſo on the Auſtrian dominions, as will be ſeen more at large in the Modern Hiſtory of Germany.

The Duke of Bavaria invades Auſtria.

About the ſame time that the French court publiſhed the declaration with their pretenſions for invading the Empire, the Elector of Bavaria aſſembled his forces near Scharding, and took poſſeſſion of the city of Paſſau on the Danube, which facilitated his march into Auſtria, and in the beginning of September he penetrated into the Upper Auſtria, and took poſſeſſion of Lintz, the capital city thereof; from thence he continued his march ſo near Vienna, that the Queen of Hungary and her court removed from thence, expecting to be beſieged, but the Elector afterwards bent his march another way, and entered Bohemia, where ſeveral detached parties of his army had already taken ſome poſts of conſequence; and in November the King of Poland cauſed a large body of his Saxon troops to aſſemble on the frontiers of Bohemia, and having joined the French and Bavarians near Prague, the capital of that kingdom, they took that city by ſurprize on the twenty-ſixth of November, and made the garriſon priſoners of war: but while the French and their allies were ſo ſucceſsful in Bohemia, the Auſtrians defeated ſeveral bodies of their troops in Upper Hungary, retook Ents and ſome other towns on that ſide: however, it appears that the Queen of Hungary was ſtill in imminent danger of being overpowered by her enemies, for the King of Pruſſia had entered into a formal alliance with France, before their army paſſed the Rhine, to which the Electors of Bavaria and Saxony acceded; the conditions whereof 'tis ſaid were, that the kingdom of Bohemia, with the Upper Auſtria and Tyrol, ſhould be given to the Duke of Bavaria; the Upper Sileſia, and Moravia to the Elector of Saxony; and the lower Sileſia, with the town and territory of Nieſs, and the town and county of Glatz, to the King of Pruſſia.

Bohemia invaded by the Bavarians, French, and Saxons.

They ſupprize Prague.

An alliance between France, Bavaria, Pruſſia, and Saxony, to ſhare the Auſtrian dominions among them.

The Queen of Hungary's Speech in her diſtreſs.

In their diſtreſs the Queen of Hungary having aſſembled the ſtates of that kingdom, made a ſpeech to them in Latin of the following tenor.

'The perplexed ſituation wherein I find myſelf, by the permiſſion of the divine providence, is attended with ſuch dangerous circumſtances, that I ſee no hopes of extricating myſelf, unleſs I am ſpeedily and powerfully ſuccoured. —— Abandoned by my friends, perſecuted by my enemies, attacked by my neareſt relations; the only reſource I have left is to ſtay in this kingdom, and commit my perſon, my children, my ſcepter and crown, to the care of my faithful ſubjects. I don't heſitate a moment to entruſt them with all, their courage and loyalty leave no room to doubt that they will employ all their forces to de-

‘ ſend me as well as themſelves ſpeedily and ‘ reſolutely in this mournful conjuncture.’

While her Majeſty ſpoke the whole aſſembly diſſolved in tears, and unanimouſly cried out, We will ſupport the Queen; we will defend her againſt her enemies; we will ſacrifice our lives and fortunes for her; and they made good their reſolutions by their future actions.

Practices for electing the Duke of Bavaria Emperor.

In the mean time the French were driving on their grand deſign of placing the Duke of Bavaria on the Imperial throne, by their Ambaſſador Marſhal BELLEISLE, in which they did not make any great progreſs, till the King of Pruſſia entred into that alliance with France and Bavaria already mentioned; but then his Pruſſian Majeſty and the King of Poland declaring for Bavaria, and the Elector of Mentz; ſoon after the Elector of Hanover was obliged to follow their example, to obtain a neutrality for his German dominions, which lay expoſed to the attacks both of the French and the King of Pruſſia, with whom the court of Hanover had no very good underſtanding; it was agreed alſo by the Electors in the French intereſt, to ſuſpend the Queen of Hungary's vote as Queen of Bohemia, to which the Elector of Hanover made no oppoſition, any more than the other Electors, who were all of them indeed under French influence at this time, overawed by the numerous forces on their frontiers, or in the heart of their dominions: the Elector of Bavaria made his publick entry into the city of Prague on the 9th of December, and was that evening proclaimed King of Bohemia, and on the 13th of January he was elected King of the Romans and Emperor of Germany at Franckfort, and he was crowned there the 21ſt of the ſame month.

He is proclaimed King of Bohemia, and Emperor.

1741-2.

The Queen of Hungary recovers Upper Auſtria, and reduces Bavaria.

Her Hungarian Majeſty however proteſted againſt it, declared the election void, and her Generals did not only recover the Upper Auſtria, but reduced all the duchy of Bavaria, obliging the capital city of Munich to ſurrender.

Action at Budweis

Marſhal BROGLIO, who commanded the forces of the allies in Bohemia, receiving advice of the progreſs of the Auſtrians in Bavaria, aſſembled his forces and attacked Prince CHARLES of Lorrain, in his intrenchments at Budweis; four attempts were repulſed with very great loſs.

Moravia invaded.

On the other hand, the Pruſſians made themſelves maſters of the capital city of Olmuts, and almoſt all Moravia; about the ſame time the French accommodated the differences between his Pruſſian Majeſty, and the Elector Palatine, concerning the ſucceſſion to Bergues and Juliers, which the King of Pruſſia yielded up 'tis ſaid, on condition the French would guarantee Sileſia to him.

Italian war commences.

The war in Italy, which commenced at this time between the Spaniards and Auſtrians, will be treated of in the modern hiſtory of that country. I ſhall only obſerve here, that when the French Ambaſſador demanded a paſſage for fifteen thouſand of the Spaniſh troops, to join with thoſe already in Italy, the King of Sardinia declared he ſhould oppoſe the attempts of any power that ſhould endeavour to diſturb the repoſe of Italy.

Remittances from England and Holland to the Queen of Hungary.

France, in order to ſupply her exhauſted treaſury, this year extended the tax of the tenth penny or two ſhillings in the pound, to mechanicks, and manufacturers, which occaſioned an inſurrection at Lyons; on the other hand, the Queen of Hungary's Generals levied conſiderable contributions in Bavaria, and began now to receive large remittances from Great Britain, and the States-General, to enable her to make head againſt the French and their allies.

The Daniſh mercenaries return home.

British troops embark for Flanders.

At this critical juncture, the treaty of ſubſidy between Great Britain and Denmark expiring, the Daniſh troops returned home; and 'tis ſaid, agreed to enter into the ſervice of France; but however that was, the new miniſtry in Great Britain thought proper to embark a good body of forces in April, in order to oppoſe the deſigns of the French and their allies, who proceeded to reduce ſuch places in Bohemia, as remained in poſſeſſion of the Auſtrians; and Marſhal BROGLIO having inveſted Egra, that town ſurrendered to him on, on the eighth of April.

Battle between the Pruſſians and Auſtrians.

The Pruſſians and Saxons quit the French intereſt.

Prince CHARLES of Lorrain in the mean time obliged the Pruſſians to evacuate Moravia, and following them into Bohemia, there was a ſmart engagement between the two armies, in which both ſides claimed the victory: another engagement happened in Bohemia, between Prince LOBKOWITZ and the two French Marſhals, BROGLIO and BELLEISLE, in which the Auſtrians ſeem to have had the worſt of it: however the Auſtrians ſoon after became ſuperior to the French in Bohemia, for the King of Pruſſia made peace with her Hungarian Majeſty, on condition of her confirming Sileſia to him, and the Saxons about the ſame time quitted the intereſt of France; and now the French were left in Bohemia, to contend almoſt ſingly with the forces of the Houſe of Auſtria, for the Emperor was able to afford them but little aſſiſtance; the reaſon of this ſudden change in the Pruſſians and Saxons, is ſaid to be, that they began to diſcover the treachery of the French, in ſetting the German Princes together by the ears, and making them weaken one another, that they might have an opportunity of ſubduing their country with the greater eaſe.

The French ſhut up in Prague.

The French Marſhals BROGLIO and BELLEISLE being thus deſerted, were forced to ſhut themſelves up in the city of Prague, while the Auſtrians cut off their proviſions on every ſide, and reduced them to the laſt neceſſity: but ſeveral ſmart actions happened between the Auſtrians and the French, during this blockade, in which ſometimes one ſide had the advantage and ſometimes the other.

A new ſubſidy treaty with Denmark.

Hanoverians and Heſſians march to Flanders.

In the mean time the Britiſh court out-bidding the French, entered into another ſubſidy treaty with Denmark, and took eight thouſand Danes into their pay. And the regency of Hanover received orders to detach ſixteen thouſand Hanoverians, and ſix thouſand Heſſians in the Britiſh pay, to the Auſtrian Netherlands; a conſiderable train of artillery alſo was embarked at the Tower of London for Flanders, which ſhewed that the King of Great Britain was now in earneſt, and determined to make the Queen of Hungary's cauſe his own.

1742. Another French

The French marching another army through Germany this year, commanded by Marſhal MAILLEBOIS, the Auſtrians were obliged to quit army enters Germany and relieves Belle-isle.

quit Bavaria, and Marſhal Belleisle found means to eſcape out of Bohemia in the depth of winter, with the greateſt part of the garriſon of Prague (amounting to ſixteen thouſand men) many of whom periſhed by the ſeverity of the ſeaſon, the fatigue they ſuffered in forced marches, and by the Huſſars and Croats, who ſkirmiſhed with them continually in their retreat, till they reached Egra.

The Engliſh march from Flanders to Germany. 1743.

In February following the troops of the King of Great Britain in Flanders, conſiſting of Engliſh, Hanoverians, Heſſians, and Flemmings, began their march towards Germany; and the latter end of April his Majeſty and the Duke of Cumberland embarked for Holland; about the ſame time his Imperial Majeſty thought fit to retire from Franckfort and reſide at Munich, demanding at the ſame time of the circle of the Upper Rhine, that they ſhould furniſh the French army commanded by Marſhal Noailles with proviſions, on his entrance into Germany: The Earl of Stair, who commanded the Britiſh forces in their march to Germany, ſignified to the ſeveral Princes of the Empire, that he had no orders to act againſt the Emperor, but only to oblige the French to leave Germany: at the ſame time he preſſed the Dutch to join him with the twenty thouſand men they had promiſed the Queen of Hungary; but that cautious republick ſtill delayed to give orders for their march, terrified, as 'tis ſaid, by the French miniſters, who threatned them with certain ruin if they joined the Britiſh forces, and magnified the power of their Grand Monarch, as if his forces were irreſiſtable amounting at this time to four hundred thouſand men, and his revenues anſwerable as they gave out: However, the Dutch did at length order the twenty thouſand men to march and follow the Britiſh forces into Germany, but they were ſo very ſlow in their motions, that they were at a conſiderable diſtance when the battle was fought at Dettingen, between the forces of Great Britain, and the French commanded by Marſhal Noailles near Dettingen, on the banks of the Mayne.

The Dutch forces march after them.

Bohemia and Bavaria almoſt recovered again by the Auſtrians.

But before I come to give a further account of that battle, it may be proper to obſerve what was doing in Bohemia and Bavaria, and in both thoſe countries we find the Auſtrians very ſucceſſful this campaign, but the moſt conſiderable action was at Brunau in Bavaria, where the French and Bavarians were defeated on the firſt of June N. S. by the Auſtrian Generals, and loſt between four and five thouſand men; ſoon after which Landſhut, Deckendorf, and moſt of the towns in Bavaria, ſubmitted to the Queen of Hungary a ſecond time; whereupon the Emperor abandoned Munich again, and reſorted to Augſburg a neutral city.

The Engliſh paſs the Rhine and Mayne.

In the mean time the Engliſh and Auſtrians continued their march into the Empire, and paſſed the Rhine and afterwards the Mayne near Franckfort, of which Marſhal Noailles receiving advice, and underſtanding that not only the Dutch but the Hanoverians and Heſſians, were at a great diſtance from them, aſſembled an army of thirty thouſand men, paſſed the Rhine, with a deſign to attack the Engliſh before they were joined, of which the Earl of Stair had notice juſt time enough to retire over the Mayne, and encamp at Hochſt, near Hannau: the Engliſh ſome few days after continued their march up the Mayne to Aſchaffenburg, whereupon the French paſſed the Mayne with part of their army at Selingenſtat, and thereby endeavoured to cut off the communication of the Engliſh with Hannau, which their Generals being apprized of, quitted Aſchaffenburg, and on the fifteenth at night marched back again towards Hannau; this the French obſerving, took poſſeſſion of Aſchaffenburg and ſome other poſts, whereby they cut off the communication of the Engliſh, with moſt of the towns from whence they received their proviſions on that ſide; they alſo planted their cannon on the ſouthern bank of the Mayne to annoy the Engliſh which ever way they ſhould attempt to march, and diſengage themſelves, and thus hemmed in, they depended that the Engliſh muſt have periſhed for want of ſubſiſtence, or laid down their arms; and all accounts agreed, that the Britiſh forces were in great danger of ſtarving, and had already ſuffered very much for want of food: but the French 'tis ſaid loſt all theſe advantages by the Duke of Gramont's attacking the Engliſh contrary to his orders, for the French were driven back again over the Mayne with very great ſlaughter, and if the Earl of Stair's advice had been followed, their whole army had been ruined. The greateſt loſs the Engliſh ſuſtained, was from the batteries of cannon on the Mayne, and a furious attack of the French black muſketeers who were almoſt all cut to pieces; but having already given a particular account of the battle of Dettingen in the Modern Hiſtory of Germany, I ſhall not enlarge upon it here, only obſerve that the Earl of Stair ſoon after the battle reſigned his poſt of General, and ſome other great men threw up their commiſſions, obſerving their advice or orders not attended to, and conſequently they were diſabled from doing their country that ſervice which might have been expected from them.

Dettingen battle.

Prague & Egra retaken.

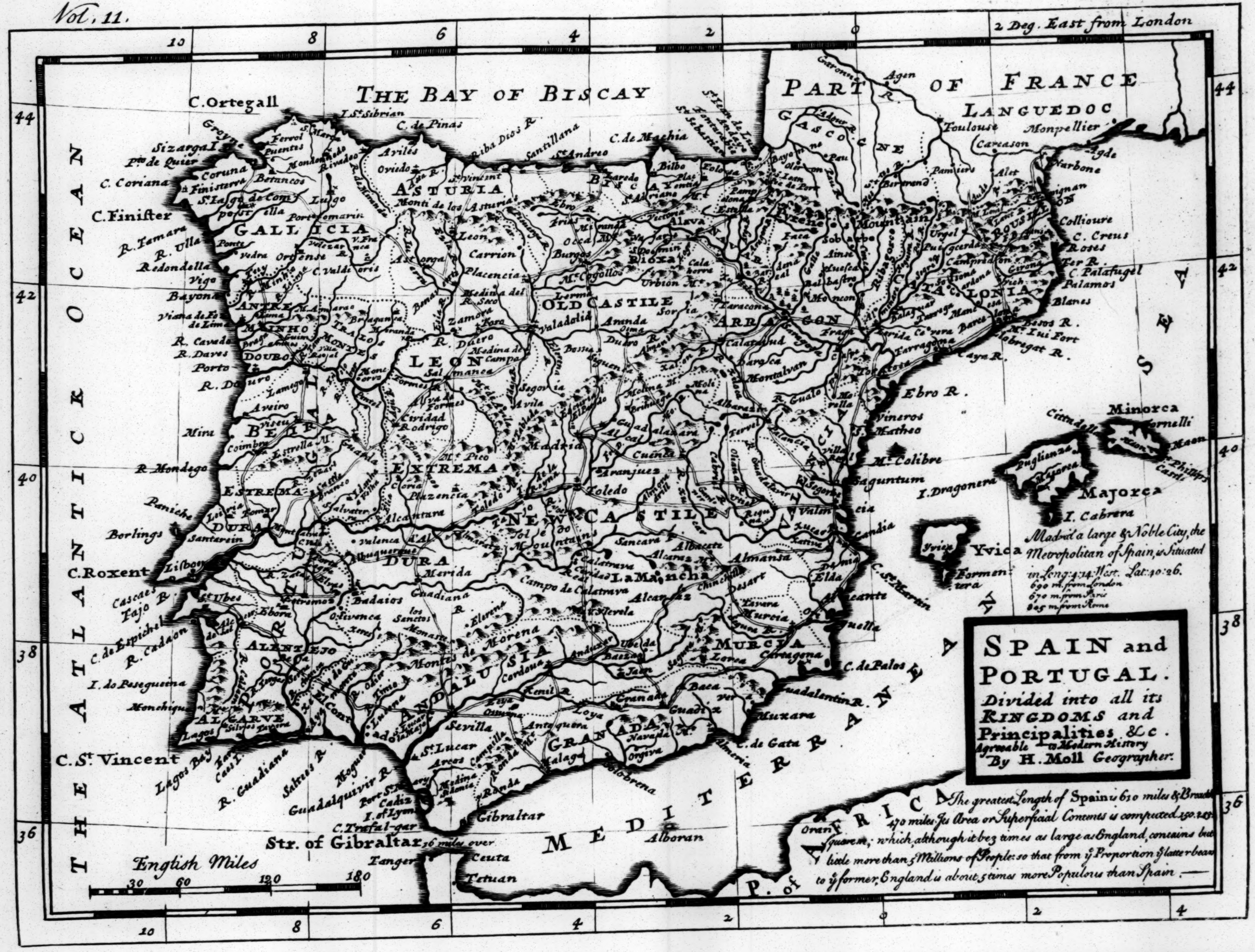
The Emperor neuter.

The French retire out of Germany.

Egra ſurrendering about this time to the Auſtrians, as Prague had done before, and Bavaria being reduced, the Emperor's General Count Seckendorf agreed to a neutrality, and the Emperor returned to Franckfort. Whereupon the French retired over the Rhine, to which river Prince Charles of Lorrain advanced with a deſign to paſs it, if the Engliſh would have made a diverſion on the Lower Rhine, but they contented themſelves with marching into the Palatinate, the Dutch forces attending then at ſome diſtance, and when the French retired into their own territories near Landau, neither the Engliſh or Dutch would be perſuaded to advance beyond the frontiers, as it muſt infallibly have occaſioned a war with France, which Marſhal Noailles being ſufficiently apprized of, detached great part of his forces to the Upper Rhine, to oppoſe Prince Charles's paſſing that river, and this rendered all that Prince's deſigns abortive; for unleſs the Engliſh and Dutch would have agreed to invade the territories of France, on the ſide of Landau, and made a diverſion, the army of France under Prince Maurice of Saxony on the oppoſite ſide of the Rhine, would have been much ſuperior to that of the prince, and in ſuch circumſtances it would have endangered the loſs of his whole army if he had attempted it.

The German war was ſcarce commenced when Cardinal Fleury died, and poſſibly had never been proſecuted if he had lived; for it is obſerved of that prelate, that he had ſo happy a talent at negotiation, that he made greater acquiſitions to the French monarchy by treaties, than Lewis the fourteenth had done by conqueſt; he was ſo perfectly verſed in the art of corrupting the powers of Europe, or their miniſters, that he ſeldom had occaſion to make uſe of force to accompliſh any of his projects.

3 MA 53



SPAIN and PORTUGAL.
Divided into all its
KINGDOMS and
Principalities &c.
Agreeable to Modern History
By H. Moll Geographer.

Madrid a large & Noble City, the Metropolitan of Spain, is Situated in Long: 4:14: West. Lat: 40:26.
690 m. from London
670 m. from Paris
805 m. from Rome

The greatest Length of Spain is 610 miles & Breadth 470 miles Its Area or Superficial Contents is computed 150.295 square m. which, although it be 3 times as large as England, contains but little more than 5 Millions of People: so that from ye Proportion ye latter bears to ye former, England is about 5 times more Populous than Spain.—

2 Deg. East from London
THE BAY OF BISCAY
PART OF FRANCE
LANGUEDOC
GASCOGNE
THE ATLANTICK OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
P. of
ASTURIA
GALLICIA
OLD CASTILE
ARRAGON
CATALONIA
LEON
EXTREMADURA
NEW CASTILE
La Mancha
MURCIA
ANDALUSIA
GRANADA
ENTRE MINHO DOURO
TRAZ OS MONTES
BEIRA
ESTREMADURA
ALENTEJO
ALGARVE
Minorca
Majorca
Yvica
Formentera
I. Cabrera
I. Dragonera
C. Ortegall
C. Finister
C. Roxent
C. St. Vincent
Str. of Gibraltar 16 miles over
Gibraltar
Ceuta
Tetuan
Tanger
Alboran
Oran
Madrid
Toledo
Lisbon
Porto
Sevilla
Cadiz
Cordoua
Granada
Valencia
Barcelona
Saragosa
Valadolid
Burgos
Salamanca
English Miles
30 60 120 180
10 8 6 4 2 0 2 4
44 42 40 38 36

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
SPAIN.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the ſituation and extent of Spain; of its name and original inhabitants; of the air, the face of the country, mountains, rivers, plants, animals and minerals.

CHAP. I.

Situation and extent

SPAIN, including Portugal, once a province of it, is the moſt weſtern part of the continent of Europe; being bounded by the ſea, or bay of Biſcay, on the north; by the Pyrenean mountains and the Mediterranean ſea towards the eaſt; by the Mediterranean and the Atlantick ocean on the ſouth; and by the ſame ocean on the weſt: extending from the thirty-ſixth to the forty-fourth degree of north latitude, and taking up thirteen degrees of longitude; Cape Creus, or the moſt eaſterly part of it, lying three degrees to the eaſtward of London, and Cape Finiſterre, or the moſt weſtern part, ten degrees to the weſtward of London: ſo that its breadth from north to ſouth in a direct line is exactly 490 miles, and its length from eaſt to weſt about 680 miles. The form of it is generally ſaid to reſemble an ox-hide ſpread upon the floor, of which the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from France on the north-eaſt, may be reckoned the neck.

Name.

The moſt ancient names we meet with of this country, are thoſe of *Iberia* and *Heſperia*; the firſt of which it is ſaid to have obtained from its being looked upon as the end of the world, the word *Iberia* ſignifying as much: or according to others, from the river *Iberus*, now Ebro. The Greeks gave it the name of *Heſperia*, on account of its weſtern ſituation in regard to them, *Heſperus* ſignifying the weſtern or evening ſtar. The ſtory of its having had two Kings called IBERUS and HESPERUS, who communicated their names ſucceſſively to this country, is looked upon as fabulous. As to the common name of *Spania*, (Spain) or *Hiſpania*, or as it is called by the Spaniards, *Eſpania*; this, a French writer of credit is of opinion, was given it by the Phenicians, from the vaſt flock of lapwings they found here, *Sepana* in their language ſignifying a lapwing; and in confirmation of this opinion it is urged, that upon the Emperor ADRIAN's medals, the lapwing is the device for Spain.

Original Inhabitants.

There is no manner of certainty as to the original inhabitants of this country; only in general it is very reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that is was peopled either by the Gauls, who lay contiguous to it, or from the coaſt of Barbary, from which it is ſeparated by a very narrow ſtreight, called the Streight of Gibralter.

CHAP. I.

The Phenicians, or Canaanites, were the next that planted colonies here, who being obliged to abandon their country to the Iſraelites, coaſted along the Mediterranean ſeas, ſettling themſelves firſt at Carthage on the African ſide, and afterwards on the Iſland of Cades or Gades near the continent of Europe. Here they trafficked with the people of the country, and either by permiſſion or force built ſeveral towns and fortreſſes on the main land, as Malaga, Andera, &c. The inhabitants of Marſeilles, who were originally Phocians, a people of Greece, that ſubſiſted by trade and navigation as the Phenicians did, planted colonies in the moſt eaſtern parts of Spain, between the Pyrenees and the river Ebro, building the town of Rhodes, now Roſes, and ſeveral other places on the coaſt of Catalonia. But the Phenicians becoming the moſt conſiderable maritime power, poſſeſſed themſelves at length of all the ſouth part of Spain, which they held without a rival for between two and three hundred years, till the Romans, jealous of their power, entered into a war with them about the year 513 from the foundation of Rome, and compelled them to relinquiſh that part of Spain which lies to the eaſtward of the Ebro. By a ſecond war, which ended A. R. 553, the Carthaginians were obliged to abandon the reſt of their territories in Spain to the conquering Romans. The northern parts however being mountainous and difficult of acceſs, and poſſeſſed by ſeveral warlike nations, maintained their liberties for an hundred and ſeventy years afterwards, till the Emperor AUGUSTUS being at peace with the reſt of the world, determined to bring the whole country under his dominion; and notwithſtanding they held out ſome time among their rocks and almoſt impenetrable foreſts, being attacked on every ſide by ſuch numerous armies of veteran troops, they were at length obliged to ſurrender, whereby the Romans became maſters of all Spain. I ſhall not enter farther into the hiſtory of the country here, having reſerved a chapter on purpoſe to treat of the ancient and modern hiſtory of it, as uſual.

The air.

They generally breathe in Spain a pure dry air, hot, but exceeding healthful: indeed in ſome provinces it is moiſt, as in Galicia, and in Catalonia and the northern parts; and upon the mountains it is exceſſive cold in winter. In the reſt of the country it rarely rains, unleſs in ſpring and autumn: the heavens are ſerene, and the ſun is ſeldom intercepted by a ſingle cloud. The winter is ſo moderate in the valleys, that they have very little occaſion for fires nine months of the year. If there be ice ſometimes, it is not above the thickneſs of a crown-piece, and ſnow is hardly ever ſeen but near the mountains. The fields are covered with flowers and odoriferous herbs, at the time we are locked up in froſt. On the contrary, it muſt be confeſſed that during the months of June, July and Auguſt, the heats are inſupportable to foreigners, eſpecially in the heart of the country and towards the ſouth; the heat of the ſun at thoſe times is ſo intenſe, that many of their ſmall rivers and brooks are entirely dried up, and the roads and fields are inſufferably duſty; and what adds to the exceſſive heat, is the calmneſs of the ſummer ſeaſon, when we ſeldom meet with the leaſt breath of air, the wind not blowing ſo frequently as it does in more northern countries. Thoſe that live upon or near the mountains, or near the ſea-coaſt, indeed are often bleſſed with refreſhing breezes, and the nights are generally cool and refreſhing; nor is there any danger of continuing in the open air till midnight, as there is in ſome other hot countries.

Face of the country. Mountains

The face of the country is rough and uneven, encumbered with abundance of high mountains, whoſe tops ſeem to touch the clouds, ſome of them running the whole length of the country from eaſt to weſt: among theſe the Pyrenees have been always the moſt celebrated; nor are they inferior to the Alps, of which the poets have ſaid ſo many wonderful things. They ſeparate Spain from France, as has been obſerved already, extending from the Mediterranean to the Ocean, which is a ſpace of about eighty-five leagues, and the greateſt breadth of them is about forty-five. They begin at Port Vendres in Rouſſillon on the Mediterranean, and extend to Fontarabia on the bay of Biſcay, traverſing Catalonia and Arragon, and dividing Navarre into two parts: but in this ſpace it has ſeveral names, according to the countries it borders upon: in Rouſſillon it is divided into two branches, of which that that ſeparates it from Languedoc is called the Anti-Pyrenees, and that which divides it from Catalonia is called the Col de Pertuis. There are other branches of it bordering on theſe countries, called Mont Canigon, Sierra de Guara, Col de Praxa, Col de Argentiere and Port de Viella, Thoſe which divide Gaſcony from Arragon are the mountains of Jaca and St. Chriſtian, where is the famous Pic de Midi, reſembling a ſugar-loaf upon a table, which is ſaid to extend to the middle region of the air; and in Navarre, between Pampeluna and St. John de Pie de Port, we meet with the mountains of Adela and Roncevaux. The ancient geographers made the Pyrenees extend the whole length of Spain to the Atlantick ocean; nor were they much in the wrong, the reſt of the mountains of Spain ſeeming but branches of theſe. There are but five paſſages over that part of them which lie between France and Spain, and thoſe exceeding difficult and dangerous; but they are well planted with trees, and interſperſed with a great number of valleys.

The Sierra d' Occa, anciently called Mount Idubeda, is a mountain which iſſues from the Pyrenees, and extends to the Mediterranean ſea near Tortoſa, weſt of the Ebro. Another branch of it ſtretches from eaſt to weſt, traverſing the whole kingdom of Spain as far as Cape Finiſterra, running through Biſcay, part of Old Caſtile, and the two provinces of Leon and Galicia. In South Spain, below Mount Cayo, there iſſues a branch from this called Oroſpeda, which riſes inſenſibly, and near the mouth of the Tagus obtains the name of Sierra Morina, which ſtretching ſtill farther ſouth, is called Sierra d' Alcarez, where the river Guadalquivir riſes; then turning to the ſouth-weſt, it traverſes the kingdom of Grenada, and is continued to the Streights of Gibralter, where we ſee the celebrated Mount Calpe, oppoſite to Mount Abila in Africa; which two mounts are called **Hercules**'s pillars, the *ne plus ultra* of the ancients. There are abundance of other mountains of leſs note, which will be mentioned in the deſcription of the reſpective provinces.

Rivers.

Spain is ſaid to be watered with an hundred and fifty rivers, of which ſix only deſerve that name; viz. 1. The Ebro. 2. The Guadalquivir. 3. The Guadiana. 4. The Tagus. 5. The Duero. And, 6. The Minho.

The Ebro.

The Ebro, in Latin, *Iberus*, by ſome ſaid to have communicated its name to the whole country, from thence called *Iberia*, hath its ſource in the mountains of Aſturia. It riſes from two ſources, of which the principal is near the town of Fuenti Ebro, or Fountain Ebro, taking its name from this ſpring. It runs from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt near five hundred miles, receiving in its paſſage upwards of ſixty rivers, of which the moſt conſiderable is the Arragon in the province of that name, and the Segra in Catalonia. It traverſes good part of Old Caſtile and Biſcay, then enters Navarre, and inclining to the ſouthward, divides that province from Caſtile, and paſſing on to Tudela, becomes navigable for ſmall boats there. From Navarre it continues its courſe to the province of Arragon, which it divides almoſt in two equal parts, waſhing the walls of the city of Saragoſſa. From thence it runs on to Catalonia, and ſome miles below Tortoſa it throws itſelf into the Mediterranean with great rapidity, forming at its mouth the little iſlands of Alfaches.

This is almoſt the only navigable river in Spain, and even this is of little advantage to them, unleſs between Tortoſa and the ſea; for notwithſtanding it carries veſſels for the ſpace of two hundred and fifty miles down the ſtream, it runs with that rapid force that a boat cannot go up againſt the ſtream higher than Tortoſa, and it is very difficult to go down on account of the rocks which lie in the channel about twenty leagues from Saragoſſa. The water of it is eſteemed very wholeſom and palatable, on which account it is tranſported to moſt towns in the neighbourhood, and to diſtant provinces. Upon the concluſion of the firſt Punick war, the Ebro was made the boundary between the Roman and Carthaginian territories, from whence Spain was afterwards divided into two very unequal parts, viz. the Hither and the Further Spain in reſpect to Rome, that to the weſtward of the Ebro being nine times as large as the other.

Guadalquivir.

The Guadalquivir, anciently called Bœtis and Tarteſſus, and by the Moors, Vadalcabir, which ſignifies in Arabick a great river, was by corruption afterwards called Guadalquivir by the Spaniards. It riſes in the moſt eaſtern part of Andaluſia, on the confines of Grenada and Murcia, near the celebrated mountain called by the ancients Oroſpeda, and by the modern Spaniards, Sierra Segura; at the foot of which ſeveral rivulets riſe, and meeting together form a lake, from whence this river iſſues. It traverſes the whole length of Andaluſia from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, paſſing by Cordoua, Seville, and St. Lucar, falling into the Atlantick ocean about fifteen leagues ſouth-weſt of Seville, and eight to the northward of Cadiz. Its waters glide very gently along, and it is navigable as high as Seville for pretty large veſſels, and has the advantage of the tide ſo far; but is ſo full of ſands, that they frequently miſcarry. From Seville up to Cordoua it will carry only ſmall boats, and above Cordoua the rocks that lie in it ſpoil the navigation.

Guadiana.

The Guadiana, in Latin, *Anas*, riſes in New Caſtile, in the vaſt plains of Monteil, or la Mancha. It iſſues from certain lakes, called by the natives the lakes of Guadiana. It takes its courſe at firſt from eaſt to weſt, paſſing by Calatrava, Medelin, Merida, and Badajos in Eſtremadura, after which it turns about to the ſouthward, and falls into the Atlantick ocean near Agramonte. Both ancients and moderns relate abundance of odd ſtories of this river, as that it runs ten leagues under ground near Medelin, for which reaſon the Latins called it *Anas*, or the Duck; but this our modern geographers affirm is an error: thus much however is agreed to be true, that a little below its ſcource it paſſes between high mountains which prevent the ſight of it for three or four miles, after which it appears again in the lakes which the Spaniards call the Eyes of the Guadiana. Afterwards in its courſe a little above Calatrava, it is ſo covered with rocks which hang over it, and ruſhes, that the river does not appear. From Merida to Mertola, two towns about thirty-five leagues diſtant from each other, it is ſo full of rocks on the right and left, that no boat can go upon it, and it is very dangerous croſſing of it. In ſummer-time there is very little water in this river, and the little that remains does not ſeem to run. It appears among the rocks to have more of the nature of a torrent than a river, which, during the rainy ſeaſon, has rollen down great heaps of ſtones from time to time from the neighbouring mountains. It is no wonder therefore if ſome people have imagined that it had loſt itſelf under the earth, ſince it ſcarce appears for ſeveral miles during the ſcorching heats.

Tagus.

The Tagus is the largeſt and moſt conſiderable of all the rivers of Spain. The Portugueſe, who reap the greateſt advantage from it on account of trade, call it the King of rivers. It has its ſource in New Caſtile, near Albarazin, and runs about four hundred miles from eaſt to weſt, firſt taking its courſe over New Caſtile, and waſhing the walls of Toledo, paſſes by Almaras and Alcantara in the Spaniſh Eſtremadura, after which it enters the Portugueſe Eſtremadura, and paſſing on forms a little bay about a league over, which ſerves for a port to the city of Liſbon, and ſix or ſeven miles below falls into the Atlantick ocean. This river was famous anciently for its golden ſands, but I don't find there is any of that rich mineral to be met with in this river at preſent.

Duero.

The river Duero riſes on the confines of Navarre and Arragon, that part of the mountain Idubeda which goes under the name of Sierra de Cogollo, near the town of Aguillac del Campo. It firſt runs through the middle of Old Caſtile, and paſſing by Soria and Aranda, traverſes the kingdom of Leon, waſhing the walls of Tordeſillus, Toro and Zamora, and entering Portugal, after a winding courſe falls into the Atlantick Ocean a little below Porto. The entrance is very dangerous on account of the rocks and ſands that lie at the mouth of it, inſomuch that veſſels can only come in at high water. It runs about three hundred miles from eaſt to weſt, but is not navigable on account of the rocks and caſcades with which the paſſage is obſtructed.

Minho.

The Minho, the leaſt of the ſix Spaniſh rivers, riſes in the north-eaſt part of Galicia, near the town of Caſtro del Rey, and running ſouth-weſt through that province, paſſes by Luga Oreuſe and Thuy, falling into the Atlantick Ocean near the confines of Portugal.

Produce of the country according to the ancients.

If we were to follow the ancients in their deſcriptions of Spain, it would appear the richeſt, the pleaſanteſt, and the moſt beautiful country in the univerſe, little ſhort of a terreſtrial paradiſe. Some of them place the Elyſian fields here, while others aſſure us it is more fruitful than Africk or Gaul: that it is neither parched by the exceſſive heat of the ſun, as the former, nor diſturbed by winds and ſtorms like the latter: that it abounds in corn, wine, and the moſt delicious fruits: that their olives are to be preferred to thoſe of other nations, and their vines give place to none: that thoſe parts which do not produce corn afford excellent paſturage: but above all, that here are found all kind of precious minerals in the greateſt abundance, as gold, ſilver, &c. in their mountains, and their rivers carry golden ſands: that they had not only ſufficient of every thing deſirable to ſupply their own country, but ſerved as a granary to Rome, and almoſt all Italy: that the mountain Oroſpeda, which ſignifies the ſilver mount, obtained its name from the ſilver it produced: that in Galicia gold was ſo plentiful, that the huſbandman often broke up great pieces with his plow: that Luſitania and Aſturia were equally rich, where they ſometimes found pieces of gold of half a pound weight: And that to this country the ancients ſent their fleets in ſearch of theſe precious minerals as the Europeans now do theirs to the continent of America. The Phenicians, who firſt arrived at theſe happy ſhores, it is ſaid, found ſilver ſo very common among the Turdetani, that their moſt common utenſils and moveables were made with it; and that they purchaſed it of the natives for toys and baubles; and that having amaſſed ſuch prodigious quantities that their ſhips could not contain it, they were obliged to make anchors of the reſt.

This relation has certainly very much the air of fiction at this day, and yet is not entirely to be rejected: allowances indeed muſt be made for the poetical vein of their writers, and the eaſtern manner of expreſſion; they certainly never expected to be underſtood literally and ſtrictly, any more than the modern Aſiaticks or Italians; their words ought to be taken in the ſenſe they were underſtood at the time, and in the country they wrote; and as in prophane, ſo in ſacred ſtory the want of this caution has occaſioned a multitude of miſtakes. But to proceed: A late French writer ſeems to inſinuate, that the Tarſis from which

CHAP. I.

Hiram and Solomon fetched their treaſure, was ſituated in the ſouth-weſt part of Spain, there having been a town of that name between the branches of the river Bœtis, or Guadalquivir, and that river it ſelf, formerly called Tarteſſus. The ſituation of Tyre in the Levant ſea, and the Tyrians and Phenicians trading hither alſo, would render this ſurmiſe extremely probable, were it not expreſly ſaid, that theſe fleets of Hiram and Solomon were built in the Red Sea, in the land of Edom, and ſet ſail from thence, and conſequently muſt ſteer their courſe either to the Indian or African ſhores. I ſhall only obſerve further, that the Scripture ſays, ſilver was as plentiful in Jeruſalem as the ſtones of the ſtreet in the reign of King Solomon, which I hope few people underſtand literally, any more than they do the above-mentioned figurative expreſſions in prophane hiſtories. Having premiſed thus much from the concurrent teſtimony of the ancients, I make no manner of doubt but there were formerly mines of gold and ſilver in Spain, as there are no doubt ſtill, though not worth the working, ſince better are diſcovered; or, which is the ſame thing, others that may be wrought much cheaper. The richeſt ſilver mine the ancients diſcovered in Spain, was two or three miles diſtant from Carthagena, where forty thouſand workmen were continually employed, and yielded the Romans daily twenty-five thouſand drachms of that precious metal. Aſturia, Galicia and Luſitania, furniſhed them annually with twenty thouſand pounds weight of ſilver. Near the Pyrenees a mine was diſcovered which yielded Hannibal three hundred pounds a day. When Scipio Africanus took Carthagena in the ſecond Punick war, he found there two hundred and ſeventy-ſix thouſand cups or veſſels of gold, moſt of them of near a pound weight, a vaſt quantity of ſilver coin, and an infinite number of other ſilver veſſels and utenſils; by the riches of which one town, as my author obſerves, we may make ſome eſtimate of the reſt of Spain.

If it be demanded, what are become of thoſe rich mines that produced all this treaſure? Are they exhauſted that they have afforded no gold or ſilver for ſeveral ages? To which it is anſwered, there may be the ſame mines ſtill, but as gold and ſilver are of late years become more plentiful, and eaſier come at in other places, it may not be worth the while to open theſe. Before the gold on the coaſt of Africk, in China, and in the Eaſt Indies was diſcovered, and before we had any communication with Potoſi, and the other gold and ſilver mines of America, thoſe metals were more ſcarce, and conſequently more valuable than they are at preſent. and it might turn to a much better account to work them then than it does now: the ſlaves who dig in them alſo are maintained at a much leſs charge in the Indies than they could be in Spain, eſpecially ſince we are very well aſſured, that Spain was much better cultivated, and yielded greater quantities of corn and other proviſions, than it does under the management of the preſent lazy generation, who plant or ſow little more than will ſerve their own neceſſities; whereas the Romans drew a great deal of their proviſion from thence. But beſides the rich minerals above-mentioned, they have at this day good mines of quick-ſilver, ſulphur, lead, alom, copper, and the iron and ſteel of Biſcay is in the greateſt eſteem of any in Europe. Here are alſo found ſeveral kinds of precious ſtones, as agates, cornelians, garnets, cryſtal, marble, alabaſter and jaſper.

CHAP. I.

Produce of the country at preſent.

As to the produce of the earth at preſent, their mountains are generally covered with oaks, firtrees, and other excellent timber, and the lower parts of them with graſs and a variety of ſweet herbs, on which are fed large flocks of ſheep and goats the wool of the former eſteemed the fineſt in Europe, and without a mixture of which the moſt valuable cloths cannot be made. The Spaniſh wheat is excellent, and their bread would be equally good if it was not ſometimes ſpoiled in the making. They have plenty of barley, the food of their horſes and mules, but ſcarce any oats. They do not think it worth their while to make hay, though they have graſs enough, but feed their horſes and mules with ſtraw in the room of it: and indeed there is ſcarce any part of the year they want paſture for their flocks and herds, ſo that hay is by no means ſo neceſſary here as it is in colder countries, where our grounds yield little or nothing in winter. They have very rich wines, and in great plenty, ſuch as Malaga, Galicia, Alicant, Barcelona, and many others. Beſides the fruits common to us here, they abound in oranges, lemons, citrons, prunes, raiſins, olives, figs, capers, cheſnuts, pomegranates and almonds. Many medicinal and odoriferous herbs and flowers grow wild here, which with us will not arrive at any perfection with the utmoſt care; and their oil, wax and honey, is as good as any in Europe. There is ſo much ſilk grows in Spain, that it is ſaid to employ a million of people, in feeding, gathering and curing the worms; ſpinning, weaving, and other manufactures of ſilk or velvet. Other parts produce flax, hemp, cotton, ſugar, ſaffron, pitch, roſin, &c. And as to their animals, their horſes have always been eſteemed for their ſwiftneſs, as their mules are for their ſtrength, and being ſurefooted, on that account are generally uſed in travelling over this mountainous country: nor do they want very good horſes for draught. The fleſh of their ſheep is admired as well as the wool they produce; the fleſh of their goats and kids alſo is good food, and their hogs and dried bacon are reckoned equal to thoſe of Weſtphalia. Wild hogs, deer, rabbets, hares, fowl, and all manner of game, are plentiful, eſpecially in their mountains and foreſts, and the ſeas, which almoſt ſurround them, well ſtocked with fiſh. But of all theſe particulars I ſhall give a more diſtinct account in the deſcription of the reſpective provinces.

CHAP. II.

Treats of the perſons and habits of the Spaniards; of their genius and temper; diet, diverſions and way of travelling.

CHAP. II.

Perſons of the Spaniards.

THE Spaniſh men are generally tall and well made, but few of them corpulent. Their complexion is ſwarthy, their hair black, their features juſt, with briſk ſparkling eyes. They ſhave their beards, leaving long muſtachio's on the upper lip. The women are generally ſmall and ſlender, and value themſelves much on their pretty little feet, and fine hands and arms, and take abundance of pains to prevent their breaſts growing out of ſize, by binding plates of lead upon them.

Their habits.

The men who pretend to dreſs, part their hair, and tie it behind with ribbon. Their habits are generally black, and conſiſt of a fine ſhirt, a ſhort waiſtcoat, and breeches cloſe to their thighs; fine black ſtockings, and white thread underneath. On their feet they wear pumps made of very

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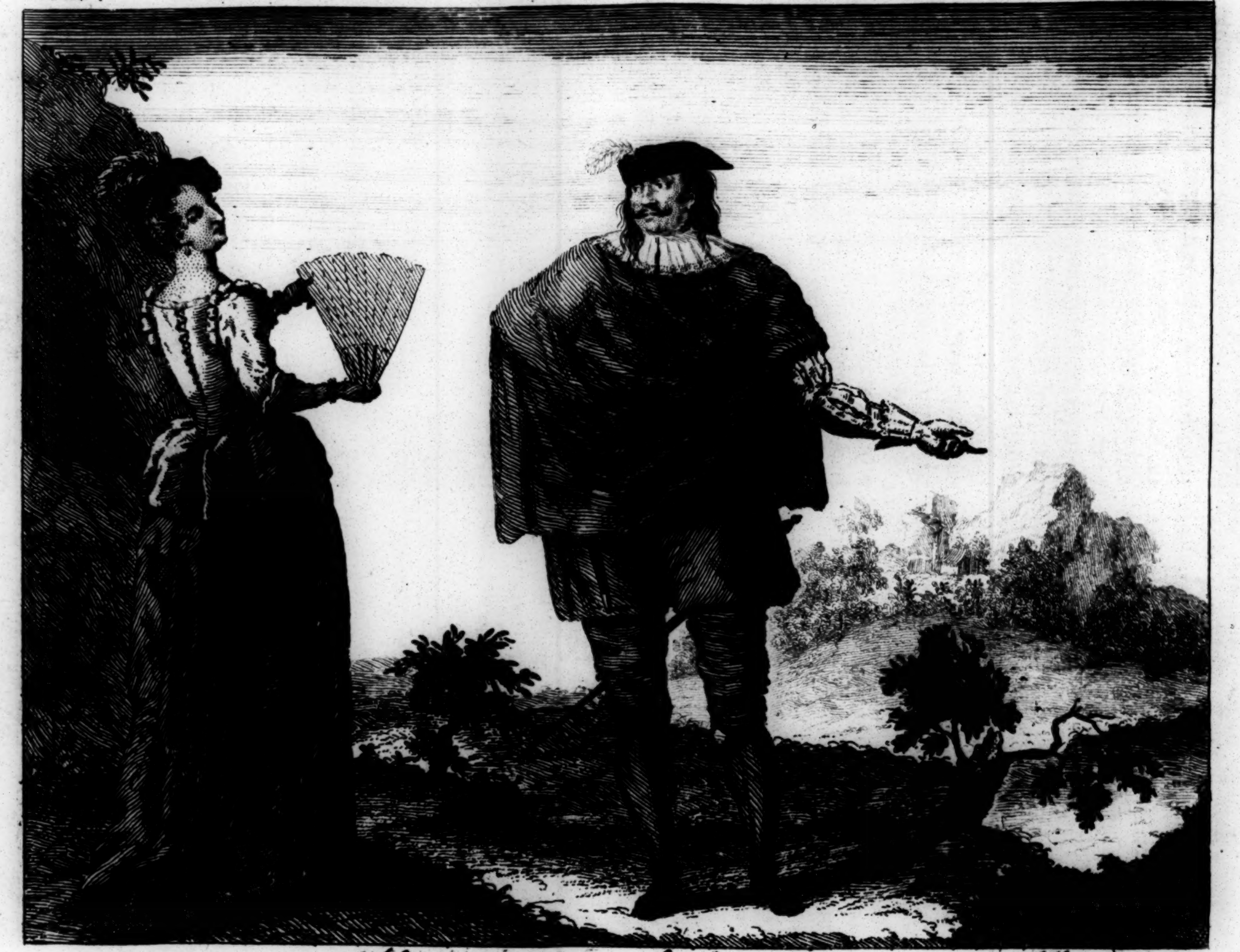

Habits of the Spaniards

I. Vander Gucht Sculp.

pliant leather; and every peaſant almoſt has a monſtrous long ſword on one ſide, and a dagger on the other. The collars of their waiſtcoats are ſtiff, and covered with a kind of ruff, but not ſo large as thoſe formerly worn in England, and over all they throw a ſhort cloak, but ſo contrive it as to have the right hand at liberty.

Their ladies paint their ſwarthy ſkins.

The ladies in Spain lay on their paint very thick, and are not at all aſhamed of it; and not only on their faces and hands, but a great way down their backs, for they wear their ſtays ſo low behind, that their tawny ſhoulders without it would make but a very indifferent appearance. They dreſs in their hair, wear ſtays, and fardingals, or hoops of braſs-wire, to bear out their clothes. Their gowns are black, and under them, it is ſaid, they wear half a dozen other garments. Their coats are ſo long that they trail upon the ground and hide their feet, for theſe they conceal as carefully as any of their hidden beauties. When they go abroad they wear a kind of clogs or pattens, which make them appear half a foot taller than they really are, and a veil which covers them from head to foot. Flanders lace, muſlin and fine linen are much worn by the quality, and moſt of them have ſeveral ſets of jewels. On the top of the ſtays the Spaniſh ladies wear a breaſt-plate of diamonds, to which there hangs a chain of pearl, or other precious jewels. Necklaces are not in uſe here, but they have abundance of bracelets upon their arms, and rings on their fingers, and ſuch weighty pendants in their ears, as ſtretches them to an unreaſonable length. The *Agnus Dei's*, and little images and pictures of the ſaints, may be reckoned part of their dreſs, for we ſeldom ſee either men or women without a great many of theſe trinkets, beſides their beads. Spaniſh gravity being become a proverb amongſt us, it is almoſt needleſs to obſerve with what deliberation they do every thing: their pace is ſo extremely ſlow, that at a little diſtance it is not eaſy to diſcern whether they move at all; and in ſhort, the air and mien of this people is the very reverſe of the French; and this brings me to treat of their genius and temper.

Their genius and temper. Natural and acquired parts.

The Spaniards are generally men of a piercing wit and elevated genius, but very little improved by ſtudy or converſation, for want of ſchools and academies where the ſciences are taught in the modern way; for thoſe that do ſtudy, apply themſelves chiefly to the ancient philoſophy or ſchool-divinity, and are ſuch ſlaves to the opinions of the ancients, that they will admit of no other ſyſtems. ARISTOTLE, SCOTUS, and ST. THOMAS, as they call him, are infallible oracles with them; and he would be thought a poor phyſician, who did not follow HIPPOCRATES, GALEN or AVICENNA. On the contrary, they ſlight the rules of the ancient poets, and take up with very mean compoſitions of their own; from whence my author obſerves, that they have neither good philoſophers, poets, or phyſicians among them; notwithſtanding which, he admires them for their wiſdom, ſecreſy, conſtancy, and patience in adverſity: he ſays they are ſlow in determining, but uſually conclude judiciouſly at laſt; that they are generous, magnificent, liberal, delicate in the point of honour, ſincere friends, agreeable companions, grave in their diſcourſe, true to their words, great enemies to lying, and extremely temperate in eating and drinking. As to their veracity, many ſignal inſtances have been given of it by thoſe who have written of this country; among which, I ſhall relate but one. A gentleman having killed another in a duel, fled into the houſe of a noble lady, and begged her protection againſt the officers of juſtice that were purſuing him. The lady, upon his earneſt entreaty, promiſed to conceal him; and ſhe had no ſooner put him into a private place, but the officers entered her doors; and having ſearched, as they thought, every part of the houſe without finding him, they concluded he had eſcaped from thence, and went about their buſineſs. Not long after the only ſon of the lady was brought home dead, whom ſhe underſtood had been murdered by the very man ſhe had concealed; however, ſuch was her regard to her word and honour, that ſhe gave the offender an opportunity of eſcaping from her houſe in the dark, letting him underſtand at the ſame time, that now ſhe had performed her promiſe to him, he muſt expect to be proſecuted with the utmoſt vengeance; and that ſhe ſhould leave no place unſought till ſhe had found him, and delivered him up into the hands of juſtice.

But to proceed: The Spaniards being naturally devout, the clergy, who have the government of their conſciences, have converted this commendable quality into the groſſeſt ſuperſtition and bigotry, and taught them ſuch a veneration for their prieſts, that they kiſs their hands, and the very hem of their garments, paying them a worſhip very little ſhort of what they pay the Deity. Nor have they, as foreigners obſerve, leſs reſpect for the ladies than they have for their prieſts, they do in a manner idolize that ſex; they never ſay any thing ſhocking before them, and their well-bred men frequently approach them with bended knees, kiſſing their hands inſtead of their lips; and if a lady does them the favour to commend any thing they have, as a ring, a watch, a jewel, or other toy they are maſters of, they never fail to make her a preſent of it; by which means, it is ſaid, ſome young gentlemen have run through conſiderable fortunes; for the ladies knowing their power, too often exerciſe it in this particular: but none of them are ſuch tyrants as the big-bellied women, who command every thing they are pleaſed to long for; and a Prince would be thought a brute who ſhould deny them any thing.

Their vices and defects.

Among their foibles, the great opinion the Spaniards have of themſelves, and their contempt of foreigners, are none of the leaſt. As they ſeldom travel, they know little of the beauties of other countries, and look upon their own as a terreſtrial paradiſe. One of their preachers in a Lent ſermon obſerved, that if the Pyrenean mountains had not interpoſed when the devil ſhewed our Saviour the kingdoms of the world, and thereby prevented his viewing Spain, he had probably been overcome by the temptation.

To the pride and vanity of the Spaniards are added many other vices, as their wretched indolence and lazineſs, their revenge, avarice, luſt, and credulity in believing the feigned miracles and fabulous ſtories of their monks without examination. As to their revenge, when a gentleman apprehends himſelf affronted, he does not think himſelf obliged to run the hazard of a duel, as in other countries, but makes no ſcruple of deſtroying his enemy privately, by cauſing him to be poiſoned, ſhot, or otherwiſe aſſaſſinated. Their neglecting to apply themſelves to agriculture and huſbandry, is generally looked upon as the effect of idleneſs; whereas it is certainly to be imputed to their pride, or rather the cuſtom of their counrty, where a man is looked upon with the utmoſt contempt who ſubmits to theſe vile employments, as they are eſteemed: their pretended quality will not ſuffer them to plough their lands, or plant their vineyards. There is not a peaſant among them without a roll of his pedigree: every one of them can ſhew that he is deſcended in a right line from the old Gothick Chriſtians, who aſſiſted their King Pelagius in expelling the infidel Moors; and big with the pretended honour, their lands muſt lie unmanured, if foreigners did not plant and ſow them for the whimſical proprietor, and generally run away with the beſt part of their profits. The French uſually do them this favour, and carry home conſiderable fortunes into their country; but this is to be underſtood chiefly of the two Caſtiles and the midland provinces; for the natives of Galicia do not only manure their own lands, but aſſiſt the Caſtilians in their huſbandry: and in Grenada, Andaluſia, and the ſouthern provinces, peopled chiefly by the deſcendants of the ancient Moors, they do not look upon huſbandry as a contemptible employment. King Philip III, in order to break his ſubjects of this unaccountable humour of ſtarving in the midſt of plenty, or at leaſt on lands that might be rendered extremely fruitful by a moderate induſtry, publiſhed an edict, declaring that every owner of lands ſhould be deemed a gentleman, and have the title of an Eſquire, who applied himſelf to huſbandry, beſides being exempted from going to the wars. Philip IV publiſhed a declaration to encourage foreigners to reſide in Spain, offering all thoſe who ſhould apply themſelves to huſbandry, trade or grazing, that they ſhould be exempted paying of taxes, or any duties to the crown, which encouraged great numbers of artificers and labourers to reſort thither from the provinces of Auvergne, Limouſin, Guienne, Languedoc, and Bearn in France; but after they have raiſed a tolerable fortune, they uſually return home to ſpend it, and leave the Spaniards as poor at leaſt as they found them. It is a miſerable thing, as my author obſerves, to ſee a peaſant ſitting before his gate, or on a bulk in the ſtreet, in a tattered cloak, and his arms a-croſs, or perhaps playing upon a wretched guittar in ſummer, when he ſhould be gathering in the fruits of the earth, while foreigners are reaping his corn, and getting in the vintage, and perhaps go away with the beſt part of the crop for their pains, while the owner remains almoſt deſtitute of neceſſaries. But ſurely no people ſuſtain their poverty with ſuch an air of gravity and ſatisfaction, we hear no murmuring on this account let their wants be ever ſo great: nor do they know how to keep, any more than they do how to improve what they have; œconomy is a perfect ſtranger here; it is beneath them to look into their affairs; they live as it were from hand to mouth, and never did people obſerve that precept better, of taking no thought for the morrow.

The reaſon Spain is depopulated.

It is not without reaſon that foreigners are aſtoniſhed to ſee ſo rich and fruitful a country, favoured with a pure healthful air, in a manner forſaken and depopulated; but there are many good reaſons to be aſſigned for it, beſides thoſe already mentioned, of which the incontinence of the young fellows, as well as of the married men, is looked upon as one of the chief. When a lad is arrived to fifteen or ſixteen years of age, his friends provide him a concubine, whom he hires for a month, a year, or as long as he ſees fit, perhaps becauſe he ſhould not marry to diſadvantage; and as the Spaniards are generally much addicted to venereal pleaſures, they are ſo waſted and exhauſted before they come of age, that they are very unfit to perform the duties of the marriage-bed, and often contract diſeaſes, which the miſerable children feel the effects of as ſoon as they are born. And as they generally find more ſatisfaction in their miſtreſſes than in their wives, and conſequently give the latter all the reaſon in the world to be jealous, they take care to lock up the miſerable creatures, or place ſpies upon them, leſt they ſhould retaliate the injury, as the Spaniſh women frequently do when they have an opportunity, provoked to it by the tyranny and injuſtice of their huſbands.

Another reaſon given for their want of people, is the expulſion of many hundred thouſand Moors and Jews in the reign of Philip III, from the provinces of Andaluſia, Grenada and Murcia. The continual wars that the Spaniards carried on for near two hundred years in Flanders and Italy, alſo ſwept away abundance of their men: and the riches of America, where they hoped to acquire gold and ſilver without labour, drew over many thouſand families thither. Add to this the multitudes who have taken the vow of celibacy, and are locked up in monaſteries or nunneries, and all the clergy in general, to whom their religion and laws prohibit wives, and we ſhall ceaſe to wonder, either at the uncultivated lands or the paucity of inhabitants in Spain.

Give me leave here, before I proceed further, to conſider the different characters of the Spaniards given us by different writers. An Engliſh traveller now before me, concludes his account of them in theſe words: ‘ And thus I take my leave ‘ of Spain, in hopes of meeting with better accommodation in Italy; it being certain, that the ‘ general poverty, and villainous inclinations of ‘ the people here, will make one thank God to ‘ have paſſed their country with ſafety: and as ‘ I am taking my farewel of them, I muſt declare ‘ it as an undoubted truth, that all the time I ſtaid ‘ in Spain, I neither ſaw nor heard of any honourable or generous action done by a Spaniard, ‘ but frequently of the direful effects of their vain ‘ pride, poverty, thefts, murders and deceits, which ‘ are too often committed here.’

On the contrary, another writer ſays, ‘ After ‘ all, to give the Spaniards their due, ſuch of them ‘ as have had the good fortune of a liberal education, and improved themſelves by travelling ‘ abroad, muſt be owned to be perſons of a ſolid ‘ underſtanding and uncommon vivacity: that they ‘ both ſpeak and write conciſely, are very apt for ‘ politicks, temperate, conſtant and laborious; ‘ naturally inclined to generoſity, true friendſhip ‘ and bravery: all which taken together, make ‘ their manners not appear ſo odious to me, as to ‘ ſome people perhaps who have not examined ‘ them.’

From the whole, the Spaniards do not ſeem to want natural parts or good inclinations; their greateſt misfortune is their converſing ſo little with the reſt of the world; they are ſituated at one extremity of the earth, as the Chineſe are at the other; neither the one or the other travel themſelves, or are much viſited by other people, unleſs in their port-towns: from whence it proceeds, that both nations have entertained a notion of their own ſelf-ſufficiency, and a contempt of the improvements that have been made in arts and ſciences by the reſt of mankind. Add to this, that the Spaniſh clergy, leſt the people ſhould break through the clouds of bigotry and ſuperſtition that ſurround them, diſcourage all manner of learning, and intercourſe with foreigners; ſo that where they have imbibed any falſe or deſtructive opinions, it is almoſt impoſſible they ſhould be undeceived. I make no manner of doubt therefore, but it muſt be very dangerous and uneaſy for foreigners, and eſpecially Proteſtants, who have not a good ſhare of patience, as well as prudence, to reſide amongſt them. If you touch upon the ſtring of religion, and ſeem to reflect on any part of their ſuperſtition, it is well if you be not delivered over to the inquiſition. If you are too free with the ladies, you will run the hazard of a poignard: and if you endeavour to expoſe the folly of their pride and indolence, there is no great friendſhip to be expected from them. On the other hand, where a man can wave his zeal for his darling notions in religion, and ſuſpend his complaiſance for the fair ſex, and forbear reflecting on their abſurdities, for aught I can find he may meet with a very favourable, and even hoſpitable reception in Spain, and eſpecially from perſons of diſtinction.

Their food.

They eat but little beef in Spain. Their mutton and goats fleſh are admirably good, and their hogs, which are fed with cheſnuts or acorns, make excellent pork and bacon, ſaid to equal that of Weſtphalia. Their rabbets are as good as ours, and their partridges larger. The hares which feed in the vineyards while the grapes are growing, are ſo fat that they are eaſily knocked on the head, but are not eaten in any other ſeaſon. Pigeons, pheaſants, and other wild fowl, are plentiful enough, and their ſea-fiſh is excellent; but they have not much good fiſh in their rivers. The common people live chiefly upon bread, wine, peaſe, beans, or other pulſe, roots, herbs and fruit. Fleſh is very ſeldom ſeen in their houſes, any more than in their cooks ſhops, where you will meet with peaſe, beans, leeks, onions, garlick, and perhaps a little broth of ordinary meat boiled to rags. Here the ſervants belonging to perſons of quality at Madrid uſually dine and ſup, both men and women, for there is no more victuals dreſſed in their lords houſes than will ſerve the maſter, his wife and children; which is the reaſon that at an entertainment, the ſervants are ready to ſnatch the meat out of the diſhes as it is going to table: and we are told of ſome gentlemen that are forced to have locks to their pots and ſtew-pans, leſt their ſervants ſhould run away with their victuals before it is dreſſed.

Perſons of diſtinction uſually live in a certain method. As ſoon as they are up they drink a glaſs of water cooled with ice or ſnow, and immediately after a diſh of chocolate. At dinner the maſter of the family ſits down to table in a chair, while the women and children ſit croſs-legged like Turks, and eat upon a carpet ſpread on the floor. Their meals are uſually light and ſparing, perhaps a pheaſant, a pair of pigeons, an ollio, or a ragou highly ſeaſoned with garlick and pepper; and after all, a deſert of delicious fruits, which they have in great perfection. When dinner is over, they ſleep till two in winter, and in ſummer till four, all which time the ſhops are ſhut up, and you ſcarce meet any thing in the ſtreets, as one obſerves, but Frenchmen or dogs. When they get up again and are dreſſed, they eat ſweatmeats, or drink a diſh of chocolate, and after it a draught of water. The ſupper is not much heavier than the dinner; a little haſh, or ragou, and a tart, or ſomething of that kind. The lady drinks nothing but water, and the lord but very little wine. Butter and cheeſe are ſcarce in Spain, and that they have is very indifferent; oil is uſed for frying and ſauces inſtead of it, and being of the beſt ſort, in ſome meaſure ſupplies the place of butter.

Recreations.

The evening here, as in other hot countries, is ſpent in taking the air, or making viſits. They go from their houſes about four or five in the evening, and ſeldom return till eleven or twelve at night. The men meet abroad in the publick places of reſort, or at the play-houſe, where the ladies, if there be any, are always concealed from the male audience by a lattice, for which reaſon poſſibly they chuſe to viſit one another at their houſes. The floors of their apartments being covered with rich carpets, and long velvet cuſhions placed round their rooms, the ladies ſit croſs-legg'd on them after the manner of the Turks, which being contrary to the cuſtom of other Europeans, is ſuppoſed to have been introduced here by the Moors. When a lady makes a viſit, the miſtreſs of the houſe, and all the company, riſe up and meet her at the door of the antichamber. They do not kiſs at meeting, but ſhake hands, giving each other no diſtinguiſhing titles, as your Highneſs, or your Grace, &c. but when they addreſs themſelves to a lady, ſtile her Donna Maria, Donna Elizabetha, and the like. They frequently play at cards, and ſometimes very deep, and obſerve a perfect ſilence while they are engaged in this diverſion. As to their converſation, it runs chiefly upon politicks; and if they ſpeak of the abſent, it is very ſeldom to their diſadvantage, as is too frequent in other places. They converſe with abundance of friendſhip, and as they have a good ſhare of wit, their company is very entertaining. Before they break up they are uſually treated with ſweetmeats, and it is no unuſual or indecent thing to carry away a handkerchief full of them. Beſides theſe the ladies frequently drink chocolate, the produce of their American plantations. Inſtead of candles, when it grows dark, the ſervants bring in fine ſilver lamps with abundance of branches; and as their oil is ſweet, they do not create any offenſive ſmell, and give a very good light.

Our countryman Carlton relates, that the ladies here viſit in great ſtate: that they are uſually carried in a chair by four men, the two firſt always bare-headed; two others walk as her guard, and another carries a lanthorn to light her home; then follows a coach drawn by ſix mules, with her women, and another with her gentlemen, ſeveral ſervants walking after, for they never ſuffer the ſervants to overload a coach, as with us; and their pace is anſwerable to the gravity of the people. There are few coaches except the King's drawn with horſes, though there is no country affords finer for that purpoſe.

Their plays and opera's, it is univerſally agreed, are wretched entertainments. There are two play-houſes at Madrid; but Carlton ſays, that both their action and their muſick are ſo very bad, that they don't deſerve mentioning: the moſt remarkable thing he obſerved of them was, that whenever the Ave-bell rung, as it conſtantly does at ſix in the evening, all the actors, as well as the audience, fall down upon their knees, and having ſpent ſome minutes in their devotions, the entertainment is renewed again.

Maſquerading is in faſhion here as in other European countries, with this addition, that they maſquerade on horſeback as well as on foot. But

Bull-feaſts

what is peculiar to them, is their bull-feaſts, of which we meet with various accounts from our modern travellers. A French lady, whoſe works are now before me, relates, that the King, having appointed a bull-feaſt at Madrid, ſeveral cows were driven into the neighbouring foreſts, and being purſued by wild bulls, the females decoyed them into ſtables prepared for them near the places where the combat was to be; and ſometimes there are not leſs than thirty or forty brought into Madrid in this manner, the ſtreets whereof are lined and barricadoed on the ſides to prevent theſe furious creatures doing any miſchief; and if any of the bulls endeavour to return and make their eſcapes, they are followed by a body of men on horſeback and on foot, armed with lances, ſpears, and other weapons, who force them along; and where a Cavalier is ſo fortunate as to bring back a bull that has broke from the reſt, the honour is almoſt equal to that of having killed him in ſingle combat.

Theſe bulls being well fed for a certain time, the fierceſt of them are made choice of for the ſport; and on the day prefixed, the Place-Major, or great ſquare in Madrid, is covered with ſand, and ſurrounded with a ſtrong barricade ſix foot high. The buildings here are uniform and beautiful, with a piazza on all ſides, over which there are balconies covered with velvet or tapeſtry, for the reception of the quality who come to ſee the engagement. The King's balcony is in the middle of one of the longeſt ſides, (for the ſquare is an oblong) and is diſtinguiſhed by the richneſs of the carving and gilding, and the canopy over it. Directly oppoſite to his Majeſty, are the balconies of the foreign Ambaſſadors and Miniſters of the popiſh communion, for I don't find that the Miniſters of the Proteſtant powers have any place aſſigned them here any more than in the King's chapel, though they may be admitted to ſee the ſport with them. On the right of his Majeſty are the balconies of the ſeveral councils of Caſtile, Arragon, the Inquiſition, &c. diſtinguiſhed by their reſpective arms embroidered on crimſon velvet. Next to theſe are placed the judges, grandees, titulado's and city-companies, according to their quality: nor are their ladies or daughters excluded; all of them entertained at the charge of the publick, with dried ſweatmeats, fruits, water cooled with ſnow or ice, &c. They are preſented alſo with ribbons, fans, gloves, and other toys, to a very great value, the expence being borne out of the fines and forfeitures belonging to the King or the city, which are laid up from time to time for this purpoſe. Underneath the balconies are ſcaffolds erected for the common people, unleſs under the King's which place is reſerved for his Majeſty's guards. Foreign miniſters, and perſons of diſtinction, having entered the ſquare with their coaches and equipages, take ſeveral turns before the King comes, and ſalute the ladies in the balconies, who on this occaſion appear without their veils, being covered with diamonds and other precious jewels from head to foot, making a very dazling appearance in a place where the ſun uſually ſhines out in it's full luſtre. The King being come into the ſquare, the coaches immediately withdraw, and all the company take their places; after which the ſquare is watered by the water-carts, and the guards with their officers are drawn up under the King's balcony, without any other barricado before them, than what they make with their half-pikes and halberts, which they preſent againſt the bull if he approaches them, but are obliged not to retreat or ſtir a foot, let the danger be never ſo great.

Every thing being prepared, ſix Alguazils, or city officers, enter the ſquare, mounted on fine horſes richly accoutred after the Moreſco faſhion; their buſineſs is to introduce the knights who are to encounter the bulls: they are dreſſed in white habits, with plumes of feathers in their hats, and each of them a white wand in his hand: but this feſtival I am deſcribing being appointed on account of the King's marriage, was more ſpendid than uſual, as the lady from whom I take this relation informs us. The firſt day the Alguazils introduced ſix Cavaliers prepared for the combat, mounted on fine horſes ſet off with the richeſt furniture, and feathers in their hats. They were followed each of them by a dozen led horſes, and as many mules, loaden with lances about five foot long, finely painted and gilded. The mules were covered with velvet, embroidered with their reſpective arms. The gentlemen themſelves were dreſſed in black, embroidered with gold and ſilver, with diamond hatbands, and ſcarfs of different colours, with black cloaks tied back behind them, ſo as not to hinder the uſe of their arms. They had on their legs little white buſkins, and long gilt ſpurs with one ſharp point only, after the manner of the Moors, and like them rode in ſhort ſtirrups, which brought their knees as high as the ſaddle. They were attended each of them by forty footmen, ſome cloathed in gold-mohair trimmed with lace, others in carnation colour brocaded with gold or ſilver, but all in foreign dreſſes, imitating Moors, Hungarians, Indians, &c. who carried each of them abundance of lances.

Being conducted by the Alguazils over the Place-Major, on approaching the King's balcony they made a profound reverence, and demanded leave to engage the bulls; which being granted with wiſhes for their ſucceſs, all the trumpets ſounded, and the people ſhouted, crying, *Viva los bravos cavalleros*; after which they ſeparated, and having ſaluted the ladies of their acquaintance, ſent away all their footmen out of the liſts, except two for each Cavalier, who carried their lances, and kept cloſe to their reſpective maſters. At the ſame time entered ſeveral robuſt fellows from diſtant parts of the kingdom, in order to fight the bulls on foot.

The Alguazils having received the keys of the ſtables of his Majeſty, let out a bull, and made their eſcapes as faſt as their horſes would carry them, fighting being none of their buſineſs. The bull no ſooner came into the ſquare, but the young fellows on foot ſhot their arrows or threw darts at him, which ſticking in his fleſh he raged and ſtamped, threatning deſtruction to every thing in his way: one of the Cavaliers hereupon approaching him with his lance, the beaſt run at him with all his fury, but was dexterouſly avoided by the knight, who ſlipt on one ſide, and as the bull paſſed, wounded him with a lance; which being broken, one of the footmen ſupplied his maſter with another, with which he attacked the beaſt again in the ſame manner: this increaſed his fury to the laſt degree, and the Cavalier ſeemed to be in great danger; but I perceive the footmen came in to his aſſiſtance and relieved him. The author of this relation, who was an eye-witneſs, ſays, that ſhe ſaw a black advance only with his dagger to one of the bulls in his full rage, and ſtrike him with that force between his horns, that he fell down dead that moment; whereupon the Alguazils came in with four mules as uſual, and dragged the beaſt out of the rails, under the ſound of trumpets and the acclamations of the people. There were it ſeems no leſs than twenty bulls let out to fight on this occaſion one after another, one of which run with ſuch fury at Count CONINGSMARK, who was one of the combatants, that he wounded him in the leg, and let out his horſe's guts; notwithſtanding which, the Count, ſupported by one of his footmen, attacked the bull on foot with his ſword only, and gave the beaſt a terrible wound in the head; whereupon turning about to the lady of his affections, he kiſſed his ſword, and was carried off half dead with the loſs of blood. It ſeems where the bull has inſulted a Cavalier, by forcing his lance out of his hand, throwing off his hat, wounding his horſe, or any of the company, the knight is bound in honour to give him a wound in return, or die in the attempt; and if the horſe appears daunted at the bull, the Cavalier muſt light and engage on foot: the reſt of the knights alſo are obliged to diſmount and follow him, not to engage themſelves, but to ſee if they can terrify the beaſt by marching againſt him in a body; and if the creature retires to the further end of the ſquare, they have ſatisfied the law of duelling, as they call it.

The ſame day a Biſcayner leaped from his horſe on the back of the bull he was engaged with, and continued there a quarter of an hour, and in the end broke off one of the bull's horns. If a bull defends himſelf ſo long that they are tired of him, they bait him with dogs, and hamſtring him, and another bull is let out. 'Tis almoſt incredible with what dexterity the combatants manage their horſes and arms, keeping within a foot of the beaſt almoſt an hour together without being touched. At this feaſt a young Gentleman of Toledo was toſſed up into the air by a bull, and ſo bruiſed by the fall that he died upon the ſpot; two others were mortally wounded, and four horſes killed; and this is nothing to the miſchief that happens ſometimes.

Another bull feaſt, by CARLTON.

Our countryman CARLTON, whom I have mentioned already, relates, that while he was priſoner at la Mancha, upon the taking General STANHOPE and the Engliſh forces priſoners at Brihuega, and the retreat of Count STAREMBERG, a bull-feaſt being appointed to be held at la Mancha, a week's time was allowed for building ſtalls for the beaſts, and ſcaffolds for the ſpectators; and on the day the bulls were brought into the town, the Cavaliers of the place rode out about a league to aſſiſt in forcing them along, and the beaſts were put in ſtalls or dens, made as dark as poſſible, to render them the fiercer on the day of battle.

The ſport being to laſt three days, on the firſt, all the gentry of the place and the neighbouring country in their richeſt clothes reſorted to the great ſquare, and took their places on the ſcaffolds, while the people having provided themſelves with ſpears and darts, ſtood ready for the encounter; for the bull does not only fight with the Tauriro, (who is a perſon uſually hired on theſe occaſions in the leſſer cities) but with the whole multitude, who throw their darts at him as often as they have opportunity. As ſoon as the door of the ſtall is opened, and the bull perceives the light, he comes out ſnuffing up the air, and ſtaring about him ſtamps upon the ground, as in defiance of his enemies. Soon after the Tauriro clothed in white, and holding his cloak in one hand and a two-edged ſword in the other, enters the liſts; on whom when the brute has ſet his eyes, he moves at firſt gently towards him, then gradually mending his pace till he comes within twenty yards of the Tauriro, he ſprings forwards and runs at him with all his force. The Tauriro having ſlipt on one ſide and avoided him, throws the cloak over his horns, and cuts him over the neck if he can, there being one particular place, which if he hits he eaſily brings him to the ground. CARLTON ſays, he ſaw a bull himſelf ſo ſtunned with one ſtroke, that he could not move, and the blood flowing plentifully out of the wound, after a violent trembling the creature fell down dead. But this rarely happens, he uſually receives a great number of wounds by ſwords and darts before he dies; and whenever he feels a freſh wound, he redoubles his fury againſt the Tauriro, who having avoided him again, ſeldom fails to give him another wound. When the Tauriro is wearied out, they bring in their dogs, hamſtring the beaſt, and pierce him with their darts till he expires; after which, he is carried out of the barrier with the loud acclamations of the people, as if ſome ſignal victory had been obtained. Our author relates, that he ſaw the Tauriro, who was hired on this occaſion, and was eſteemed one of the beſt in Spain, mount one of theſe bulls, cutting and ſlaſhing him till he had wearied the beaſt out, and then diſmounting, killed him with eaſe, to the great ſatisfaction of the multitude, who made the air ring with their ſhouts; and on ſuch occaſions money is thrown to the Tauriro by the ſpectators for his encouragement.

On the third day of the Feaſt, a young gentleman of quality, named DON PEDRO ORTEGA, performed the part of a Tauriro on horſeback, when the ſeats were crouded with people of faſhion that came from diſtant places to ſee the encounter. He entered the liſts finely mounted on a managed horſe, attended by four footmen in rich liveries, who after their maſter had rode round the ſquare, and paid his compliments to the company, withdrew from the danger. Then the bull was let out, and having ſtood a little while ſtaring about, fixed his eyes upon his adverſary, and run at him with the utmoſt fury. The Cavalier having dextrouſly avoided the brute, wounded him with a dart in the ſhoulder; whereupon the people ſhouted, their viva's were repeated, and the lady of his affections wav'd her handkerchief as a mark of her ſatisfaction. The Cavalier endeavoured always to keep his horſe on the ſide of the bull, for the advantage of ſtriking him; and throwing another dart, fix'd it in his flank: but notwithſtanding the gentleman behav'd himſelf to admiration, and often received the viva's and huzza's of the people, the bull at length getting his horns between the horſe's hinder legs, threw both man and horſe to the ground, and it was expected he would have killed them both, when to the ſurprize of every one he withdrew to the farther ſide of the ſquare, and ſtood ſtaring about him. In the mean time, the Cavalier was carried off not much hurt.

The foot Tauriro hereupon entered the liſts again, imagining he ſhould have met with an eaſy conqueſt; but the ſame bull made him frequently retreat into the places contrived for the ſecurity of footmen; nor was he able to diſpatch the creature at laſt without the general aſſiſtance, the bull having near an hundred darts ſtuck in him before he fell, beſides many cuts and gaſhes in his fleſh. This ſport ſeems ſo very barbarous to the preſent King, that he has been heard to ſay, it deſerves little encouragement. At the ſame time his ſubjects are ſo enchanted with the diverſion, that he does not think fit entirely to aboliſh it; though theſe entertainments are of late much leſs frequent than they were formerly.

Serenading.

I ſhall mention but one kind of diverſion more, which ſeems almoſt peculiar to this people, and that is the ſerenading their miſtreſſes in the night-time, with vocal or inſtrumental muſick. Not a young fellow ſcarce, when the love-fit is upon him, but ſpends his evening, and perhaps the beſt part of the night, in ſuch amuſements, though they have little more knowledge of the lady they pretend to adore, than Don QUIXOT had of the celebrated DULCINEA. Their voices are ſomething better than their inſtruments; for the laſt, to an Italian, and even an Engliſh ear, are intolerable.

Travelling.

As to their way of travelling, they find themſelves under a neceſſity in long journeys to make uſe of mules or litters, the country is ſo mountainous; but in the plains where they go but from town to town, they frequently travel in coaches drawn by four or ſix mules. It is uſual to carry good ſtore of hams and tongues and other proviſion with them, there being but very little to be met with on the road; and their lodging is rather worſe than the entertainment: it is very difficult for a man to get a room to himſelf in an inn, there being ſeveral little beds or cabins round the walls, he is under a neceſſity of ſleeping with ſuch company as he finds in the houſe. The muleteers and ſervants indeed uſually lie with their cattle in the ſtables, and conſequently do not give him much diſturbance.

CHAP. III.

Shews the ſeveral provinces Spain is divided into, and contains alſo a particular deſcription of New Caſtile, Madrid the capital, and other great towns, with their palaces, churches, publick buildings, &c.

CHAP. III.

Ancient diviſion of Spain.

THE firſt diviſion the Romans made of Spain, was into two parts, viz. Citerior or Hither Spain, and Ulterior or Further Spain, in regard to the river Ebro, which ſeparated the two Empires of Rome and Carthage: but when the Romans had made an entire conqueſt of this country, they divided it into three great provinces, 1. Tarraconenſis. 2. Bætica. And, 3. Luſitania.

Tarraconenſis.

Tarraconenſis extended from Cape Creuz in Catalonia to Cape Finiſterra in Galicia, containing Leon, Galicia, Aſturia, Biſcay, Navarre, Arragon, Catalonia, Valencia, Murcia, and the two Caſtiles.

Bætica.

Bætica, which took its name from the river Bætis, now Guadalquivir, extended from Cape de Gates in Grenada to the mouth of the Guadiana; comprehending Grenada, Andaluſia, and a good part of New Caſtile.

Luſitania.

Luſitania extended from the mouth of the Guadiana to the Duero, containing Portugal and Eſtremadura. Theſe were again ſubdivided into fourteen diſtricts or juriſdictions, each of them having a ſovereign court, of which the Tarraconenſis comprehended ſeven, viz. thoſe of Tarragona, Sarragoſſa, Carthagena, Lugo, Cruna, Braga and Aſtorga. Thoſe of Bætica, were Cadiz, Seville, Cæyra and Cordoua. And thoſe of Luſitania, Beia, Santaren and Merida.

CHAP. III.

Modern provinces.

At this day Spain is divided into fifteen provinces, excluſive of Portugal, (which being a ſeparate kingdom, will be deſcribed hereafter by it ſelf;) viz. 1. New Caſtile. 2. Old Caſtile. 3. Leon. 4. Galicia. 5. Aſturia, 6. Biſcay. 7. Navarre. 8. Arragon. 9. Catalonia. 10. Valencia, 11. Eſtremadura. 12. Andaluſia. 13. Grenada. 14. Murcia. And, 15. The Iſlands.

New Caſtile.

1. New Caſtile, anciently the country of the Carpetani, Oretani and Vaccei, and after the conqueſt of the Moors, known by the name of the kingdom of Toledo, is bounded by a long chain of mountains, which ſeparate it from Old Caſtile, Arragon and Valencia, on the north and eaſt; by Andaluſia, Grenada and Murcia on the ſouth; and by Eſtremadura on the weſt.

The Tagus and Guadiana, two of the moſt conſiderable rivers of Spain, have their ſources in this province, running the whole length of it from eaſt to weſt. The Guadalquivir alſo riſes here. The reſt of the rivers that water it are the Xucar, the Xarama, the Tajuna, the Henarez and the Guadarrama.

The air.

This being an inland province, diſtant from the ſea, is colder in winter, and hotter in ſummer than the maritime provinces, but enjoys however a purer and more healthful air.

Fertility.

It is one of the largeſt and fruitfulleſt provinces of Spain, eſpecially that part of it which lies along the rivers Tagus and Guadiana, producing wheat, barley, wine, oil, good paſture, great herds of cattle, tame and wild fowl, and all manner of game; but there are ſcarce any good fiſh in their rivers.

Subdiviſion.

It is uſually ſubdivided into three leſſer diſtricts, viz. thoſe of Algaria, Sierra and la Mancha. Algaria lies to the northward of the Tagus, and affords a great variety of pleaſant proſpects, conſiſting of mountains, plains, woods and foreſts;

Chief towns, &c.

the chief towns and places whereof, are Madrid, the Pardo, Sarſnela, the Eſcurial, Alcala de Henares, Guadalajara, Brihuega, Siguenza, Toledo, Aranjuez and Talavera de la Reyna.

Madrid.

Madrid, the ancient *Mantua Carpetanorum*, formerly a little inconſiderable town which belonged to the Archbiſhops of Toledo, became the metropolis of Spain about an hundred and fifty years ſince, when their Kings made it the ſeat of the government. It is ſituated in 40 degrees 25 minutes north latitude, 4 degrees weſt of London, in the middle of a large ſandy plain, ſurrounded with high mountains at the diſtance of eight or ten Engliſh miles every way, being one of the barreneſt ſpots in the whole kingdom, and affording ſcarce any trees or herbage. The town, for it is not ſtrictly ſpeaking a city, is about ſeven or eight miles in circumference, and has neither walls or fortifications to defend it; the gates and the guards that keep them ſerving only to prevent the running of goods imported and exported; for the duties on wine and all manner of proviſion brought into Madrid are very high. The ſtreets are generally of a great length, ſtrait and ſpacious; but miſerably paved with ſmall flints; the faireſt of them are the Calle (or ſtreet) Mayor, the Calle de Toledo, the Calle d'Atocha, and that of Alcala. There are alſo ſeveral noble ſquares, as thoſe of San Joachin, Laſganites, San Domingo and Sebada; but the largeſt and moſt magnificent is that of the Placa Mayor, in the middle of the town, being four hundred and thirty-four foot long, and three hundred and thirty-four foot broad, and ſurrounded by an hundred and thirty-ſix ſtately uniform houſes, five ſtories high, with balconies at every ſtory, the

Buildings.

whole being ſuſtained by pilaſters and arches, like thoſe of Covent Garden in London; they are generally inhabited by drapers, and other ſubſtantial tradeſmen; and in the middle of the ſquare the great market is held: here alſo their bull-feaſts are celebrated on any victory or other great event. The houſes are generally built of brick, the apartments being commodious and magnificent; but their lattice windows take away much from their beauty; few of them are glazed, for two reaſons, one is, that their women can ſee into the ſtreets without being ſeen; and the other, that glaſs in this country makes their houſes exceſſive hot. The houſes of the meaner ſort of people are built with clay, and make a very indifferent appearance. Building is exceſſive dear at Madrid, the materials being brought from diſtant places, and no navigable river to import 'em; therefore when any one ventures upon building, they immediately conclude he is very rich. The beſt houſes have been built by the Viceroys of Peru, Mexico, Naples, &c. who returning from their governments, uſually ſpend the remainder of their lives at Madrid, as moſt of the other grandees do. There are neither courts nor great gates before their houſes, as the French have before their hotels in Paris, after the manner of Somerſet-houſe in London; but the front of the houſe comes up to the very ſtreet. Whoever builds, the firſt floor belongs to the King, and he may either ſell it or lett it out, unleſs the owner of the ſoil purchaſe it, as is uſual, which brings in a great revenue to his Majeſty. In the houſes of the quality there is generally one apartment for winter and another for ſummer, and in ſome we find an apartment for every ſeaſon of the year.

Furniture.

Their furniture is extravagantly rich, beyond what we meet with even in France; their hangings are either tapeſtry, velvet, or ſilk trimmed with gold and ſilver lace or fringe; and beſides fine cabinets, glaſſes, pictures, buſts, &c. we meet with a vaſt profuſion of plate and jewels. Inſtead of chairs and tables in the ladies apartments, are ſeen rich carpets, and ſilk or velvet cuſhions to ſit on, for the women here ſit croſs-legged on the floor, as has been obſerved already.

Without the town there is a little valley through which runs the Mancanares, which is in reality neither brook nor river, but ſometimes one and ſometimes the other, according as the ſnows on the circumjacent mountains happen to diſſolve. In the heat of ſummer there is ſcarce any water diſcernible, or ſo very little, that if a perſon bathes in it, as they frequently do, he firſt makes a hole in the ſame deep enough to waſh himſelf in, and he muſt wait ſome time before he finds water enough for his purpoſe.

Over this river, as it is called by the Spaniards, PHILIP II built a magnificent bridge, equal almoſt to the fineſt in Europe, which is called the bridge of Segovia; and though in ſummer the current that runs under it ſeems very unſuitable to ſo noble a pile of building, and has occaſioned abundance of witticiſms by drolling foreigners, as that the natives of Madrid would do well to ſell their bridge and buy water, and the like; yet in the winter, when it is ſwelled by the torrents which fall from the mountains, it covers the neighbouring fields, and runs with ſuch rapidity, that it carries all before it; this noble bridge is then ſcarce ſufficient to reſiſt the force of the current.

Palace royal.

As to the palaces in and about Madrid, that called the palace royal, the ordinary reſidence of the Court, is ſituated on an eminence at the end of the town, from whence there is an eaſy deſcent to the Mancanares. The proſpect over the neighbouring plains, which takes in the fine walks on the banks of the river, render it's ſituation extremely pleaſant. The grand avenue is by the ſtreet, or Calle Mayor, the broadeſt and beſt built of any in the town. Before the front of the palace there is a large ſquare of fine houſes, adorned with gilded balconies. This palace cannot be admired for its beauty, the pavilions at each end ſeem to be the only part of the building worth notice. From hence, by three great gates of no extraordinary architecture, we paſs through two ſquare courts built on every ſide, at the end whereof is the grand ſtair-caſe that leads to the King and Queen's apartments. There are ſeveral other courts, all ſurrounded by cloyſters or piazza's, after the manner of Spain, being very ſuitable in ſo warm a climate to ſkreen them from the ſcorching heat of the ſun. In the above-mentioned ſquares are held their councils and courts of juſtice, and here are the lodgings of the ladies of the bed-chamber, and the reſt of the Queen's ſervants. From the grand ſtair-caſe we paſs through a long gallery, where the guards are placed, conſiſting of three companies, viz. 1. The arches, conſiſting of Flemming and Burgundian gentlemen. 2. The Spaniſh guards compoſed of halberdiers. And, 3. The German guards, compoſed of foreigners of that nation, particularly Lorrainers: each of theſe companies conſiſting of about an hundred men. From this gallery we enter the royal apartments. When the King goes out, as he uſually does every day to divine ſervice, he paſſes through the guards in the gallery, who are then drawn up in a double haye, being preceded by the Captain of the guards, but followed by very few people.

Notwithſtanding the palace in general has no great regularity or beauty, there are ſome very fine rooms and apartments in it, adorned with buſts and ſtatues exquiſitely wrought, and abundance of pictures by the greateſt hands; particularly one by MICHAEL ANGELO, repreſenting our Saviour in the garden of Olives, ſaid to have coſt fifteen thouſand piſtoles. The tapeſtry and the reſt of the furniture is incredibly rich. The greateſt misfortune is, that their apartments have ſcarce any light, on pretence of keeping out the ſun: ſome of them have no light but what they receive from the door, and the reſt very ſmall windows. The whole palace is built of white ſtone, except the two pavilions in the front, which are of brick. The window frames are of fine marble, and glazed with crown glaſs, thoſe few that there are, and every ſtory or range of building is adorned with gilded balconies.

Caſa del Campo

There is another palace called la Caſa del Campo, ſituate on the banks of the river Mancanares, oppoſite to that of the palace royal, a muſket-ſhot out of town, and about ſix hundred paces from the famous bridge above-mentioned; but the building is neglected at preſent. The moſt remarkable things travellers mention belonging to it, are a fine brazen equeſtrian ſtatue of PHILIP III, upon a marble pedeſtal; a brazen fountain in form of a caſtle; the park, lying along the river-ſide, with abundance of fine walks, fiſh-ponds and baſins, where the King and Court divert themſelves.

Buen Retiro.

The palace called the Buen Retiro, is ſituated on the declivity of a hill, at the other extremity of the town, near the old Pardo, from whence alſo there are abundance of pleaſant views of the neighbouring country. The whole edifice conſiſts of four great ranges of building, flanked with an equal number of pavilions, which together form an exact ſquare. It has a fine parterre of flowers in the middle of it, with a fountain that waters them. The apartments are large and magnificent, the cielings and wainſcot ſhining with gold and the moſt lively colours. The rooms are embelliſhed with exquiſite paintings, and the hall, where plays are acted, is looked on as a maſter-piece; the boxes are each of them large enough to hold fifteen perſons, but the lattices before them hide the beauties they contain. The adjoining park, being about three miles in circumference, is a mighty delightful place: here are a great many ſeparate pavilions, where the officers of the court are lodged when the King comes to divert himſelf in the hot ſeaſon; every pavilion has its garden, with baſins and fountains, and there is one larger than the reſt, planted with oranges, citrons, and other delicious fruits, with a large baſin, where the court take the freſco of the evening in little gilded ſhips and yachts, about which there are five or ſix little pavilions. But to conclude: the grotto's, caſcades, baſins, groves and walks of trees, render the Buen Retiro a charming place in ſummer, for which reaſon the King of Spain uſually reſides here during the great heats; and the grandees have many of them palaces in Madrid, equal to thoſe of the King's in the beauty of the architecture and furniture, if not in dimenſions.

The church of our Lady of Atocha.

In the ſquares and great ſtreets of Madrid are ſeveral noble fountains, adorned with ſtatues or groups of figures: the moſt remarkable are thoſe in the ſquare of Sebada, the ſquare of the Sun, and that of St. Dominick. The churches and convents alſo are a great ornament to the town, of which the church of our Lady of Atocha, or the Grove, is the moſt magnificent. It ſtands within the walls of the Dominican convent, about a quarter of a league out of Madrid, with which it has a communication by a thick ſhady walk of elms. Hither people come from all parts of the town to perform their devotions, and here the King ſings Te Deum on every happy event. To the nave of the church there joins a chapel, which has no other light but what it receives from an hundred gold and ſilver lamps, which burn night and day. Here we find a black image of the bleſſed Virgin, with a little Jeſus in her arms, to which many miracles are aſcribed. She is generally cloathed in a widow's habit, unleſs on great feſtivals, when ſhe is dreſſed like a Queen, covered with jewels and precious ſtones, and round her head has a glory made by the brighteſt gems, equal almoſt to the ſun in its full luſtre. The King has a gallery in this chapel, with a lattice before it. The monks of this convent live moſt auſtere lives, and by one of their rules never ſet a foot out of the houſe.

The church of our Lady of Almunada alſo is a magnificent building, where there is another image of the bleſſed Virgin, to which they aſcribe abundance of Miracles, particularly her ſupplying the town with corn in their great diſtreſs, when it was beſieged by the Moors. The hiſtory of this event is admirably well painted on the walls of a chapel dedicated to this ſaint, where the rails of the altar and the lamps are all of ſolid ſilver.

Chapel of St. Iſidore.

But the chapel of St. Iſidore, the patron of Madrid, it is ſaid, exceeds in beauty and riches any of the ſacred fabricks above-mentioned. The dome which covers it is adorned on the outſide with the images of the twelve Apoſtles; under the middle of it we find the tomb of this ſaint, with a crown of marble adorned with flowers, ſupported by four columns of prophyry finely wrought. The walls of the chapel are incruſted or lined with marble of various colours, and the pillars of the ſame materials. The paintings about it are admirably fine, and the upper part of the dome ſhines with gold and azure. PHILIP IV built this chapel, which is ſaid to have coſt him four millions of livres. In the ſame church is another chapel of white marble, adorned with abundance of marble figures in relief, where every day a maſs is ſaid for the ſoul of PHILIP IV.

Hoſpitals.

Among their hoſpitals, one was founded by MARY of Auſtria, for ſuch girls as having loſt their innocence, find themſelves pregnant. Here they are allowed to lie in, and care is taken of them and their children. PHILIP the Fourth, her huſband, alſo founded an hoſpital at Madrid for baſtards and foundling children. The hoſpital of St. Jerome is vaſtly large, entertaining continually fifteen hundred perſons. Nor is that of St. Martin's much leſs, erected for ſuch as have the French diſeaſe, who are taken care of by the monks belonging to the houſe.

The Pardo

Moſt of the royal palaces about Madrid having goods walks belonging to them, thither people of condition reſort in the evening, or to the Prado, a find field or meadow adjoining to the town, beautifully planted with trees, where the Beau Monde make the tour in their coaches, as the gentry about London do in Hyde-Park. Beſides the palaces already mentioned in and about Madrid, there are three at ſome diſtance from the city, viz. The Pardo, the Sarſnela and the Eſcurial. The Pardo ſtands about two leagues from the town, on the road to the Eſcurial. It is a great ſquare building, flanked with four towers, containing as many grand apartments, which have a communication with each other by galleries ſupported by a piazza. The rooms are richly furniſhed, and adorned with fine paintings; and there are belonging to it delightful gardens, and a large park, where the King frequently hunts.

Sarſnela.

The Sarſnela ſtands ſomething further from Madrid than the Pardo, beautifully ſituated in a ſporting country, and is another hunting-ſeat of the King's; but the building has very little in it that deſerves a traveller's attention.

Eſcurial.

The Eſcurial is the largeſt and moſt magnificent palace in Spain, and according to the natives, the whole world cannot produce ſuch a another. It ſtands upon an eminence in a rocky mountainous country, about ſeven leagues north-weſt of Madrid, commanding all the plain between the palace and that city. There could not have been choſen a more barren ſpot of ground to erect a royal ſeat in, where nothing grows without forcing, or introducing foreign earth. It was called the Eſcurial from a village of that name, which lies about half a league diſtant from it. PHILIP II, the ſon of CHARLES V, begun this building in the year 1557, and expended upon it a great many millions of treaſure during the two and twenty years it was carrying on. He built it in memory of the victory his forces obtained over the French near St. Quintin in Picardy on St. LAURENCE's day. It is ſaid, in that doubtful war he made two vows, the one, never to go out of his country to make war again; and the other, to erect a monument to the honour of that ſaint, the moſt magnificent of any in Europe, if he gained the victory; both which he punctually obſerved, for he never went out of the kingdom afterwards, and built this glorious palace to the honour of St. Laurence, from whence it is called St. Laurence of the Eſcurial.

In this fabrick is a vaſt variety of building, it wants ſcarce any thing to form a compleat town; for here we meet with a royal palace, a church, cloyſters, a college, a monaſtery, ſhops of tradeſmen and artificers, and the dwelling-houſes of great numbers of people. Here alſo are fine walks, beautiful avenues, a vaſt park, and large garden, embelliſhed with fountains, caſcades, grotto's, groves, and every thing that can render a place delightful: and though it be ſituated in a barren ſoil, the proſpects from it are inexpreſſibly fine. It is ſaid Philip II made choice of this ſituation to ſave the expence of carriage, for all this mighty edifice is built with a grey ſtone hewn out of the adjacent mountains: this ſtone is very hard and ſolid, reſiſting all the injuries of weather, and has this peculiar to it, that it always preſerves it's natural colour without tarniſhing. There is an aſcent from the village Eſcurial to the palace through fine walks of elms, planted in four rows, about half a league in length, which terminate in an Eſplanade or plain that ſurrounds the palace. This eſplanade is ſeparated from the court before the principal front, by a dwarf wall breaſt-high, in which are ſeveral gates to enter the court above-mentioned, that is paved with ſtone.

The whole edifice is ſquare, only a little longer than broad, built with the grey ſtone already deſcribed, but ſo perfectly well cut and poliſhed, that it looks like marble, and each corner is flanked by a glorious pavilion. There are four ſtories in all the fronts, and in the other parts of the building three. It is computed that there are in the whole eleven thouſand windows, ſeventeen cloyſters or piazza's, twenty-two courts, more than eighteen hundred pillars, an incredible number of rooms, viz. halls, ſalons, chambers, cabinets, and no leſs than fourteen thouſand doors.

The principal front is turned towards the weſt, too near the mountains, which ſpoils the proſpect from that ſide; but they contrived it ſo, it ſeems, that the church might ſtand in full view towards the eaſt. There are three portals in the grand front at equal diſtances, of which that in the middle is a noble piece of architecture, being ſupported by eight pillars of the Dorick order, ſet on a pedeſtal a hundred and thirty foot long, and two yards high, conſiſting of a fine white ſtone delicately wrought, it being ſixty foot from the ground to the corniſh, over which there are four pillars of the Ionick order; ſo finely poliſhed that they appear like ſilver; theſe ſupport the upper ſtory of the portal, and on each ſide are two fine pyramids or pinnacles. Between the columns are two rows of niches, on the lower of which are the King of Spain's arms, charged with a royal crown, the whole graven upon an extraordinary ſtone brought from Arabia, the graving whereof, it is ſaid, coſt ſixty thouſand crowns; from whence, as my author obſerves, we may judge of the vaſt expences Philip II was at in finiſhing the reſt. In the upper ſtory above the King's arms ſtands the image of St. Laurence, fifteen foot in height, in the habit of a Deacon, holding a book in one hand and a gridiron in the other, intimating what kind of martyrdom he ſuffered, having been broiled upon a gridiron at Rome in the third century. This ſtatue is of a pure white ſtone, wrought by John Baptista Monegri, a ſtatuary of Toledo, a celebrated artiſt. The north and ſouth ſides ſeem to be the leaſt embarraſſed, and to enjoy the fineſt proſpects.

Through the great gate of the principal front above-mentioned, we enter a noble portico, which leads into a large court, at the end whereof is the church, on the right the monaſtery, and on the left the King's apartments. We aſcend from the great court by ſtone ſteps to another portico before the church, adorned with eight columns of the Dorick order, which ſupport a fronton, on which are placed ſix ſtatues eighteen foot in height, of black and white marble, repreſenting ſix Kings of Iſrael, thoſe in the middle being David and Solomon, under which emblem they would repreſent Charles V and Philip II, the one a man of war and blood, and the other celebrated for his wiſdom and peaceable diſpoſition. The other four are Hezechias, Josias, Jehoshaphat and Manasses, of whom the three firſt were eminent for their piety, as the laſt was for his repentance and converſion: each of theſe Kings hath a crown upon his head braſs gilt, of a ſize proportioned to the ſtatues. In this portico are three doors which open into the church, thoſe on the ſides have the following inſcriptions over them, in golden letters upon black marble, viz. PHILIPPVS II, OMNIVM HISPANIÆ REGNORVM, VTRIVSQVE SICILIÆ ET HIEROSOLYME REX, HVJVS TEMPLI PRIMVM DEDICAVIT LAPIDEM. D. BERNHARDI SACRO DIE ANNO MDLXIII, RES DIVINA IN EO FIERI CŒPTA, PRID. FEST. D. LAVRENTIJ ANNO MDLXXXVI.

Philip II, of all the kingdoms of Spain, the two Sicilies and Jeruſalem, King, dedicated the firſt ſtone of this church on St. Bernard's day 1563, and celebrated divine ſervice in it the firſt time on the eve of St. Laurence 1586.

The other inſcription is as follows: PHILIPP. II, &c. CAMILLI CAJET. ALEXANDR. PATRIARCHÆ NVNTIJ APOST. MINISTERIO HANC BASILICAM S. CHRISMATE CONSECRAND. PIE AC DEVOTE CVRAVIT DIE XXX AVGVST. ANNO MDXCV.

Philip II cauſed this church to be piouſly and devoutly conſecrated by the miniſtration of Camillo Cajetano, patriarch of Alexandria and apoſtolical nuntio, on the thirtieth of Auguſt 1595.

The church of the Eſcurial.

This church is built after the model of St. Peter's in Rome, well enlightned, and paved with black and white marble; the roof finely gilt, the lamps of gold and ſilver, having forty beautiful chapels in it richly furniſhed. The principal chapel where the high altar is placed conſiſts of one great arch, which takes up all the further part of the church, and is lined with jaſper from the pavement to the roof. On the ſides of it are two ſmall oratories, in one of which is a brazen buſt of Charles V on his knees in his royal robes, with all his children about him, as large as the life: and in the other chapel over againſt it, is another of Philip II, cloathed in the ſame manner and in the ſame poſture, with his children about him, all in braſs. On the ſides of the chapel are little cabinets, or galleries, whither their Majeſties come from their apartments to hear maſs. The baſins which contain the holy water are two great precious ſtones of the bigneſs of a bowl, and ſo rich are the reſt of the materials, that it is computed this chapel alone coſt five millions of florins. They aſcend the great altar by ſixteen ſteps of jaſper, or red marble, which extend the whole breadth of the chapel. On the back part of the altar is a ſquare piece of prophyry placed in the wall, ſo bright and tranſparent that you ſee the whole church as in a glaſs. The tabernacle upon the altar is of porphyry, in the form of a dome or cupola, and under it is ſuch a profuſion of gold and precious ſtones, that it would amaze one to ſee ſuch prodigious riches amaſſed together in ſo ſmall a compaſs. The Cuſtodia, or Pix, where they keep the ſacrament, is of the height of a man, and two fathoms thick, made of a ſtone more eſteemed than porphyry, valued at five hundred thouſand crowns, and it is ſaid no leſs than an hundred men were employed in the working of it for fourteen years; and the top of the Cuſtodia is enriched with an emerald of the bigneſs of an egg, the price whereof is ineſtimable. There is room to go round the altar and view all it's beauties, but laymen are not permitted to touch it. *Odit prophanum vulgus & arcet*, ſays my catholick author.

The roof of the church is embelliſhed with the fineſt paintings; the choir particularly was done by the famous Titian, and is a finiſhed piece; it is a repreſentation of paradiſe, where we ſee the Trinity encompaſſed with legions of Angels and the heavenly Hoſts, Titian himſelf being drawn on one ſide in a kneeling poſture.

Reliques.

Among the treaſures of the church they eſteem the reliques the moſt precious, and pretend that they have ſeven entire bodies of the ſaints, an hundred and ſeven heads, an hundred and ſeventy-ſeven legs and arms, three hundred and forty-ſix veins, nerves and ſinews, and fourteen hundred other little holy reliques, as fingers, hair, &c.

The ſacriſty is a large room, where are kept the ornaments of the altar, and the habits of thoſe that officiate. This alſo is beautified with the paintings of Titian and other celebrated hands. Thoſe in moſt eſteem are a Chriſt and a Magdalen. The ſacerdotal habits are richly embroidered and covered with pearls and precious ſtones: nor is the workmanſhip inferior to the richneſs of the materials. Theſe were moſt of them given by Philip IV, the father of the late King Charles II. Among other things, they ſhew here a croſs of gold, enriched with pearls almoſt as large as a ſmall nut, rubies, turquoiſes, emeralds, and diamonds of great value. From the ſacriſty we are led into another room, where are two veſſels of ineſtimable price; the one is a ſingle ſaphire, embelliſhed with pearls and precious ſtones, in the middle of which is a large bright ruby: the other is in like manner enriched with precious ſtones, and ſaid to be made by the Emperor Maximilian II with his own hands. Theſe ſerve to carry out the hoſt in their grand proceſſions. Here is ſhewn a book alſo valued at four thouſand ducats, where all the remarkable occurrences of our Saviour's life are admirably painted, with the pſalms and ancient prophecies which have any relation to them, done by one of their monks.

The Pantheon.

From this elegant church we deſcend into the Pantheon, ſo called from it's being built after the model of the Pantheon at Rome, of a round form, and vaulted like a cupola. It is the mauſoleum of the Kings of Spain of the Auſtrian family, and placed juſt under the grand chapel of the high altar of the church juſt deſcribed. The beauty of this edifice, notwithſtanding it is under ground, is at leaſt equal to that above it. They go down to it by five and twenty marble ſteps, which lead to a landing-place, at the end whereof they turn and deſcend lower by three and thirty ſteps of jaſper, and grey and white marble, taken from St. Paul's of Toledo. The top and ſides of the ſtair-caſe are adorned with jaſper, ſo well poliſhed, that whichever way we turn we ſee our ſelves as in a mirror. At the bottom of the ſtairs we come to the door of the vault, on each ſide whereof are two pillars of jaſper and two of braſs admirably wrought. The mauſoleum is of the ſame dimenſions as the chapel over it, and extremely well enlightned, notwithſtanding it is under ground. The gold, ſilver and precious ſtones glitter on every ſide, and render it, in the phraſe of the Spaniards, a miracle of art. The floor conſiſts of ſquares of jaſper and marble in compartments. The dome, or vault, is ſuſtained by ſixteen pillars of jaſper of various colours of the Corinthian order, behind which are placed other pillars in perſpective, both the one and the other having brazen gilded chapiters. On the further ſide of the Pantheon oppoſite to the door, is a chapel magnificently adorned; but the moſt remarkable thing in it is a croſs enriched with diamonds and precious ſtones. The reſt of the chapel is divided into ſpaces or niches between the pillars, containing twenty-ſix tombs of black marble, with mouldings of gilt braſs; theſe tombs are ſupported by lions paws braſs gilt. The Kings are on the right, and the Queens on the left. Thoſe already interred there, as appears by the ſeveral inſcriptions, are on one ſide Charles V, Philip II, Philip III, Philip IV and Charles II. On the other ſide the Empreſs Isabella of Portugal, wife of Charles V; Anne of Auſtria, the fourth wife of Philip II; Margaret of Auſtria, the wife of Philip III; Elizabeth of France, daughter of Henry IV, and Mary-Anne of Auſtria mother of Charles II, both of them wives of Philip IV. And as none of the Queens are admitted here who have not brought a ſon into the world, there is another burying-place aſſigned for them and the reſt of the Princes of the royal family adjoining to the Pantheon. In the middle of the Pantheon is a fine large brazen branch for lights, ſaid to have coſt ten thouſand crowns. It is ſupported by Angels and the four Evangeliſts, the fathers of light, as my author calls them, all the ſtatues being of gilded braſs.

The King's apartment in the palace.

Philip II having thus magnificently built and adorned the church, though he deſigned to add to it a palace fit for the reſidence of ſo great a Prince, always intended the ſacred fabrick that he had dedicated to God ſhould excel that he erected for himſelf. That part of the building which is properly the palace, or the royal apartment, fronts to the north, and is entered by a noble portico. It contains five ſquare courts, one large, and four others leſs, all of them ſurrounded by piazza's or cloyſters, with open galleries above them in every ſtory. I have already ſaid that the paintings and furniture of the royal palaces in Spain are exquiſitely fine, and ſhall not tire the reader with a long recital of theſe things over again, but proceed to that quarter which belongs to the religious or monaſticks, who are of the order of St. Jerom. This part of the Eſcurial alſo is divided into five courts, of the ſame model and dimenſions with thoſe of the palace. The grand cloyſter or piazza, which is two hundred and ten foot ſquare, is paved with black and white marble, and adorned with admirable paintings, and the middle of the court is taken up with a fine garden of flowers. On one ſide of the ſquare is an elegant chapel with a cupola, ſupported by pillars of prophyry of excellent workmanſhip, all the reſt of the building being ſuitable to it.

The library is over the grand portico in the principal front of the building, being an hundred and ninety-four paces long, thirty-two broad, and thirty-ſix in height. It conſiſts of five galleries, fixed to the walls one above another on every ſide; the ſhelves are made of the fineſt wood brought from the Indies, and the floor is of marble. It is ſaid to contain an hundred thouſand printed books in all languages, beſides fourteen or fifteen thouſand manuſcripts, of which the moſt conſiderable are a St. Chryſoſtom in Greek, a treatiſe of St. Austin's concerning baptiſm, ſaid to be written by his own hand, and one entire claſs of Arabick books, which were part of the Emperor of Morocco's library; but I perceive many of the books were burnt or loſt in a fire that happened in the Eſcurial in the year 1671. This library is adorned with excellent paintings done by the greateſt hands.

The gardens of the Eſcurial are very large, and well watered with fountains; but it is ſufficient to ſay, that they contain every thing that is to be found in thoſe of the Buen Retiro and other palaces already deſcribed, in great perfection. Adjoining to theſe is a park of ſeven leagues in circumference, encompaſſed by a wall, in which are woods and large fields, well furniſhed with all manner of game.

Alcala de Henares.

Alcala de Henares is ſituated in a large plain on the river Henares, about fifteen miles to the eaſtward of Madrid, anciently called *Complutum*, famous for it's univerſity founded by Cardinal Ximenes in the year 1517. It conſiſts of twenty colleges, and is eminent for divinity and philoſophy, as that of Salamanca is for the ſtudy of law. The Polyglot bible was printed here at the charge of the ſaid Cardinal. It was formerly a Biſhop's See, but united to that of Toledo at preſent. Their cathedral is a large and beautiful fabrick, and they pretend that they have a ſtone there which miraculouſly ſupplied them with oil for their lamps, but loſt that virtue when the oil was applied to prophane uſes. The ſoil about this town, which lies on the banks of the Henares, is very fruitful and well cultivated, but that which lies at a diſtance from it dry and barren, affording neither trees nor herbage for want of water. They have not only good grain near the Henares, but rich muſcat wine and delicious melons; and there is a fountain of ſuch excellent water without the walls, that the King is ſerved with it at his table. The form of the town is oval, the ſtreets ſtrait and handſome, and there is one ſtreet that runs the whole length of the town, where the ſtudents are lodged. The houſes are tolerably well built, and there are ſome ſquares, the largeſt of which is ſurrounded by a piazza, where the tradeſmen have their ſhops. The town has a flouriſhing trade, and abounds in proviſions.

Guadalajara.

Guadalajara is ſituated higher up the ſame river Henares, on an uneven riſing ground, about ten leagues north-eaſt of Madrid. It is remarkable for the fruitfulneſs of the ſoil about it, producing corn, wine, oil, flax and hemp, and here they make butter of goats milk, much eſteemed by the Spaniards. The mountains about it are covered with oaks, of which they make charcoal, and ſupply all the neighbouring country with that kind of fuel. The houſes of Guadalajara are generally lofty, and accommodated with fine gardens. The pleaſantneſs of the ſituation brings abundance of people of diſtinction to reſide here. It is computed there are about a thouſand families in the place, ſeven or eight monaſteries, and as many nunneries.

Brihuega.

Brihuega is ſituated four leagues north eaſt of Guadalajara, on the banks of the river Tajana. It was anciently a ſeat of pleaſure of the Mooriſh Kings of Toledo, and is conſiderable at preſent for it's wool and cloth.

The Engliſh forces ſurprized and made priſoners here anno 1710

The place having a caſtle and a wall for it's defence, was looked upon as a town of ſome ſtrength before the late wars; but we find General Stanhope in the year 1710, with a great body of Engliſh forces, moſt of them veteran troops, having thrown himſelf into this town, was forced to capitulate within four and twenty hours, before any canon brought againſt it; which ſhews that fortifications are very little to be relied on.

That unluckly conduct of General Stanhope's, to ſay no worſe of it, in ſeparating from the army commanded by Count Staremberg in their march to Arragon, and ſuffering himſelf to be ſurrounded here for want of intelligence, determined the fate of Spain, and ſettled the preſent King Philip on that throne.

Siguenza.

Siguenza is ſituated five or ſix leagues to the northward of Brihuega, upon a little hill, the foot whereof is waſhed by the river Henares, which riſes but a little way from thence.

It is conſiderable chiefly on account of it's antiquity, and being the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Toledo, and a univerſity. As for it's fortifications, which the Spaniards boaſt of, they are not to be depended on. There is ſcarce any one ſtrong town in this part of the country. Some have taken it for the *Saguntum* of the ancients, having been deceived by the reſemblance of the names; but that Saguntum, ſo famous in ſtory, ſtood more to the ſouth. It contains at preſent about ſeven hundred families. The moſt remarkable publick building is their cathedral. The air is cold here in winter, but they are well ſupplied with fuel and good wine.

Toledo.

Toledo, the capital city of Spain, and the ſeat of the Gothick and Mooriſh Kings, called anciently *Toletum in Carpetanis*, is ſituated in thirty-nine degrees forty minutes north latitude, four degrees to the weſtward of London, and about forty Engliſh miles to the ſouthward of Madrid.

It is built upon a ſteep rock, at the foot whereof runs the river Tagus, encompaſſing three ſides of it; the reſt of the city is defended by an old wall and towers, after the Gothick manner of fortification, and was heretofore eſteemed a very ſtrong place; but being commanded by ſeveral hills, and having no modern fortifications added to it, is not able to ſuſtain a ſiege at preſent: we find accordingly, that whoever was maſter of the field, was maſter of this city in the late war. The Tagus, which waters the adjacent country, renders it exceeding fruitful, and their manufactures of wool and ſilk were once very conſiderable. The ſword-blades that are made here, are in great eſteem.

Abundance of people of quality have their houſes in this city, the buildings whereof are generally fair, but the ſtreets narrow and uneven, for which reaſon coaches are very little uſed at Toledo; chairs and litters are found much more commodious in a town where people are perpetually going up or down hill.

The moſt remarkable publick buildings are the caſtle, or royal palace, and the cathedral. The caſtle, called by the natives Alcaçar, is ſituated on a high ſteep rock, which commands all the other hills in the town, and affords a fine proſpect of the river Tagus and the neighbouring country. The river is not navigable here, but might be made ſo at a very ſmall expence, there being water enough, as it runs between two ſteep rocks. The place was anciently thought impregnable on this ſide.

In aſcending to the caſtle we come to a noble ſquare, the largeſt in the town, the houſes uniform, built with brick, ſupported by a piazza, and adorned with fine balconies, as uſual in Spain. From hence we paſs into the caſtle, which is of a ſquare form, conſiſting of four large piles of building, with their wings and pavilions. At the entrance we come into a court an hundred and ſixty foot long, and an hundred and thirty broad, ſurrounded by a fine cloyſter or piazza. At the farther end of this court there is a handſome large ſtair-caſe, which dividing in two parts leads to the galleries above, through which we proceed to the ſeveral apartments, that are extremely large and magnificent.

Although the caſtle be an hundred and ſixty yards above the river, it is furniſhed with water from thence by a pump. There is ſtill the remains of a more conſiderable machine, by which they conveyed water enough from the Tagus to a reſervoir in the caſtle, which ſupplied the whole town plentifully with water, but at preſent it is broken and uſeleſs; and there are no fountains or wells in the city, they are forced to go above threeſcore yards down to the Tagus from any part of it for all the water they uſe, which is the reaſon that Toledo is not ſo well peopled as formerly, and that their manufactures of ſilk and wool, in which they uſed to employ ten thouſand people, are very much diminiſhed.

The cathedral of Toledo.

The cathedral is the richeſt and moſt magnificent in Spain; it is ſituated in the middle of the town, adjoining to a handſome ſtreet, having a ſpacious court before it, from thence we enter the church by eight beautiful brazen doors with ſuitable portico's, and from the lofty ſteeple there is an admirable proſpect of one of the fineſt parts of Spain. The church is three hundred eighty-four feet in length, one hundred ninety-one in breadth, and an hundred and ſeven in height, built of an excellent white ſtone. The roof is ſupported by eighty-eight columns which divide it into five iſles, in the middlemoſt of which there are two choirs finely wainſcotted and carved; in one of them is kept the hoſt, and contains the ſepulchres of many of their ancient Kings; the other belongs to the canons, the ſeats whereof are ſeparated by pillars of marble or jaſper. The great door, called the door of our Lady, is never opened but on high feſtivals: near it is a marble pillar, where, according to tradition, the bleſſed Virgin appeared to St. ILDEFONSO in the ſeventh century. This is had in mighty veneration by the people, and is kiſſed with great devotion, and upon it is the following inſcription, *viz. Adorabimus in loco ubi ſteterunt Pedes ejus.*

The chapels which belong to the cathedral are richly furniſhed, and as large as ſome churches: the paintings in them are exquiſite, and the gold, ſilver, precious ſtones and other ornaments invaluable.

The chapel of our Lady of Sagrario.

In the chapel of our Lady of Sagrario, which is all incruſted or lined with jaſper from the floor to the roof, is an image of the Virgin as large as the life all of ſolid ſilver, with fourteen or fifteen great ſilver lamps burning before it. There are fifteen cabinets in the walls filled with gold and ſilver veſſels and implements, as croſſes, cups, vaſes, mitres, &c. two mitres particularly ſtrewed with pearls and precious ſtones, a golden crown of the bleſſed Virgin's, reſembling an imperial crown, weighing fifteen pounds, enriched with diamonds and pearls of a prodigious ſize. The treaſury contains no leſs riches than the chapels: we ſee here a group of figures all of ſolid gold, where our Lady ſitting upon a rock of precious ſtones is preſenting our Saviour to St. JOHN Baptiſt, one of the diamonds of which the rock conſiſts being as large as a pigeon's egg. But it would be tedious, if not impracticable, to enumerate all the precious gifts and ornaments which have been dedicated to the ſaints real and imaginary in this vaſt church, which is in a manner encumbered with them; I proceed therefore to give ſome account of the revenues of thoſe gentlemen who have the guardianſhip of this immenſe treaſure.

The Archbiſhop's revenue, by thoſe who are modeſteſt in computing his income, is ſaid to be three hundred and fifty thouſand crowns per annum. He is Primate of Spain, Great Chancellor of Caſtile, and Counſellor of State: he has the privilege of ſpeaking in the King's council, or the aſſembly of the States, next to his Majeſty, and is poſſeſſed of no leſs than ſeventeen towns beſides villages. For keeping the church in repair, there are lands ſettled to the value of an hundred thouſand crowns per annum.

The Grand Archdeacon has forty thouſand crowns per annum; the ſecond, fifteen; the third, twelve; and the fourth ten thouſand crowns per annum. The Dean has ten thouſand, and the reſt of the chapter in proportion.

The Biſhop's palace, which adjoins to the cathedral, is a large old Gothick edifice, but travellers have not thought it worth a particular deſcription. Toledo is a univerſity, where law is chiefly ſtudied, but I don't find there are more than two colleges in the place; beſides which there are thirty eight convents of both ſexes, twenty-eight hoſpitals and twenty-ſeven pariſhes.

Aranjuez.

Aranjuez is another royal palace, as much eſteemed for the beauty of its gardens as the Eſcurial is for the magnificence of its buildings. It ſtands near a poor village, from whence it takes its name, in a peninſula made by the Tagus and the Xarama, about two and twenty miles to the ſouthward of Madrid, and eighteen to the northward of Toledo: they have of late made a perfect iſland of it by cutting a canal from one river to the other. The palace it ſelf hath very little to recommend it, but the water-works are called the wonders of Spain, and by the natives thought not to be equalled in the world. There are brazen and marble ſtatues, as at Verſailles, ſpouting up water in different forms, which falls into baſins adorned with a group of figures of excellent workmanſhip. Here we ſee moſt of the fictions of the ancient poets lively repreſented; but what I find much admired by ſome travellers, are the artificial trees, from every branch and twig whereof the water ſpouts and forms a ſhower of rain very naturally. A large arch of water they mention alſo, under which a company may walk, and not be wetted by a ſingle drop: beſides which, there are numberleſs fountains, caſcades and grotto's, fine walks, and moſt delicious fruit; which during the exceſſive heats of ſummer, muſt render it a delightful place. Travellers uſually find fault with the narrowneſs of the

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the walks, but theſe it ſeems were ſo deſigned on purpoſe to keep out the ſcorching ſun.

The country about Aranjuez is as fruitful and pleaſant as any in Spain, except that about Valencia. There are adjoining to the gardens parks and menageries for wild beaſts, with hunting and baiting of which the court frequently divert themſelves. Among other exotick animals they have ſeveral hundreds of camels and dromedaries.

Talavera de la Reyna.

Talavera de la Reyna is a handſom walled town, moderately large, ſituate in a valley on the ſouth bank of the Tagus, about five and thirty miles to the weſtward of Toledo. It enjoys a pure healthful air, and a ſoil fruitful in corn and wine: they have alſo large herds of cattle, and great plenty of honey. There are ſeveral fine churches and convents in the place, as well as gentlemens houſes. It was remarkable formerly for it's woollen manufacture, but is more famous for it's fine earthen ware at preſent.

Sierra diſtrict.

I come now to that ſubdiviſion of New Caſtile called Sierra, which lies to the eaſtward of Algaria, and obtained it's name from it's mountainous ſituation; for Sierra in the Spaniſh language ſignifies a mountain. This is by no means ſo fruitful or populous as the weſtern part of New Caſtile; their flocks of ſheep which feed on the mountains of Molina are it's greateſt riches. The chief town is,

Cuença.

Cuença, ſituated on a little hill encompaſſed with high mountains near the river Xucar, about fourſcore miles to the eaſtward of Toledo, and as many ſouth-eaſt of Madrid. It is defended by a wall and other works, and made a tolerable reſiſtance when it was beſieged in the late war. It is moſt conſiderable at preſent for being a Biſhop's See, and the capital of Sierra.

La Manche, or la Mancha.

La Manche is the ſouthern part of New Caſtile, watered by the river Guadiana, which runs the whole length of it. This the celebrated MICHAEL CERVANTES was pleaſed to make the ſcene of his hero DON QUIXOT's inimitable adventures. Here are ſeveral fine fruitful plains in this diſtrict, as well as mountains: Sierra Morena, or the mountains of Morena, ſo often mentioned by Cervantes, lie on the ſouth part of this province. The chief towns are Calatrava, Cividad Real and Almagro.

Calatrava.

Calatrava is ſituated on the banks of the Guadiana, on the confines of la Mancha and Eſtremadura, moſt conſiderable for giving it's name to an order of knights inſtituted by SANCHO III, who gave them the town to defend it againſt the Moors.

Cividad Real.

Cividad Real is a pretty little town, ſouth-weſt of Calatrava, ſituated in a fine plain, about a league to the ſouthward of the Guadiana. The country about it abounds in corn, wine, cattle, game and honey, but is ſubject to inundations from the Guadiana.

Almagro.

Two leagues ſouth-eaſt of Cividad Real lies Almagro, a great open town, but chief of the diſtrict called Campo de Calatrava. It is ſituated in a fine fruitful plain, and is not ill built, but moſt famous for a medicinal fountain near it, the water whereof is ſaid to be an infallible remedy for the cholick.

The reſt of the towns in New Caſtile having little in them that requires a particular deſcription, I ſhall only mention their names, which are as follow: Mancanares, Las Naves del Merques, Colmenar, Guadarama, Galapagar, Guadlix, Porquerizas, Arganda, Tortoſa, Hita, Cadacra, Medina Celi, Arcos, Monteagudo, Uzeda, Cadahalſo, Eſcalona, Maqueda, Illeſcas, Leganes, Mora, Anover, Fuente Duegna, Paſtrana, Zurita, Yepes, Ocagna, Villa Rubia, Molina, Caracena, Valeria, Moya, Alarcon, Alcarez, Segura de la Sierra, Velez el rubio, Orgaz, Conſuegra, Miquelturra, Elviſo, Almodavar del Campo, El Convento de Calatrava.

CHAP. IV.

Contains a deſcription of the province of Old Caſtile, and of the principal cities and great towns therein.

CHAP. IV.

Old Caſtile.

THE Caſtiles are ſo called, it's ſaid, from the great number of caſtles that were built there during the wars between the Chriſtians and Moors; and the province I am about to treat of was called Old Caſtile on account of it's having been longer in the hands of the Chriſtians than the Caſtile already deſcribed. Old Caſtile was formerly a country dependant on the Kings of Leon, and not honoured with the title of a kingdom till the reign of King FERDINAND, anno 1016. This province is bounded by Aſturia and Biſcay on the north; by Arragon and Navarre on the eaſt; by New Caſtile on the ſouth; and by Leon and part of the kingdom of Portugal on the weſt. It is of an irregular figure, but it's greateſt length from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt is about an hundred leagues, and it's greateſt breadth taken from Valladolid to Tarracona about fifty leagues. The principal rivers are the Ebro and Duero already deſcribed; beſides which, it is watered by the Pizuegra, the Arlanca, the Arlancon, the Algarbe, and the Tormes.

This country is more mountainous than that of New Caſtile, and as the air is colder in winter upon their hills, the tops whereof are great part of the year covered with ſnow, ſo are ſome of their valleys hotter, occaſioned by the reflection of the ſun. The weather alſo is more changeable and uncertain here than it is in the other Caſtile. The principal mountains on the ſouth are thoſe of Molina, Siguenza and Segovia, which divide it from New Caſtile; thoſe of Sierra de Tablada on the weſt, and a ridge of mountains that ſeparates it from the Aſturia's on the north. And if I might be allowed to aſſign a reaſon for Spain's continuing ſo long divided into little kingdoms and principalities, it ſhould be the natural ſtrength and ſituation of every ſtate defended and divided from the reſt by their reſpective mountains, which rendered the conqueſt of them more difficult than it would have been in a more open country, to ſuch ambitious Princes as might have a deſign upon them. We find that in France, Britain, and every other country, the mountaineers ever defended themſelves longeſt againſt the encroachments of their ambitious neighbours.

Cities.

But to proceed: There are in Old Caſtile eight cities, viz. Burgos, Valladolid, Segovia, Siguenza, Avila, Oſma, Calahorra, and St. Domingo de la Calcada; beſides fifteen or twenty other conſiderable towns.

Burgos.

Burgos, the capital of Old Caſtile, is ſituated an hundred and twenty miles to the northward of Madrid, on the ſide of a mountain, extending itſelf down into the plain, on the banks of a little rapid river called the Arlançon, which waſhes one part of it's walls. It has an old caſtle on the top of the hill for it's defence, much ſtronger from it's ſituation than it's fortifications. The principal avenue to the city is by a handſom bridge over the river above-mentioned, which leads to a beautiful gate, adorned with the ſtatues of ſeveral Kings of Spain, and of FERDINANDO GONSALVO, the firſt Earl that was Sovereign of Caſtile. The town is large, but irregularly built, almoſt in form of a creſcent. The ſtreets are narrow and uneven, except ſome few, which are ſtrait and ſpacious, particularly that leading to the cathedral. There are alſo ſeveral handſom ſquares, adorned with fountains and ſtatues over them. The great ſquare is in the middle of the town, encompaſſed with fine houſes built upon a piazza or cloyſter, as uſual in other Spaniſh cities. There are alſo ſeveral beautiful palaces, particularly thoſe of the houſe of VELASCO, and that of the Archbiſhop, which paſs for maſter-pieces in their kind, as well as the cathedral, which is a noble old Gothick building in form of a croſs, ſo large, that though maſs is ſaid in five different chapels of this church every day at the ſame time, they give no diſturbance to each other. The grand entrance is between two towers, and the middle of it is covered with a noble dome ſurrounded with ſtatues. The great altar is wainſcotted, and admirably carved and gilded, repreſenting the hiſtory of our Saviour's life and paſſion, and the chapels about the cathedral are equally fine. But what is moſt admired in Burgos, is the chapel in the convent of Auguſtins enlightened by two or three hundred large gold and ſilver lamps; beſides which on each ſide of the altar are ſixty ſilver candleſticks ſix foot high ſtanding on the floor, each of them as much as a man can carry, and others on the altar of ſolid gold. Over the altar alſo is a crucifix of gold and ſilver as large as the life, with crowns ſuſpended and adorned with pearls, diamonds and other precious ſtones; beſides which there is abundance of fine painting and imagery, repreſenting the miracles ſaid to be done by this crucifix; and the whole chapel is ſo crouded with the rich vows of ſuperſtitious people, that they are forced to remove many of them into their treaſury to make room for others. They expoſe it only on particular occaſions, and that with abundance of ceremony; maſſes are ſaid and the bells are tolled to give notice of it, when every one within hearing fall upon their knees. The people are taught to believe that it was ſent miraculouſly from heaven.

Burgos. Burgos holds the firſt rank in the aſſembly of the ſtates of the two Caſtiles, or at leaſt diſputes it with Toledo. Their trade is not ſo conſiderable as it has been; but there being always a great reſort of ſtrangers to this town, the people are as polite and hoſpitable as in moſt Spaniſh cities, and their language is held to be ſpoken here in it's greateſt purity. The corporation is endowed with great privileges, and have the revenues of fifty towns and villages that depend upon them: they have alſo the reputation of being induſtrious, and applying themſelves to buſineſs, and are eſteemed a brave people. It was but a Biſhoprick till the year 1571, when pope GREGORY XIII, at the inſtance of PHILIP II, created it an Archbiſhoprick, of which Calahorra, Oſma, Pampeluna and Palencia are ſuffragans. To the eaſtward of Burgos is a village called Val de Buentos, remarkable for it's healing waters, the bathing in which cures the bloody flux.

Valladolid. Valladolid is ſituated about thirty five miles ſouth-weſt of Burgos, and ninety northweſt of Madrid in a large beautiful plain on the river Puicerga, a little above it's confluence with the Duero; it is ſurrounded by a wall, which is rather an ornament than a defence to it, though it was anciently deemed a ſtrong place. Here are abundance of fine buildings, noble ſquares, porticoes and fountains; many of the nobility and gentry have houſes here, and it is the ſeat of ſome of the ſuperior courts of juſtice; which with the briſkneſs of their trade render it one of the moſt flouriſhing towns of the kingdom. It is computed there are not leſs than eleven thouſand houſes in the place, many of them magnificent ſtructures: Their ſquares are ſpacious, particularly that in the middle of the town, which is vaſtly large, and ſurrounded with uniform buildings, ſupported by a piazza, and adorned with gilded balconies in every ſtory. There are no leſs than ſeventy convents of both ſexes in the town, of which that of the Dominicans is moſt remarkable for the beauty of it's architecture, and the riches it contains.

As their Kings held their courts at Valladolid for a conſiderable time, there is ſtill a noble palace here, which was repaired and beautified by PHILIP IV. There are alſo ſeveral other palaces of the nobility, that very well deſerve the attention of a traveller; but having already given the reader ſome idea of the Spaniſh buildings and furniture, it would not be agreeable to him to dwell upon theſe things, unleſs there were ſomething new and uncommon in the contrivance of them. It was made a Biſhop's See in the year 1595, and has a univerſity conſiſting of ſeveral colleges, eſteemed one of the moſt flouriſhing in Spain. This city was anciently called Pintia, or rather built upon the ruins of it. The air here is good and tolerably pure, except that ſometimes they are incommoded with miſts from the river. The fields about the town are wonderfully fruitful and pleaſant, and look like one continued garden.

Segovia. Segovia is ſituated about fifty miles to the ſouthward of Valladolid, and about thirty to the northward of Madrid, upon an eminence between two great mountains. It is ſurrounded by a wall and towers after the old way of fortification. The higher part of the hill is covered almoſt with religious houſes, and the caſtle ſtands on the top of it, which is a place ſtrong by ſituation, but not at all improved by art.

The town is large and well-peopled, and adorned with many beautiful edifices; it is computed that there are ſeven thouſand houſes in it, comprehending the ſuburbs. The ſoil about it is fruitful, and on the neighbouring mountains they feed large flocks of ſheep, the wool of which makes the fineſt cloth in Europe. Here is alſo a manufacture of paper; and their trade in general is in ſo flouriſhing a condition, that there is ſcarce a poor family amongſt them. Here is alſo one of the moſt conſiderable mints in Spain; but what is the greateſt curioſity is, a noble aqueduct built of free-ſtone, without any cement, and conſiſting of two rows of arches one above another, that brings water enough to ſerve the whole town upwards of five leagues; ſome aſcribe it to TRAJAN, but others ſay it was the work of the Goths. The water of the river which runs near the town is very bad, and occaſions ſeveral diſtempers, particularly the dropſy and palſy, which it is ſuppoſed was the reaſon of erecting this mighty fabrick. Segovia is a biſhoprick and univerſity, but the latter of no great fame.

A few miles from thence on the banks of the river Duraton is a town called Pedcaça dela Sierra, famous for being the place of the Emperor TRA-

JAN's nativity, as well as for it's caſtle, where FRANCIS Dauphin of France, and Prince HENRY his brother, were impriſoned on the releaſing of their father FRANCIS the firſt, who was taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia.

The reſt of the towns of Old Caſtile having little remarkable in them, I ſhall only ſpecify their names; which are, Miranda de Ebro, Najara, Navarette, Guardia, Baſtida, Eſpinoſa de los Monteros, Lerma, St. Pedro d'Arlanza, Arando de Duero, St. Eſtevan de Gormaz, Verlanga, Almazan, Soria, (the ancient Numantia,) Logrogno, Aguilar del Campo, Agreda, Crugna, Roa, Pegnafiel, Mocada, Coca, Arevalo, Olmedo, Madregal, Pegnaranda, Villa Franca on the Tormes, and Cuellar.

CHAP. V.

Contains a deſcription of the province of Leon, and of the chief towns therein.

CHAP. V.

Leon. Situation, &c.

THE province, or kingdom of Leon, is bounded by the mountains of Aſturia on the north; by Old Caſtile on the eaſt; Eſtremadura on the ſouth; and by Galicia and part of Portugal on the weſt; and is about fifty-five leagues in length from north to ſouth, and forty in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Rivers.

The principal rivers are the Duero, which runs from eaſt to weſt, and divides it into two equal parts; the Puiſerga, the Carrion, the Tormes, the Torto, the Tera, the Eſla and the Orbego.

Air.

Chief towns.

The air, ſoil and produce of this province is much the ſame with that of Old Caſtile, and it is equally mountainous. The chief towns which have the denomination of cities, are Leon, Aſtorga, Salamanca, Palencia, Zamora, Medina de Rio Secco, and Cividad Rodrigo: beſides which, there are fifteen or twenty more of an inferior rank; of theſe Medina del Campo and Ledeſma are moſt conſiderable.

Leon.

Leon, the capital of the province, and of the ancient kingdom of Leon, ſituated in a fine fruitful plain, at the foot of the mountains of Aſturia, between the two ſources of the river Eſla, about fifty five leagues north-weſt of Madrid. It is ſaid to have been firſt built by the Emperor GALBA, and called *Legio Septima Germanica*, from the legion of that name which was quartered there; and from the word *Legio* it is generally held was formed the word Leon, which conjecture is confirmed by ſome of the ancient Roman bricks that have been found here with this inſcription, LEG. VII. P. F. It is a large town, conſiſting of thirteen pariſhes, ſix monaſteries and five nunneries, but is neither ſo rich or populous as it was heretofore. The cathedral is ſaid to be the moſt elegant building of that kind in Spain, and there are no leſs than thirty-ſeven Kings of Spain and an Emperor that lie interred here. The Spaniards alſo value it on account of the ſhrines of ſeveral ſaints, particularly that of St. ISIDORE, whoſe corps King FERDINAND having obtained of a Mooriſh King in the ninth century, placed it in a ſhrine of ſilver upon the altar of St. JOHN Baptiſt. This was the firſt city of any importance which the Chriſtians recovered from the Moors, and the ſeat of the firſt Chriſtian King of Spain. It is at preſent the See of a Biſhop, who is ſuffragan of Compoſtella.

Aſtorga.

Aſtorga is ſituated in a plain on the little river Aſtura, or Torto, forty-five leagues north-weſt of Madrid, and eight ſouth of Leon. It is neither large or populous, nor is there any thing worth a traveller's attention, unleſs it be a handſom ſquare, and the cathedral. The Biſhop is ſuffragan to Compoſtella.

Salamanca

Salamanca is ſituated partly on little hills, and partly in a plain, on the river Tormes, forty leagues ſouth of Leon, and thirty-five north-weſt of Madrid. It is a rich populous city, and abounds in all things neceſſary for life. It contains about eight thouſand families, and is adorned with ſome fine buildings, ſquares and fountains: but what renders it moſt conſiderable is it's univerſity, eſteemed the beſt in Spain, where are taught all manner of Sciences. They have eighty profeſſors, viz. of divinity, law, phyſick, philoſophy and languages, who have each of them a thouſand crowns per annum penſion. The univerſity conſiſts of twenty-four colleges, and about four thouſand ſtudents. There are alſo ſeveral handſom churches, convents and noblemen's houſes in the town, and it enjoys a flouriſhing trade. The bridge over the river Tormes is ſaid to have been built by the Romans, and there is ſtill alſo the remains of an old Roman cauſey leading from thence to Merida, and ſo to Seville, repaired by the Emperor ADRIAN, as appears by an inſcription ſtill remaining, viz. IMP. CÆSAR DIVI TRAJANI PARTHICI DIVI NERVÆ NEPOS TRAJANUS HADRIANVS AVG. PONTIF. MAX. TRIB. POT. V. COS. III. RESTITVIT. It is at preſent one of the richeſt Biſhopricks in Spain, ſuffragan to Compoſtella.

Palencia.

Palencia, *olim Pallantia*, ſituate on the little river Carrion, forty leagues to the northward of Madrid, and about eighteen to the weſtward of Burgos, in a very fruitful ſoil, the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan to Burgos. The moſt conſiderable publick building is the church of St. Antolin, which King SANCHO the Great built to the honour of that ſaint.

Zamora.

Zamora is ſituated on a ſteep rock near the river Duero, over which it has a handſom bridge, and lies about forty leagues north-weſt of Madrid, and fifteen weſt of Valladolid. It was anciently called Sentica, but when the Moors were maſters of it they gave it the name of Zamora, or Medinato Zamorata, which ſignifies in their language a town of turquoiſes; for in ſeveral of the rocks in the neighbourhood, there are mines of this kind of precious ſtones called turquoiſes. This town is alſo famous for poſſeſſing the body of St. ILDEFONSO, Biſhop of Toledo in the ſeventh century.

Medina del Rio Secco.

Medina del Rio Secco is ſituated in a fine fruitful plain ſurrounded with mountains, about twelve leagues north-weſt of Valladolid, and is the capital of a dutchy belonging to the Admirante of Caſtile.

Medina del Campo.

Medina del Campo lies about eight leagues to the ſouthward of Valladolid. It was a rich trading town, but is upon the decline at preſent. The country about it furniſhes ſome of the beſt corn and wine in Spain. The magiſtrates have the diſpoſal of all places and preferments among them, and enjoy many other conſiderable privileges. Here was born the famous Spaniſh phyſician, who endeavoured to prove that animals were but machines. This word Medina, in the Mooriſh language, ſignifies a city, which is the reaſon we have ſo many Spaniſh cities of this name.

Cividad Rodrigo.

Cividad Rodrigo ſtands in the ſouth-weſt part of the province of Leon, about four leagues from the frontiers of Portugal, and is one of the principal Spaniſh gariſons on that ſide. It is ſituated in a fruitful plain on the little river Aguada, or

Agujar, and was built out of the ruins of the ancient Mirobriga, at preſent a Biſhop's, See, ſuffragan of Compoſtella.

Ledeſma. Ledeſma is a conſiderable town, advantageouſly ſituated on the river Tormes, ſeven or eight leagues to the weſtward of Salamanca; to the eaſtward whereof is a hot bath, famous for healing many diſeaſes. The reſt of the towns of this province do not require a particular deſcription.

CHAP. VI.

Contains a deſcription of the province of Galicia.

CHAP. VI. Galicia. Situation. THE province, or kingdom of Galicia, is bounded by the Ocean on the north and weſt; by the provinces of Aſturia and Leon on the eaſt, and by the kingdom of Portugal on the ſouth; being about forty leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and almoſt as many in breadth from north to ſouth. The Sea encompaſſing it on two ſides, it has near an hundred leagues of ſea-coaſt, on which are ſeveral good ports; the moſt commodious are thoſe of Ferrol and Corunna.

Air. The air along the coaſts is generally temperate, but moiſt, occaſioned by the great rains, and the many ſprings and rivers with which it is watered, as well as by the neighbourhood of the ſea. The moſt conſiderable rivers beſides the Minho already deſcribed, are the Sil, the Ulla, the Tambra, the Mandeo, the Rio Major and the Vallinadares. This country, as well as the reſt of Spain, is full of mountains, and the air upon them cold; they are covered however with trees, proper for building ſhips and other uſes. The valleys and ſea-coaſts have plenty almoſt of every thing, eſpecially oranges, lemons, and other excellent fruits, and their ſeas abound with fiſh. Here are alſo ſome mines of gold, ſilver, copper and lead, but the former are not wrought. The natives are ſaid to be a lazy indolent generation, more reſembling the Portugueſe, who lie contiguous to them, than any other people of Spain.

Rivers. Mountains. Produce. Mines.

Chief towns. The chief towns of Galicia, which have obtained the title of cities, are theſe ſeven, viz. St. James de Compoſtella, Lugo, Orenſe, Tuy, Mondonnedo, Corunna and Betancos. Beſides theſe, the towns of Ferrol, Vigo, Bayona, Salvaterra, Rivadavia, Rivadeo, Mongia, St. Mary de Finiſterre, Coa, Muros, Noya, St. Marco or Marta, Caſtro de Ortogal, Porto Marino, Sarria, Monforte de Lemos, Villa Nova de los Infantes, Pontevedra, Rodondella and Padron, are reckoned conſiderable on one account or other.

Compoſtella. Compoſtella, or St. Iago de Compoſtella, the capital of Galicia, is ſituated in a fine plain encompaſſed with little riſing hills, and watered with a great many ſmall ſtreams, thirty miles ſouth of Corunna, and upwards of forty to the eaſtward of Cape Finiſterre, and contains about two thouſand houſes. It is a rich trading town, and better accommodated with proviſions and neceſſaries than moſt towns in Spain, on account of it's neighbourhood to the ſea. Here are alſo ſeveral fine ſquares, palaces, religious houſes, and a univerſity: but what Compoſtella is moſt famous for, is the tomb of St. JAMES the apoſtle and protomartyr, who according to their tradition was buried here. This occaſions a vaſt reſort of pilgrims from all parts of Europe. THEODOMIR, one of their Biſhops, it is ſaid, diſcovered the body of this ſaint here by divine revelation in the ninth century, and King ALPHONSUS the Chaſte thereupon built a church to his honour, in the place where his remains were found. ALPHONSUS the Great magnificently rebuilt this church of ſquare ſtone, and adorned it with marble pillars, and the Kings his ſucceſſors continued to embelliſh it till it became one of the fineſt and richeſt cathedrals in Spain. Pope LEO III firſt conſtituted it a Biſhop's See at the requeſt of CHARLEMAGNE. Pope CALIXTUS II transferred the metropolitan dignity to it from Merida; and Pope PASCHAL II decreed, that twelve of the Canons ſhould be Cardinals. St. JAMES, 'tis ſaid, has wrought abundance of miracles, particularly that he deſtroyed the army of ALMANZOR the Moor, once ſovereign of Seville; and they have often ſeen him, they aſſure us, at the head of their armies on the day of battle, which is the reaſon that St. Iago, or St. James, is always the word or warlike cry amongſt them, as St. George for England, St. Dennis for France, &c.

It is ſurprizing, ſays my author, to ſee what crouds of pilgrims come hither from all parts of Europe, eſpecially in the jubilee-year. They go in proceſſion to the cathedral to viſit the image of St. JAMES, which is placed on the high altar. They kiſs it three times, and put their hats upon his head with the profoundeſt devotion. There are always burning before it five and twenty or thirty ſilver lamps, beſides vaſt wax-candles, which are placed on ſix ſilver candleſticks of excellent workmanſhip five foot high. On the roof of the church are flat paved walks, to which the pilgrims aſcend, and having hung ſome rag of their clothes upon a ſtone-croſs erected there, they creep under it three times on their hands and knees through a very ſtrait paſſage, which will ſcarce admit a man of any bulk; for the whole pilgrimage is to no purpoſe without this laſt act of devotion; it is this that entitles them to the indulgences propoſed; and thoſe who have happened to omit it have been obliged to return to Compoſtella again, after they have travelled ſome hundred leagues. The French pilgrims have a chapel here appropriated to their nation, and there is a magnificent hoſpital for the reception of poor pilgrims richly endowed, conſiſting of two handſom ſquare courts, with piazza's that ſupport the ſtone-galleries round about them, having fountains in the middle of each ſquare. This Archbiſhoprick is one of the richeſt of Spain, having a revenue of ſeventy thouſand crowns per annum, and the chapter as much more. The epiſcopal palace is an antique edifice, but vaſtly large and commodious. It was from this city that the order of knights of St. JAMES had their original, from whence they were diſperſed into all parts of Spain. This is the richeſt order in the kingdom; they poſſeſs in the two Caſtiles and Leon only, eighty-ſeven commanderies, valued at an hundred and ſeventy-two thouſand ducats per annum. To be admitted into this order, it is not only neceſſary to prove their nobility for two generations, but that they are deſcended from the race of old Chriſtians, and that their blood has not been intermixed with that of new Chriſtians, that is, either of converted Jews or Moors. They are not all obliged to reſide at Compoſtella, only a certain number of them, to guard the tomb of the ſaint, where ſometimes it is ſaid, is heard the claſhing of Arms, which is looked upon as ominous to the kingdom.

Lugo. Lugo, the *Lucus Auguſti* of the Romans, is ſituated on the Minho, not far from it's ſource, about three and twenty leagues to the eaſtward of Compoſtella. It was anciently a conſiderable town, but much upon the decline at preſent, though it be ſtill a Biſhop's See, and has ſome hot baths, which make it reſorted to.

Orenſe.

Orenſe, falſely written in ſome of our maps Ortenſe, is ſituated at the foot of a mountain on the river Minho, about fourteen or fifteen leagues ſouth-eaſt of Compoſtella. That part of the town which lies next the mountain is extremely cold, and their winters long, while the other enjoys all the delights of ſpring and autumn, occaſioned by the vapours which riſe from the hot baths thereabout, and warm the air. Some of theſe baths are of a moderate heat, and others ſo hot that they will boil an egg, all of them famous for the cure of ſeveral diſeaſes, and on that account it was called by the Romans, *Aquæ Calidæ*. Without one of the gates there is a noble arch, large enough for a ſhip to paſs under with her ſails ſtanding. The fields about Orenſe are extremely fruitful and pleaſant, and among other delicious fruits they have grapes that make excellent wine.

Tuy.

Tuy is a ſtrong frontier town, ſituated on the top of a mountain, at the foot whereof runs the river Minho, which ſeparates it from Portugal, lying about ten leagues ſouth-weſt of Orenſe. This is one of the gariſons where the militia of Galicia rendezvous: they give themſelves the title of Cavaliers, and the King's brave ſoldiers, and are mighty proud of appearing at a general muſter, though their cloathing is no better than ſackcloth, an old hat with ſome cock's feathers ſtuck upright in it, ſwords without ſcabbards, tied on with packthread inſtead of belts, wooden ſhoes and no ſtockings, and an old ruſty muſket, too heavy to fire without a reſt. The other places of rendezvous on the ſide of Portugal, are Cividad Rodrigo and Badajos. Tuy is a Biſhop's See, and the neighbourhood of it extremly agreeable; here we meet with fruitful plains, gardens, orchards, and vineyards that produce excellent wine, and indeed every thing that is deſirable in life, with a very temperate healthful air.

The Spaniſh Militia.

Mondonnedo.

Mondonnedo is ſituated in a fine plain at the foot of the mountains, and in a very healthful air, fourteen or fifteen leagues to the eaſt-ward of Corunna, or the Groyne, and is the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Compoſtella; but I don't find it conſiderable on any other account.

Corunna, or the Groyne.

Corunna, or the Groyne, is ſituated on a bay of the ſea, which forms a peninſula, and makes one of the fineſt harbours in Spain. It ſtands about twelve leagues to the northward of Compoſtella, and is divided in two parts, viz. The higher town, which ſtands on the ſide of a hill, and is ſurrounded by a wall, and the lower town, which lies at the foot of the hill, on a little tongue of land encompaſſed on three ſides by the ſea, and has a wall only on that ſide which joins it to the upper town. The harbour is in the form of a creſcent, and large enough to entertain the greateſt fleets. The two entrances are defended by two caſtles, called the St. Antony and the Holy Croſs, and is covered by a little iſland from the north winds. The town is very ancient, as well as the fortifications, ſuppoſed to be the *Brigantium*, or *Portus Brigantinus* of the Romans. There is ſtill an old lofty tower, which was built for a pharos or lighthouſe, ſo bold a ſtructure that it is the admiration of all that view it; the antiquity of it is evident from the following inſcription; MARTI AVG. SACR. G. SEVIVS LVPVS ARCHITECTVS. A. F. DANIENSIS LVSITANVS EXVL. It is from this tower, according to ſome writers, that the town received it's name, for the natives inſtead of a tower, called it *Columna*, a column, which by corruption was afterwards converted into Corunna. In the neighbourhood of this town is a mine or quarry of jaſper.

Betancos.

To the eaſtward of the bay, almoſt over againſt Corunna, is the city of Betancos, ſituated in a plain on the river Mandeo, not far from the ſea, remarkable only at preſent for being a little port-town, and the See of a Biſhop.

Ferrol.

Ferrol is ſituated to the northward of Corunna, on the oppoſite ſide of the bay, and is conſiderable for it's excellent harbour. It ſtands in a fruitful country, which produces good wine, as their ſeas do plenty of fiſh.

Vigo.

Vigo is ſituated on a bay of the weſtern Ocean, five or ſix leagues to the weſtward of Tuy, in a fruitful country. It is a fortified town, defended by an old fort and caſtle, and has an excellent harbour, where Sir GEORGE ROOK, the Engliſh Admiral, with the confederate fleet, attacked that of the French, commanded by Monſieur CHATEAURENAUD, and the Spaniſh galleons under his convoy, on the twelfth of October in the year 1702. The Duke of Ormond, who commanded the land-forces at the ſame time, making himſelf maſter of the caſtle and fort, of thirteen galleons that were there, four were taken by the Engliſh and five by the Dutch, and ſome treaſure was taken on board them, but no great quantity, the plate being the firſt thing ſecured upon the apprehenſion of danger: the Engliſh alſo took five men of war, and the Dutch one, and about fourteen men of war and four galleons were ſunk or burnt.

Bayona.

Bayona is a port-town to the ſouthward of Vigo.

Ponte Vedra.

Ponte Vedra is a large town, ſituated on a bay of the ſea to the northward of Vigo.

Cape Finis-terræ.

St. Mary de Finiſterre, or Finis-terræ, is a little town, fifteen or ſixteen leagues to the weſtward of Compoſtella, chiefly remarkable for the neighbouring cape, from whence it takes it's name, being the moſt weſterly part of the continent of Europe.

Cape de Ortegal.

Caſtro de Ortegal, an open town near the famous Cape de Ortegal, the moſt northerly point or promontory of Spain, well known to the ſeafaring part of the world.

Padron.

Padron is an ancient town, ſituate at the mouth of the river Ulla, near a bay of the ſea, about four leagues to the ſouthward of Compoſtella. They ſhew here a venerable relique, being a hollow ſtone, in which, according to their tradition, St. JAMES the Apoſtle ſailed from the Holy Land to Spain; and landing here, left it in this town, as a perpetual monument of ſo great a miracle. In the courſe of this hiſtory the reader has met with ſeveral other of theſe miraculous ſtones, that have carried the ſaints many thouſand miles to plant the goſpel, which is not more incredible than the removing the Virgin MARY's houſe over ſea and land from Paleſtine to Loretto in Italy; and this is a fact ſo univerſally believed, that if any good Catholick ſhould doubt of it, he would infallibly incur the cenſures of the church, and perhaps become obnoxious to the inquiſition.

CHAP. VII.

Treats of the province of Aſturia, and the chief towns there.

CHAP. VII.

Aſturia. Situation and extent.

THE province of Aſturia lies along that part of the ocean which is called the Bay of Biſcay, being

Air.

Rivers.

being bounded by that ſea on the north; by Biſcay on the eaſt; by Leon and Old Caſtile on the ſouth, and by Galicia on the weſt; being about five and forty leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and eighteen in breadth from north to ſouth, and is ſaid to take it's name from the river Aſta, or Aſtura. The air is colder than the reſt of Spain, occaſioned by it's high mountains and northerly ſituation. The principal rivers are the Miranda, which ſeparates it from Galicia, and the Ove and Dava, that uniting their ſtreams at Oviedo, obtain the name of Aſta, which running northward, falls into the Bay of Biſcay near Villa Vicioſa.

Mountains.

This is a very mountainous country; thoſe called the Aſturia's, which are a branch of the Pyrenees, divide it on the ſouth from Leon and Old Caſtile, and are covered with vaſt foreſts, ſo that the country is neither well peopled nor cultivated. Their valleys however afford them corn and wine enough for their ſubſiſtence, and their ſeas plenty of fiſh, of which they export great quantities. Here are alſo ſome good mines, but they have been moſt famous ever ſince the times of the Romans for excellent horſes, held to be the ſtrongeſt and the ſwifteſt in Spain. Their country being naturally defended by the high mountains of Aſturia, held out long againſt the Romans, and was never entirely conquered by the Moors; this therefore is looked upon as the nurſery of the Spaniſh nobility and gentry, and of all the Old Chriſtians, as they affect to call themſelves, who retired hither when the Saracens had over-run the reſt of Spain; and this is ſaid to be the reaſon, that the eldeſt ſon of the Kings of Spain has the title of Prince of the Aſturia's conferred on him. They are called the Aſturia's, in the plural number, becauſe the weſtern part of the country is called Aſturia de Oviedo, and the eaſtern part Aſturia de Santillana, from their reſpective capitals. The chief towns are Oviedo, Villa Vicioſa, Avila, Gigon, Santillana, St. Vincent, and Lianes or Ilianes.

Oviedo.

Oviedo, *olim Ovetum*, is ſituated in a plain, at the confluence of the river Ove and Dava, whoſe united ſtreams afterwards go by the name of Aſta, about ſixteen leagues north-weſt of Leon, and ſixty-five north-weſt of Madrid. It is the only town of the province which has the honour of being called a city, and a Biſhop's See. Pelagius, who was ſo ſucceſsful againſt the Saracens, made it the ſeat of his government, as the Kings his ſucceſſors did afterwards for ſome time. The moſt remarkable publick building is the church of St. Salvador, or St. Saviour's, built by a Prince named Silo, whoſe tomb is ſtill ſeen here. It is filled with a multitude of reliques, which the Chriſtians brought hither from all parts of Spain, when they were driven away from their dwellings by the Moors. Some of the moſt valuable are a golden croſs, ſaid to be made by Angels; a piece of the mantle of Elias; a piece of the rock of mount Sinai, where Moses faſted forty days: and a wonderful arch, ſaid to be made of incorruptible wood by the Apoſtles, which does not give place to the holy houſe of Loretto in point of miracles, having been carried by the Angels from Jeruſalem into Africa, from thence to Carthagena in Spain, from Carthagena to Seville, thence to Toledo, and from thence to Oviedo; but their hiſtorians have not aſcertained the time of this wonderful journey. The Spaniards, however, make little difficulty in believing this and a thouſand other as incredible relations, that are taught them by their monks.

The town is tolerably well built, but not conſiderable on account of it's trade or riches. The houſes about the church of St. Salvador ſtand on piazza's, and make a handſom appearance; but the great ſquare in the middle of the town, where all the ſtreets center, and the colleges which compoſe the univerſity, are it's principal ornaments at preſent.

Villa Vicioſa.

Villa Vicioſa is a little port-town, ſituate at the mouth of the river Aſta, about twelve leagues north-eaſt of Oviedo.

Avila.

Cape de Pinas.

Avila is another port on the bay of Biſcay, twelve leagues north of Oviedo; and two leagues north lies a promontory well known to our mariners, called Cape de Pinas.

Santillana.

Santillana, *Fanum Sanctæ Julianæ*, the capital of Eaſt-Aſturia, is ſituated on the bay of Biſcay, two and twenty leagues to the eaſtward of Oviedo. It has the title of a marquiſate, and belongs to the Dukes of Infantado, of the houſe of Mendoza.

CHAP. VIII.

Treats of the province of Biſcay.

CHAP. VIII.

Biſcay. Situation.

THE province of Biſcay, the ancient *Cantabria*, is bounded by that part of the ocean called the bay of Biſcay on the north; by the Pyrenees, which divide it from France, on the eaſt; by Navarre and Old Caſtile on the ſouth; and by Aſturia on the weſt; being about forty leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, twenty in breadth from north to ſouth in the broadeſt part, and not half ſo much in the narroweſt towards the weſt.

Rivers.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Nervio, called by the Biſcayans, Ybaycabal, or the large river, which riſing in the ſouth, runs northward croſs the country by Bilboa, two miles below which city it falls into a bay of the ſea. The ancients called it Chalybs, the water whereof is excellent for the tempering of arms. 2. The Deva, which riſing in the ſouth part of the province, takes it's courſe northward by Placentia, and falls into the ſea ten leagues to the eaſtward of Bilboa. 3. The Orio, which has it's ſource alſo in the ſouth, and running northward, falls into the ſame ſea to the eaſtward of Deva. And, 4. The little river Bidaſſoa, that divides France from Spain, in which lies the iſle of Pheaſants, ſo famous for the peace concluded there between France and Spain in the year 1659, called the Pyrenean treaty.

Air and mountains

Soil.

Mines.

Biſcay is a very mountainous country, and on that account leſs ſubject to exceſſive heats than ſome other provinces of Spain. Travellers aſſure us that their mountains are intolerably cold, to make ſome amends for which, there is plenty of timber, fit for building ſhips as well as houſes, and abundance of good fewel. The ſoil is not very fruitful: their apples, with which they make cyder, in ſome meaſure ſupplies the want of wine. They have alſo oranges, lemons, and other excellent fruits. Their ſeas abound in fiſh, with which they drive a good trade, as they do with the oil that their whales produce, for the Biſcayners fiſhed for whales on their own coaſt long before Greenland was found out; and though the country be generally a rocky barren ſoil, it produces corn enough for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants. But their greateſt riches lie in the bowels of the earth, in their iron-mines, of which they make vaſt quantities of arms, particularly ſword-blades, eſteemed the beſt in Europe, and they export a great deal of iron in bars. Here are alſo mines of lead, and other more valuable metals, which create them as briſk a trade as any other province in Spain enjoys.

Their character.

The Biſcayners have been always eſteemed a warlike people, and have defended their country reſolutely againſt all invaders, being uſually one of the laſt provinces that ſubmitted to the conqueror in any alteration of government. But they have been moſt celebrated for their ſkill in maritime affairs, in which they excelled all the nations in Europe till the laſt age. France was always forced to beg their aſſiſtance when they were at war with any powers by ſea, till the reign of LEWIS the Fourteenth.

They are far from being of that flegmatick temper the Spaniards of the more ſouthern provinces are remarkable for, but are briſk and lively, civil and obliging, open and free in their converſation, and tranſact their buſineſs with all imaginable application and induſtry, which is the reaſon that many of them make their fortunes at court. The Biſcayners alſo enjoy abundance of privileges beyond their neighbours, which they obtained, ſays my author, partly by the bounty of their Princes, and partly by force; for they are not ſo ſlaviſhly ſubmiſſive to their ſuperiors, either in temporals or ſpirituals, as the Caſtilians. A Spaniſh Biſhop (JOHN Biſhop of Gironne) who wrote in the 15th century, was ſo provoked at their conduct, that he would not allow them the title of Chriſtians, or that they had indeed any religion at all. He ſays they refuſed to receive any prieſts amongſt them unleſs they carried their concubines with them, for as they apprehended it impoſſible for any man abſolutely to conquer his carnal appetites, they made no doubt, if the parſon had not a woman of his own, but he would be free with their wives or daughters. I my ſelf, ſays the pious Biſhop, was a witneſs of their refuſing to permit any one of our order to come amongſt them, even to adminiſter the ſacraments. In the year 1477, FERDINAND King of Caſtile being about to enter Biſcay, and having the Biſhop of Pampeluna in his train, the Biſcayners roſe in a tumultuous manner, and repreſented to the King that it was contrary to their laws and conſtitution to admit a Biſhop amongſt them, and his Majeſty was obliged to ſend him back; nay, they proceeded ſo far as to dig up the very earth the holy man had trod upon, and burnt it.

They have a language of their own, called the Baſkiſh, different from all the languages in Europe. It is ſpoken on both ſides the Pyrenees; but when they write, they uſe either the Spaniſh or French. Moſt of their towns have both a Spaniſh and a Baſkiſh name. Geographers uſually divide this province into three parts, viz. Biſcay Proper, Guipuſcoa, and Alava. Biſcay Proper comprehends the moſt weſterly part, Guipuſcoa the north-eaſt, and Alava the ſouth.

Biſcay Proper. Chief towns.

The chief towns of Biſcay Proper are Bilboa, Porto Galette, Caſtro de Urdeales, Loredo, St. Antonio, St. Andero, Orduna and Durango.

Bilboa.

Bilboa, *olim Fluviobriga*, the capital of the province, is ſituated in a plain, encompaſſed with mountains, near the mouth of the river Ybaycabal, about a league from the ſea, two and twenty leagues north-eaſt of Burgos, and as many to the weſtward of Fontarabia, on the confines of France. The tides come up hither, and it is one of the beſt and moſt frequented harbours on the northern coaſt of Spain. The city is large, beautiful, full of rich merchants, and ſtands in a temperate air and fruitful ſoil. They have a great demand for wool and iron-bars, and their ſword-blades are in great eſteem.

St. Andero.

St. Andero is a port-town in the north-weſt part of the country, formerly much frequented, but upon the decline at preſent.

Guipuſcoa Chief towns.

The chief towns in Guipuſcoa are Toloſa, Placentia, Orio, St. Sebaſtian, Irun and Fontarabia.

Toloſa.

Toloſa is ſituated in an agreeable valley between two mountains, at the confluence of the rivers Orio and Araxes, about four leagues to the ſouthward of St. Sebaſtian. It is not a town of any great extent or trade, though it be the capital of Guipuſcoa. The principal manufacture of the place is ſword-blades.

Placentia.

Placentia is ſituated on the river Deva, four or five leagues to the weſtward of Toloſa. This town alſo is moſt conſiderable for it's manufacture of ſword-blades and fire-arms.

St. Sebaſtian.

St. Sebaſtian is a port-town, pleaſantly ſituated at the foot of a mountain on the bay of Biſcay, about four or five leagues to the weſtward of the frontiers of France. The harbour is large and ſecure, and the town fortified, but appears to be a place of leſs ſtrength than the Spaniards imagined, not being able to hold out againſt the French army above a month in the year 1719. The ſtreets are long and ſpacious, and the houſes tolerably well built. Their trade is in a flouriſhing condition, and conſiſts chiefly in iron and ſteel, ſaid to be the fineſt in Europe. They export alſo a great deal of fine wool from hence, the growth of Old Caſtile. The Spaniſh men of war do not lie here, but at Port Paſſage, about a quarter of a league to the eaſtward of it, where the French burnt ſeveral ſhips of the royal navy in the late war.

Port Paſſage.

Fontarabia.

Fontarabia, in Spaniſh *Fuentarabia*, *Fons Rabidus*, is the laſt town of Spain towards France. It is ſituated on a peninſula in the Bay of Biſcay, near the mouth of the river Bidaſſoa, which parts the two kingdoms. It was formerly looked upon as impregnable by the Spaniards, but was taken by the French in the year 1719, after a ſix weeks ſiege. This is the only town which is honoured with the title of a City and Biſhop's See in Guipuſcoa, and is commonly called tbe key of Spain on the ſide of Biſcay.

Alava. Chief towns.

The moſt ſouthern diſtrict, or ſubdiviſion of Biſcay is Alava; the chief towns whereof are Vittoria, Salvatierra and Trevigno.

Vittoria.

Vittoria, or *Victoria*, the capital of this diviſion, is ſituated in a fine fruitful valley, about fourteen leagues to the ſouthward of Bilboa. It has the honour of being a city and a Biſhop's See, and is ſurrounded by a double wall. The principal ſquare is encompaſſed by the town-houſe, two convents, and ſeveral well-built houſes, adorned with a fountain; and what renders the town extremely pleaſant, is the trees planted in all the principal ſtreets. It is well inhabited by tradeſmen and people of faſhion, drawn hither by it's agreeable ſituation and the beauty of the place; and is ſaid to have been built by SANCHO King of Navarre, in memory of his conqueſt of the Moors of Alava, who thereupon gave it the name of *Victoria*.

Salvatierra.

Salvatierra is a little town, twenty miles to the eaſtward of Vittoria.

Trevigno.

Trevigno ſtands on a little hill near the river Aguda, five or ſix leagues to the weſtward of Vittoria. It is the capital of a country of the ſame name, which belongs to the Duke of Najara.

CHAP. IX.

Treats of the province or kingdom of Navarre.

CHAP. IX.

Navarre. Situation and extent.

THE province or kingdom of Navarre, part of the ancient *Tarraconenſis*, was inhabited by the Vaſcones or Gaſcons. It is bounded by the Lower or French Navarre, from which it is divided by the Pyrenean mountains, on the north-eaſt; by Arragon on the ſouth-eaſt; by Old Caſtile, from which it is ſeparated by the Ebro, on the ſouth-weſt; and by Biſcay on the north-weſt; being about two and thirty leagues in length, and twenty-eight in breadth.

Mountains. Air. Soil.

This alſo is a very mountainous province; the air temperate, or rather cold, in reſpect of the ſouthern provinces. It does not abound either in corn, wine or fruits, but is moſt conſiderable for it's paſture-grounds, herds of cattle and foreſts, the latter of which afford them excellent timber, and abundance of game; and they have alſo ſome mines of iron.

Rivers.

There are beſides the Ebro, which waters the ſouth-weſt part of it, the rivers Arragon, Arga and Ega, all of which fall into the Ebro.

Chief towns.

This province is uſually divided into five diſtricts or Merindades, which take their names from ſo many great towns, viz. Pampeluna, Eſtella, Sangueſa, Olita and Tudela. The reſt of the towns of any note are Taſalla, Ucana, Roncevaux, Araga, Villa Franca and Miquenza.

Pampeluna.

Pampeluna, the capital of the province, and ſeat of the Viceroy, is ſituated in a plain near the Pyrenees, on the river Arga, ten or eleven leagues to the ſouthward of Fontarabia, formerly called Pompeiopolis from POMPEY, who is ſuppoſed to be the founder of it. It is tolerably large, ſurrounded by a wall, and defended by two caſtles, one within the city and the other without. The fortifications of the city are inconſiderable, but the caſtle without is ſituated on a high rock, and eſteemed a place of ſtrength. Pampeluna is at preſent a Biſhop's See and a Univerſity: what is moſt remarkable in the town is a ſpacious ſquare, where their bull-feaſts are held.

Eſtella.

Eſtella, or *Stella*, is ſituated in an agreeable plain on the riber Ega, ſeven or eight leagues ſouth-weſt of Pampeluna. It is a handſom town, defended by a caſtle, and has obtained the title of a city.

Sangueſa.

Sangueſa is a ſmall town on the river Arragon, ſeven leagues to the ſouthward of Pampeluna, which has alſo obtained the title of a city.

Olita.

Olita is another pretty little town, ſituated on the river Cidaco, three or four leagues to the ſouthward of Sangueſa, formerly the ſeat of the Kings of Navarre, there being ſtill ſome remains of their palace. It is ſituated in a good ſoil, affording corn, wine, and fruits, flax and hemp, and well watered with ſprings.

Tudela.

Tudela is ſituated in the ſouth part of Navarre, on the river Ebro. It is a fine town, inhabited by people of good faſhion, and is adorned with ſome handſom buildings.

Taſſala.

Taſſala is ſituated on the little river Cidaco, to the northward of Olita. CHARLES III, King of Navarre, built a palace here, which was his ordinary reſidence. It is a handſom town, tolerably large, encompaſſed with a wall, and defended by a caſtle. It is honoured with the name of a city, and has a univerſity, and the country about it affords good wine.

CHAP. X.

Contains a deſcription of Arragon, and it's chief towns.

CHAP. X.

Arragon. Situation and extent.

THE province, or kingdom of Arragon, is bounded by the Pyrenees, which ſeparate it from France on the north; by Catalonia on the eaſt; by Valencia on the ſouth; and by New Caſtile, Old Caſtile and Navarre towards the weſt; being about fourſcore leagues in length from north to ſouth, and fifty leagues in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Soil. Air. Rivers.

Arragon is generally a mountainous rocky barren country, but intermixed with ſome fruitful valleys, which afford corn, wine and oil, eſpecially near the banks of their rivers. The air is eſteemed healthful and temperate, and the country is watered with abundance of rivers, of which the Ebro is the chief, and divides it into almoſt two equal parts. Moſt of the other rivers fall into the Ebro: Thoſe on the north of it are, the Cinca, the Galligo and the Iſuela; thoſe on the ſouth of the Ebro are the Xalon, or Salo, the Riquelo, the Guerva, the Agna, the rivers Martia and Guadalope: beſides which, there are the Gaudalquivir and Alhambra, which uniting their ſtreams, run through Valencia, and fall into the Mediterranean.

Chief towns.

The towns which have the denomination of cities are Saragoſſa, Balbaſtro, Jaca, Taracona, Hueſca, Catalajud, Albarrazin, Tervel, Daroca and Boria. The other towns of any note are Alagon, Ixar, Ricla, Alhambra, Moncon, Almudevar, Sancta Chriſtina and Fraga.

Saragoſſa.

Saragoſſa, the capital of Arragon, is ſituated in a vaſt plain on the banks of the river Ebro, which there receives two other rivers, viz. the Gallego and the Guerva, lying about ſixty leagues north-eaſt of Madrid, and twenty weſt of the confines of Catalonia. The town is large, ſurrounded with an old wall and other antique fortifications, and conſequently of no great ſtrength. It is ſaid to have been founded by the Phenicians, and the Romans had a colony here in the time of AUGUSTUS, from whence it is ſuppoſed to have obtained the name of *Cæſar Auguſtus*, by corruption Saragoſſa. The ſtreets are large and well paved, the houſes for the moſt part built of brick, three or four ſtories high, more beautiful and uniform than thoſe of Madrid, and adorned with a great many magnificent publick buildings. Travellers mention ſeventeen great churches, fourteen fine monaſteries, beſides many others leſs conſiderable. It is the See of an Archbiſhop, and a univerſity, and the tribunal of the inquiſition is held here in the palace of their ancient Kings. There are two fine bridges over the Ebro, one of ſtone and the other of wood, the latter of which, it is ſaid, is not to be parallell'd in Europe for it's beauty: and as the Ebro paſſes through the middle of the town, there is a handſom key (or *Quay*) on which the citizens uſually walk. There are alſo many other publick walks, but the fineſt is that called the Holy Street, where people of faſhion take the air every evening in their coaches drawn by mules. On each ſide of this ſtreet are the palaces of the nobility, particularly that of the Viceroy. It is called the Holy Street, becauſe here great numbers of Chriſtians ſuffered martyrdom under it's Pagan governors. The cathedral is a vaſt Gothick ſtructure, which is not however

without

A legend of the Virgin.

Reflecti-ons on the pomp of Roman worſhip.

without it's beauties; but the church moſt reſorted to by devout people is that of Our Lady of the Pillar, eſteemed almoſt equal in ſanctity to that of St. James of Compoſtella. They relate, that the Virgin, while ſhe was alive, appeared to St. James while he was endeavouring the converſion of the Spaniards, and encouraged him in his labours, leaving there an image of her ſelf, and a fine jaſper pillar whereon ſhe ſtood when ſhe appeared to him. They ſhew both the one and the other in this church, which they pretend was the firſt that was built in the world to the honour of our Saviour. There is nothing extraordinary in the deſign or architecture of the Church, but the chapel of the Virgin underneath it is much admired. This chapel is thirty-ſix foot long, and twenty-ſix broad. Here is the image of the Virgin ſtanding on a pillar, with a little Jesus in her arms; and as the place is perfectly hid from the light of the Sun, it is inlightened with lamps and torches. Nothing can appear richer than the ornaments about her; the place where ſhe ſtands, her robes and crown, are covered with precious ſtones; all round her are angels of ſolid ſilver, holding flambeaux in their hands; beſides which, there are not leſs than fifty ſilver lamps, with a multitude of figures of legs, arms, heads and hearts, brought hither in acknowledgment of miraculous cures wrought by the bleſſed Virgin. Every thing here ſhines with gold and precious ſtones, and multitudes of pilgrims come hither continually to perform their devotions. Theſe glittering ſhews raviſh the vulgar. The pomp of the Roman worſhip, and that profuſion of wealth found in their churches, gains them an infinite number of proſelytes; in which, ſay they, we do but imitate the precedent that God himſelf has ſet us: The temple of Jeruſalem was built and adorned by his particular directions; and the ceremonies and proceſſions of the Jews no leſs pompous than ours. Theſe we acknowledge are but faint reſemblances of the glories of heaven, but by theſe men are led to contemplate that Divine Being whom we all adore: It is natural, when we view ſome magnificent temple, to reflect on the infinite attributes of the deity worſhipped there, and to cry out with Solomon, THE HEAVEN OF HEAVENS CANNOT CONTAIN THEE.

But to proceed: In a church near one of the gates of the town there is a crucifix, whoſe nails are believed to grow by this credulous people. The hoſpital for the entertainment of pilgrims has a noble tower adjoining to it, and though there be two hundred and eighty-four ſteps to the top of it, if I may credit my author, it is of ſo eaſy an aſcent that a man on horſeback may ride up it. Among the Convents of Saragoſſa, that of St. Francis is reckoned the fineſt; the church particularly is much admired, the roof having not one ſingle pillar to ſuſtain it, though it be of a great length and breadth. The convent of St. Jerome is reſorted to with great devotion, on account of the bodies of abundance of martyrs interred there: They pretend to ſhew the blood and aſhes of ſeveral of them, which they have preſerved in cryſtal veſſels to this day. Beſides the ſacred buildings, the town-houſe is a ſumptuous edifice, as is that where the States of the province aſſemble, in the hall whereof are the buſts of all the Kings of Arragon, large as the life.

Saragoſſa declared for King Charles III, the preſent Emperor, Anno 1706. After the battle of Almanza, Anno 1707, this city was obliged to ſubmit to King Philip again. In the year 1710, King Charles obtained a victory over the forces of King Philip near Saragoſſa, which he entered in triumph the ſame evening; but upon the taking of a body of Engliſh forces priſoners at Brihuega, the Confederates were obliged to retire out of Arragon, and leave King Philip again in the poſſeſſion of Saragoſſa, who deprived the natives of their moſt valuable privileges, and executed many of the citizens who had appeared in his rival's intereſt.

There are no fountains in the ſtreets of Saragoſſa, but it is ſupplied with water from the Ebro. This river, though it be as large as the Seine at Paris, is not navigable here on account of the dangerous rocks which lie in the channel. It is however a rich, beautiful and populous city, abundance of people of quality have their reſidence here, as well as a great many merchants and bankers: the latter are generally natives of France. Next to Salamanca and Alcala, their univerſity is eſteemed the beſt in Spain. The air is not ſo hot here as in many other Spaniſh towns. The neighbouring country is full of fine gardens, and orchards, and for three leagues about it the houſes ſtand ſo thick, that it looks like one continued village.

Balbaſtro.

Balbaſtro is ſituated in a plain on the river Vero, which a little below joins the Cinca, being eleven or twelve leagues north-eaſt of Saragoſſa. It contains twelve or fifteen hundred houſes, and is a Biſhop's See, but not conſiderable upon any other account.

Jaca.

Jaca is ſituated in an agreeable plain on the river Arragon, near the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, eighteen or twenty leagues to the northward of Saragoſſa. It is a town of great antiquity, and was the capital city of a people called the Jaccetani. The neighbouring country abounds in corn, fruit, cattle and all manner of game; but the city is remarkable for little at preſent, unleſs it's being a Biſhop's See.

Taracona.

Taracona is a ſmall city on the river Queiles. ſituate partly on a rock and partly in the plain, about twenty leagues north-weſt of Saragoſſa. It ſtands in a fruitful country, and is a Biſhop's See: The principal manufacture ſword-blades and other arms, which receives a good temper from the water of the Queiles.

Hueſca.

Hueſca, *olim Oſca*, is a little handſom town, ſituated on the river Iſuela, in a fruitful plain ſurrounded with mountains, five or ſix leagues north-weſt of Balbaſtro. The Romans erected an academy here for the education of young gentlemen. It is ſtill a univerſity and a Biſhop's See.

Catalajud.

Catalajud is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers Xalon and Xaloca, at the end of a fruitful plain, ſeventeen or eighteen leagues to the weſtward of Saragoſſa. It is a large handſom city, built out of the ruins of the ancient Bilbilis, which ſtood upon a neighbouring hill. Here the celebrated poet Martial was born, who has left behind him a fine deſcription of his country. It has the honour of being a Biſhop's See.

Albarazzin.

Albarazzin, *olim Turia*, is ſituated on an eminence, at the foot whereof runs the river Guadalquivir, not far from the confines of New Caſtille, about thirty leagues ſouth-weſt of Saragoſſa, and is only remarkable for being a Biſhop's See.

Tervel.

Tervel ſtands in a large agreeable plain, at the confluence of the two rivers Alhambra and Guadalquivir, ten or twelve miles to the eaſtward of Albarazzin. It is a rich trading populous place and the See of a Biſhop; enjoys a fine air, and almoſt perpetual ſpring. The country about it is one continued garden, abounding in delicious fruits

fruits and odoriferous flowers. Philip II built a citadel here with five baſtions.

Daroca.

Daroca ſtands on the river Xiloca, about fifteen leagues ſouth-weſt of Saragoſſa, in a rocky and almoſt inacceſſible ſituation. It conſiſts of about a thouſand families, and is a Biſhop's See. Travellers are ſhewn here a vaſt grot or cave, about a mile in length.

Boria.

Boria ſtands at the foot of a little hill, about twelve leagues to the weſtward of Saragoſſa, and two or three leagues ſouth-eaſt of Taragona. It is only conſiderable on account of it's being a Biſhop's See. The country about it is well watered with fountains, and produces corn, wine, oil, flax and excellent paſture, on which they feed great herds of cattle.

Fraga.

Fraga is ſituated on an eminence near the river Cinca, on the frontiers of Catalonia, about three leagues to the weſtward of Lerida. It is naturally ſtrong, being defended by high mountains on one ſide, and the river Cinca on the other. The country about it is prefectly barren.

CHAP. XI.

Contains a deſcription of the province of Catalonia, and of it's ſubdiviſions, and chief towns therein.

CHAP. XI.

Catalonia. Situation and extent.

THE Province of Catalonia is bounded by the Pyrenean mountains, which ſeparate it from France on the North; by the Mediterranean ſea on the eaſt and ſouth; and Valencia and Arragon on the weſt; being about ſeventy leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and fifty in breadth from north to ſouth.

The air. Face of the country. Soil. Mines.

The air of this province is pure and temperate, unleſs to the northward, where the mountains render it colder in winter. It is pretty much encumbered with mountains, notwithſtanding which there are ſeveral fruitful plains, as the plains of Urgel, Cerdagne, Vic, Gironne, Taragona and Panades, which afford corn, wine, oil, pulſe, flax, hemp and excellent fruits. Nor are their mountains barren, being almoſt all covered with foreſts of lofty timber, as oak, beech, fir and pine-trees, beſides cheſnuts and ſeveral other kinds of fruit, an infinite number of cork-trees, and great variety of ſimples. Both mountains and valleys are watered with a multitude of rivers, brooks and ſprings, which render the country extremely pleaſant and fruitful. Here are alſo mines of gold and ſilver, lead, iron, alum, ſalt, and quarries of marble, cryſtal, alabaſter, jaſper and amethiſts, and on the coaſt they fiſh up excellent coral.

Rivers.

Their principal rivers are the Ebro, which croſſes the ſouth-weſt corner of it, and falls into the Mediterranean a little below Tortoſa. The Francala, which falls into the ſame ſea near Taragona. The Lobregat, which riſes in the mountains of Pendis, and taking it's courſe directly from north to ſouth, falls into the ſea a little ſouth-weſt of Barcelona. The Beſos, which falls into the ſea a little to the eaſtward of the ſame city. The Ter, which has it's ſource in the mountain Canigo, runs at firſt from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, and then turning ſhort to the eaſt, paſſes by Gironne, and diſcharges itſelf into the ſea five or ſix leagues below that city: And the Fluvia, which falls into the Mediterranean a little to the ſouthward of the gulph of Roſes.

There are ſeveral other rivers which do not diſcharge themſelves into the ſea, but into the Ebro, the Cinca, &c. the chief whereof is the Segra, the largeſt river in Catalonia except the Ebro. It riſes in the mountains of Cerdagne, and running from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, paſſes by Puicerda, Urgel, Oliana and Camaraſa, where having received the Noguera Pallereſa, it continues it's courſe by Balaguer and Lerida, and having received the Noguera Ripagoreana, unites it's ſtreams with the Cinca, after which it falls into the Ebro near Mequinenza, upon the frontiers of Arragon. The two Noguera's run in parallel lines from north to ſouth, and fall into the Segra at the places above-mentioned. The Cervera runs from eaſt to weſt, and falls into the Segra a little above Lerida: And the Noya, which falls into the Lobregat near Marterel.

Catalonia is one of the moſt populous provinces of Spain, the people brave, hardy and vigorous, and make excellent ſoldiers. Their miquelets in the laſt war ſhewed they were the beſt militia in Europe, defending themſelves againſt the united forces of France and Spain, for a conſiderable time after they were abandoned by their allies.

Diviſion.

The province of Catalonia was much larger anciently than it is at preſent, ſeveral diſtricts having been diſmembered from it by the French; particularly Rouſſillon and Conflans, which were confirmed to France by the Pyrenean treaty, with a good part of Cerdagne. The country of Foix, which was alſo formerly comprehended in Catalonia, has been yielded to France. However, it is ſtill one of the largeſt provinces of Spain, and contains the fifteen following diſtricts or vigueries, viz. Along the ſea-coaſts, the vigueries of Tortoſa, Montblanc, Tarragona, Villa Franca de Penades, Barcelona and Gironne, in which laſt is comprehended the Ampurdan, or Lampourdan, as it is uſually called: Along the Pyrenees are the vigueries of Campredon and Puicerda, or the county of Cerdagne: To the weſt along the frontiers of Arragon are the vigueries of Balaguer and Lerida; and in the middle of the province thoſe of Agremont, Tarrega, Cervera, Maureſa and Vic.

The vigueries and chief towns.

In the viguery of Tortoſa the chief towns are Tortoſa, Garcia and Val de Cona.

In the viguery of Montblanc the chief towns are Montblanc and Poblet.

In the viguery of Tarragona, the chief towns are Tarragona and Tamerit.

The viguery of Villa Franca contains no other towns but Villa Franca.

The viguery of Barcelona contains the towns of Barcelona, Martorel and Mataro.

The viguery of Gironne contains the towns of Gironne, Blanes, Palamos, Palafugal, Oſtalric, Verges, St. Pierre de Peſcador, Caſtello Dampurios, Torella, Roſes and Caſtelfollit.

The viguery of Compredon contains the towns of Compredon and Aulet.

The viguery of Puicerda, or the Spaniſh Cerdagne, contains the towns of Puicerda and Urgel.

The viguery of Balaguer contains no other conſiderable town but Balaguer.

The viguery of Lerida contains the towns of Lerida and Aytona.

The viguery of Agramont contains the chief towns of Agramont, Camaraſa and Oliane.

The viguery of Tarrega has no other conſiderable town but Tarrega.

The viguery of Cervera contains Cervera, Cardona and Solſona.

The viguery of Maureſa contains Maureſa, Montſerrat and Berga.

The viguery of Vich contains Vich and Roda.

I proceed now to the deſcription of the moſt conſiderable towns in Catalonia, and firſt of Barcelona the capital.

Barcelona is ſituated in a large plain along the ſhore of the Mediterranean, about an hundred leagues to the eaſtward of Madrid, and thirty to the ſouthward of Rouſſillon. It is of an oblong, or rather oval form, containing about fifteen thouſand houſes, defended on the ſouth by the ſea, on the weſt by Fort Montjoy, which ſtands on a rocky mountain at a little mile's diſtance from it, and by it's own walls and fortifications on the north and eaſt. There is a mole carried a conſiderable way into the ſea, which renders it a ſecure harbour for ſmall veſſels, but large ſhips lie pretty much expoſed to tempeſts, as well as enemies, in the road. Since the fortifications that have been added to the town and Fort Montjoy in the late war, it may be looked upon as a ſtrong place; but then it is of ſo large an extent, it requires a numerous gariſon to defend it, and a much more numerous army to inveſt it. It is divided into the new and old town, which are ſeparated from each other by a wall and a ditch, the old being encloſed by the new. The ſtreets are large, well built, and neatly paved and kept, which is not uſual in Spain. The principal publick buildings are the cathedral, a fine large old ſtructure, the church of Our Lady del Pino, the Viceroy's and Biſhop's palaces, and the palace where the States aſſemble, called the *Caſa de la Deputation*. There are alſo ſeveral beautiful ſquares, particularly that of St. Michael, where all the great ſtreets center. Barcelona is a rich trading town, the inhabitants induſtrious, civil and obliging to ſtrangers, their women ſome of the fineſt in Spain, and the converſation of the people in general much more eaſy and free than in many other parts of the kingdom. It is the ſeat of the Viceroy of the province, the See of a Biſhop and a univerſity, and here is held one of the courts of Inquiſition.

This town, with the reſt of Catalonia, called in the French in the year 1640, who remained maſters of it twelve years. The French took it again in the year 1697, after fifty-ſix days open trenches, but reſtored it again at the treaty of Ryſwick. The French poſſeſſed themſelves of it again, with the reſt of the Spaniſh Monarchy. King Charles III, the preſent Emperor, by the aſſiſtance of the confederate fleet, and a very ſmall army of land-forces commanded by the Earl of Peterborough, made himſelf maſter of this city on the fourth of October 1705, N. S. after a month's ſiege. The Spaniards and French, commanded by King Philip and Marſhal Thesse, laid ſiege to Barcelona on the third of April 1706, N. S. while the French fleet, commanded by their Admiral the Count de Thoulouſe, blocked it up by ſea. The ſiege was continued till the eighth of May following, King Charles being all that time in the place, when the Earl of Peterborough and Admiral Leake with the confederate fleet, coming before the town, the French Admiral fled with their grand fleet, and on the twelfth King Philip and Marſhal Thesse raiſed the ſiege with the utmoſt precipitation, and retired into France, leaving behind them an hundred and ſix braſs canon, twenty-three mortars, and all their ſick and wounded, and vaſt quantities of ammunition and proviſion: and it was obſerved, that there was the ſame morning about nine, an almoſt total eclipſe of the ſun, which is the French King's device.

A treaty having been concluded between the Confederates (except the Emperor) and Spain on the 13th of July 1713, wherein the Catalans were included, but refuſed to accept the terms procured for them, on the withdrawing the Confederate forces the Catalans gariſoned Barcelona with their own troops, and ſtood upon their defence againſt the united powers of France and Spain. The enemy blocked them up 'till July 1714, when the Duke of Berwick joining King Philip's army, the ſiege was carried on in good earneſt; eleven thouſand bombs were thrown into the place, which deſtroyed ſeveral churches and monaſteries, and above five thouſand houſes. The Enemy continued to batter the town with above eighty pieces of cannon and twenty-four mortars, which held out however 'till the eleventh of September, when there was a general ſtorm, and the citizens having defended themſelves with the utmoſt bravery 'till four the next morning, were then obliged to retire out of the new into the old city, and beat the chamade. The Duke of Berwick looked upon them as deſperate men, conſented to treat with them, and agreed to give them their lives and ſave the city from plunder; whereupon both town and caſtle were delivered up, and ſtill remain in King Philip's poſſeſſion, who upon this occaſion diveſted them of many of their ancient privileges.

The fields about Barcelona are extremely pleaſant, as well as fruitful, well watered by ſprings and rivulets, and thick ſet with villages. They have both ſilk and woollen manufactures, and excel in thoſe of iron and ſteel. The wine they make has a good body and a fine flavour, and they export great quantities of it.

Tarragona.

Tarragona is ſituated on the ſide of a hill by the ſea-ſide, fifteen or ſixteen leagues ſouth-weſt of Barcelona, and was formerly a good harbour, but is ſo choaked up at preſent, that nothing but ſmall veſſels can enter it. It is encompaſſed with an antique wall and fortifications, which might contain two thouſand houſes, but there are not more than five hundred in the place at preſent; it is however the See of an Archbiſhop, to whom the reſt of the Biſhops of Catalonia are ſuffragans, and is ſtill an univerſity. The town, ſtanding upon an eminence, enjoys a pure air and moſt delightful proſpects, on one ſide over the ſea as far as the eye can reach, and on the other over a pleaſant fruitful country, abounding in corn, wine and oil, and interſperſed with abundance of towns and villages. But this city is remarkable for its antiquity, having been built by the Phenicians, and in the time of the Romans made the capital of much the largeſt diviſion of Spain, which from hence was called *Tarraconenſis*. Strabo ſays, in his time it was as large and populous as Carthage. There are ſtill ſeveral monuments of it's grandeur remaining, and particularly an ancient circus. Upon the taking of Barcelona in the year 1705, it ſurrendered to King Charles the preſent Emperor.

Tortoſa.

Tortoſa is ſituated on the river Ebro, about four leagues north of the Mediterranean, and as many to the weſtward of the confines of Valencia; lying partly on a hill, and partly in a plain by the river ſide, over which there is a bridge of boats, defended by two redoubts or caſtles, as ſome travellers call them. It was poſſeſſed by the allies in the late war immediately after the taking of Barcelona in 1705, and eſteemed by them a place of great importance, as it opened a paſſage into the kingdom of Valencia on one ſide, and the kingdom of Arragon on the other. They ordered the fortifications therefore to be repaired, and kept a gariſon there till it was taken from them by the Duke of Orleans in 1708.

The town is adorned with ſeveral fine churches and religious houſes, among which the cathedral, the royal college of the Dominicans and the convent of the Carmelites are moſt admired. They make here a great deal of ſilk and oil, and a fine ſort of earthen ware in imitation of china. It is in general a town of good trade, to which the Ebro very much contributes, this river being navigable here, and affording it a communication with the Mediterranean.

Tortoſa is ſuppoſed to be built out of the ruins of the ancient Ibera, a colony of the Romans, near which town the two Scipio's defeated Asdrubal the brother of Hannibal; and Livy obſerves, that in his time it was one of the richeſt towns in Spain. It is at preſent a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan of Tarragona, and a univerſity, pleaſantly ſituated in a country abounding in grain and fruits, having mines of ſilver and iron, quarries of alabaſter and the moſt beautiful jaſper.

Lerida.

Lerida is ſituated on a little riſing hill, which deſcends inſenſibly to the banks of the Segra near the confines of Arragon, about thirty-five leagues to the weſtward of Barcelona, and eighteen to the northward of Tortoſa. It is defended by a good wall, and other modern fortifications, but it's principal ſtrength is the caſtle, which ſtands on a hill, that commands it. The town is generally well built with ſtone; the cathedral and the Biſhop's palace are the moſt remarkable ſtructures, from whence there is a fine proſpect of the neighbouring country. The town is very ancient, having been founded by the Ilergetes, and by them called Ilezda; from whence it is ſuppoſed the modern name of Lerida is derived. Near this city Julius Cæsar obtained a victory over Afranius and Petreius, Pompey's Lieutenants.

It has been ſeveral times taken and retaken in the wars between France and Spain. Upon the ſurrender of Barcelona, in the year 1705, Lerida declared for King Charles, in whoſe poſſeſſion it remained till after the fatal battle of Almanza. The Duke of Orleans inveſted the town on the tenth of September 1707, and took it by ſtorm on the thirtieth of the ſame month, the gariſon retiring into the caſtle, which held out till the twelfth of November following, and then ſurrendered upon honourable conditions. The gariſon moſt of them conſiſted of Engliſh. They loſt abundance of brave officers and ſoldiers in the defence of it; though I queſtion whether there did not more periſh by ſickneſs than the ſword, as indeed was generally the caſe in this lingring unfortunate Spaniſh war; which if it had been well ſupported at firſt, had produced a peace ſeven years ſooner. And this was the true reaſon it was ſo ſhamefully neglected by the then Britiſh miniſtry; their favourite General had loſt his influence at court, and wanted great part of that immenſe treaſure he left behind him, if a period had then been put to the war. I queſtion whether the enemy was more rejoiced at our ill ſucceſs in Spain, than ſome people in the adminiſtration. Lerida is a univerſity and Biſhop's See, ſuffragan of Tarragona.

Balaguer.

Balaguer ſtands at the foot of a hill on the river Segra, four or five leagues north-eaſt of Lerida. It is a little fortified town, but of no great ſtrength, declared for King Charles III on the ſurrender of Barcelona in 1705, but was generally poſſeſſed by that party that was maſter of the field in the late war. It is ſituated in a fruitful country, that is, as far as it is cultivated; for it may be obſerved once for all, that their great towns are generally built near ſome river ſide, in the moſt fertile part of the country, which for a mile or two round, according to the extent of the place, is uſually cultivated; but all beyond yields nothing, unleſs herbage and paſture for their flocks and herds, and is very often a barren ſoil.

Mont-ſerrat mountain and monaſtery.

In the dioceſe of Barcelona, ſeven leagues north-weſt of that city, lies the celebrated mountain of Montſerrat, which overlooks all the plain of Barcelona as far as the ſea. This mountain is not only taken notice of for it's extraordinary height, but the form of it, which riſing up in a multitude of lofty pyramids, appear at a diſtance indented like a ſaw, and is ſuppoſed to have obtained it's name of *Montſerratus*, from the Latin word *Serra* a ſaw. But this mountain is ſtill more famous for it's ſuppoſed ſanctity, on account of an image and chapel here dedicated to the bleſſed Virgin, which is reſorted to by an infinite number of pilgrims. According to their tradition, this miraculous image of the Virgin, as 'tis called, was found in a cave by certain ſhepherds about the year 880; whereupon the Biſhop of Barcelona and his clergy came thither with a deſign to have carried it to ſome other place; but it remained immoveable, there was no ſtirring it from the place where the convent now ſtands. Whereupon Guifred Earl of Barcelona cauſed a monaſtery and chapel to be erected over it. Philip II and Philip III cauſed a magnificent church to be built in the room of the former old chapel, where the image had remained upwards of ſeven hundred years. The holy image now ſtands upon the altar of this church, being almoſt black, with a little Jeſus in her arms: on one ſide of the altar is a picture of Philip III, and on the other a picture of his Queen; the place being enlightned with no leſs than ninety ſilver lamps, and in the treaſury they ſhew a crown of the bleſſed Virgin's, valued at a million of florins. The convent is inhabited by monks of every nation, who with their ſervants make about three hundred perſons. They entertain all who come thither, either out of devotion or curioſity, for three days gratis, with bread, wine, fleſh, oil, ſalt, vinegar, and lodging, and there is no place to which pilgrims reſort in greater crouds, unleſs it be to Rome or Loretto. Over the church towards the top of the mountain are the cells of thirteen hermits, hewn out of the rock with infinite labour, to which they aſcend by ſteps cut out of the ſame rock. They are for the moſt part perſons of quality, who being weary of the world, have retired thither to ſpend their time in ſolitude and devotion. Every one of them adjoining to his cell has a chapel, a garden, and a fountain ſpringing out of the rock; over the cloyſter is a leaning rock, to which they have fixed three croſſes; here they ſay maſs every day to implore the bleſſed Virgin that ſhe will not ſuffer it to fall upon their church or cloyſter, and not without reaſon, for in the ſixteenth century part of the rock fell down upon their infirmary, demoliſhed it, and killed ſeveral ſick people. However, ſays my author, it is a charming ſolitude, they enjoy one of the fineſt proſpects in the world, there reigns a profound ſilence, nothing is to be heard but the ſoft notes of birds, or the murmuring of ſprings and rivulets, which on every ſide fall down the rocks.

A countryman of ours (Captain Carlton) who viſited Montſerrat in the late war, is in raptures when he deſcribes this lovely mount: the relation is ſomething long, and therefore I ſhall only give an abſtract of the moſt agreeable ſcenes he preſents us with.

Montſerrat, ſays that gentleman, is a lofty hill in the middle of a ſpacious plain, which promiſes ſomething extraordinary at a diſtance, hundreds of aſpiring pyramids preſenting themſelves at once to the eye, but ſo intermingled with trees of magnitude as well as beauty, that your curioſity can never be ſatisfied with viewing it. Upon this hill are thirteen hermits cells, the uppermoſt of which lies near the ſummit: you gradually advance to every one by a winding aſcent, by reaſon of the ſteepneſs; nor could a ſtranger eaſily find them out, unleſs he follow the old aſs that daily carries them their proviſions. This animal being loaden at the convent with a pair of panniers, in which is a partition for every hermit filled with wine and victuals, goes up of himſelf without a driver to their reſpective cells, each man taking his proportion as he paſſes, and having reached the uppermoſt, returns back to the convent again.

Theſe hermits our Captain eſteemed extremely happy, and would willingly, he intimates, have exchanged his office for a cell. For what, ſays he, can be more deſirable than to have every thing provided without care, the days without anxiety gratefully paſs away amidſt a vaſt variety of pleaſing objects, their ſleep never interrupted with any thing more offenſive than murmuring ſprings, natural caſcades, and the various notes of the pretty feathered choir? Theſe good men ſeemed to me the very emblems of innocence; inſtead of moroſeneſs and a phariſaical pride, too common in a recluſe life, you meet with all imaginable affability and complaiſance, they readily ſhew you all the rarities in their cells, and anſwer all queſtions with humanity and condeſcenſion. One of theſe reverend old men, while we were taking leave of him, whiſtled, and immediately a flock of beautiful little birds of ſeveral kinds ſurrounded him, ſome lit upon his ſhoulders, others upon his grey head and beard, whom he fed out of his mouth; and in ſhort every hermit had ſome little innocent amuſement to entertain the ſtranger with.

From theſe cells our traveller went to take a view of the convent, in the chapel whereof he ſaw the image of the Virgin ſo much adored: he ſays it appeared black and ſhining like ebony, though the prieſts aſſured him that the colour proceeded from it's lying concealed between two rocks when the Moors were maſters of the country.

The ornaments of the chapel were ſo immenſly rich, that our traveller tells us he thought all the treaſures of the univerſe had been amaſſed together there; and yet when he was led into the repoſitory, where the moſt valuable offerings are laid up, he found more coſtly preſents, the ſuperſtitious tribute of the Roman Catholick Princes of Europe: among the reſt there was a ſword ſet with diamonds, an offering from King Charles III the preſent Emperor; and the King of Portugal had ſent them a glory for the Virgin's head, every ray of which was ſet with diamonds, large at the bottom, and gradually leſſening to the extremity of every ray, each ray being about half a yard long. But ſhould I enumerate all the rich gifts I ſaw there, ſays the Captain, it would exceed all belief: as the upper part of the mount is a miracle of nature, ſo is this treaſury a miracle of art. I ſhall only add, that every Sunday the hermits dine in the hall of the convent with the monks. I proceed now to the deſcription of ſome other conſiderable places in Catalonia.

Vich. Vich is a little fortified town, ſituated in a fine fruitful plain on a little river that falls into the Ter twelve or thirteen leagues to the northward of Barcelona. It is remarkable for little but being a Biſhop's See, and declaring for King Charles III, the preſent Emperor, the firſt of any town in Spain. In the neighbouring mountains are found amethyſts and topazes.

Gironne. Gironne, *olim Gerunda*, is ſituated on the ſide of a hill at the confluence of the Ouda and the Ter, which waſh the walls of it, and ſtands about twenty leagues north-eaſt of Barcelona, and ſeven to the weſtward of the ſea, being the capital of the viguery called the Lampourdan. The town is moderately large and ſtrongly fortified, and has ſome handſom buildings in it, particularly the cathedral church dedicated to our Lady, which is richly adorned and beautified: the high altar ſhines with gold and precious ſtones, and the image of our Lady upon it is of ſolid ſilver. The town has a flouriſhing trade, is honoured with a univerſity and a Biſhop's See, and ſtands in one of the fruitfulleſt parts of Catalonia.

This town declared for King Charles on the taking of Barcelona in the year 1705, and remained in his poſſeſſion till the twenty-third of January 1710-11, when it was taken by the Duke of Noailles, after a ſiege of ſix weeks.

Ampurias. Ampurias is a little ſea-port town at the mouth of the Fluvia, twenty leagues to the northward of Barcelona, ſix north-eaſt of Gironne, and three to the ſouthward of Roſes, a town anciently very conſiderable. Before the Romans entered Spain, Ampurias conſiſted of two diſtinct towns, divided only by a wall, the one inhabited by the Greeks, and the other by the natives. Theſe nations preſerved their reſpective manners and cuſtoms, and had no communication with each other but upon account of trade. In this ſtate they remained for ſeveral ages, till Julius Cæsar having defeated Pompey's party, and then he built a third town adjoining to the former, and left a Roman colony in it; ſoon after he conferred on the natives the privilege of Roman citizens, as he did afterwards on the Greeks, and united theſe three people into one; after which the language and manners of the Romans became univerſal, and a temple was erected to the honour of Diana of Epheſus; on one of the columns whereof was the following inſcription, which has preſerved the memory of this event; viz. EMPORITANI POPVLI GRÆCI, HOC TEMPLVM SVB NOMINE DIANÆ EPHESÆ EO SECVLO CONDIDERE QVO NEC RELICTA GRÆCORVM LINGVA NEC IDIOMATE PATRIÆ IBERÆ RECEPTO IN MORES IN LINGVAM IN IVRA IN DITIONEM CESSERE ROMANAM M. CETHEGO ET L. APRONIO. COSS.

The Greeks had given this town the name of *Empurias*, or *Emporium*, which in their language ſignified a place of trade, which was eaſily chang'd into that of Ampurias. The territory of Ampurias is called the *Ampurdan*, (*Emporitanus Ager*) though upon the decay of this town, Gironne is become the capital of this diſtrict or viguery. The Biſhop's See was alſo upon the ſame account removed from Ampurias to Gironne.

Roſes.

Roſes is a port-town ſituate on a bay of the ſea, a little to the weſtward of Cape Creus, ſeven or eight leagues to the northward of Gironne, two or three to the northward of Ampurias, and ten to the ſouthward of Perpignan in Rouſſillon. It is well fortified, and defended by a fort, which ſtands upon an eminence by the ſea-ſhore, that commands the entrance into the bay. This town roſe out of the ruins of the ancient Rhoda, or Rhodopolis, which was built by the Greeks of Rhodes at Cape Creus. It was the only place in Catalonia that held out for King PHILIP all the laſt war, who now remains in poſſeſſion of it.

Campredon.

Campredon is a pretty fortified town, ſituate on an eminence near the river Ter, about ten leagues north-weſt of Gironne, the capital of a viguery, and defended by a citadel which ſtands in the middle of the place. To the north of Campredon is a high mountain, where they find cryſtal.

Puicerda.

Puicerda, the capital of the county of Cerdagne, is ſituated in a fine plain, between the rivers Carol and Segra, at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains. It is a pretty large town, and fortified after the modern way, being a frontier againſt France. The neighbouring country abounds in fruit and game, and there are ſome quarries of jaſper of various colours in their mountains, and two medicinal fountains.

Urgel.

Urgel is ſituated on the ſame river Segra, in a fruitful plain ſurrounded with mountains, and well planted with vines, four or five leagues to the weſtward of Puicerda, and has the honour of being a Biſhop's See.

Solſona.

Solſona is ſituated at the foot of a mountain on the river Cardonero, twenty leagues north-weſt of Barcelona, and is only remarkable for being the See of a Biſhop.

Cardona.

Cardona is a handſom town, ſituate on an eminence near the river Cardonero, nine or ten miles to the ſouthward of Solſona, moſt remarkable for a prodigious mountain of ſalt of all colours, but becomes perfectly white on waſhing it. The ſalt, according to my author, is inexhauſtible: notwithſtanding it has been dug theſe two thouſand years, it yields to the preſent owner, the Duke of Cardona, forty thouſand ducats per annum. When the ſun ſhines on this mountain, nothing can appear brighter, one would think it was all compoſed of precious ſtones; and notwithſtanding ſalt generally renders the ſoil barren where it is found, this mountain produces lofty pines, and is planted with excellent vines.

CHAP. XII.

Treats of the province or kingdom of Valencia, and of the chief towns contained therein.

CHAP. XII.

Valencia. Situation, &c.

VALENCIA ſtretches itſelf along the Mediterranean ſea from north to ſouth, being bounded by Arragon and Catalonia towards the north; by the Mediterranean on the eaſt; by Murcia on the ſouth; and by New Caſtile on the weſt; being about ſixty-three leagues in length from north to ſouth, and five and twenty in breadth from eaſt to weſt, where broadeſt.

Air.

Soil.

This is one of the moſt agreeable provinces in Spain; the air is pure and temperate, and they enjoy almoſt a perpetual ſpring. 'Tis true, the country is in ſeveral parts encumbered with mountains, but the plains and valleys on the ſea-coaſt are extremely fruitful in wine, oil, ſugar, rice, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and all manner of fruits. In every ſeaſon of the year we find leaves, fruit and bloſſoms on the trees, nor do they want ſilk, flax, or honey; but the ſoil does not ſeem very proper for corn. In their hills are mines of gold, ſilver and alum, quarries of alabaſter and marble, and the ſea furniſhes them with plenty of fiſh; but they have too often the misfortune of ſeeing all the fruits of the earth deſtroyed, with the leaves of trees and every thing that is green, for many miles in a few hours, by thoſe innumerable armies of locuſts which viſit them from Africa. Nor is this the worſt of it, for they have no ſooner done them this irreparable miſchief, but they die away, and cauſe ſuch an intolerable ſtench, that they infect the air, and occaſion a variety of diſeaſes.

Mines.

Locuſts.

Rivers.

This province is well watered with rivers and brooks, of which ſome reckon up five and thirty; they all run from eaſt to weſt, or from the north-weſt to the ſouth-weſt, and fall into the Mediterranean ſea. The chief of them are the Miglias, or Millares, the Morviedro, the Guadalquivir, the Xucar, and the Segura.

Miglias.

The Miglias, or Millares, riſes in Arragon, and running ſouth-eaſt, falls into the ſea a little below Villa Real.

Morviedro.

The Morviedro riſes towards the confines of Caſtile, and running eaſtward paſſes by Segorba, falling into the ſea a little below the town of Morviedro.

Guadalquivir.

The Guadalquivir, ſo called by the Moors on account of the pureneſs of it's waters, is not ſo remarkable for it's depth as it's agreeable and beautiful banks, always covered with roſes and other flowers, or the moſt delightful groves of trees, from it's ſource to the mouth of it. This river riſes on the confines of Arragon and New Caſtile, near the town of Albarazin, and runs from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt croſs the kingdom of Valencia, falling into the ſea near the capital city of the ſame name.

Xucar.

The Xucar riſing in New Caſtile, runs through the province of Sierra, where it receives the two ſmall rivers of Cabriel and Oliara, after which it croſſes Valencia from eaſt to weſt, and falls into the ſea near the little town of Cullern.

Segura.

The Segura riſes in Andaluſia, and taking it's courſe through the kingdom of Murcia, enters Valencia, near Origuela, diſcharging it ſelf into the ſea near Guardamar.

The kingdom of Valencia was much better peopled anciently than it is at preſent, for it was from hence that the greateſt part of the Moors were baniſhed to Africa in the year 1610, on ſuſpicion that the converts they had made amongſt them were ſtill inclined to Mahometiſm, and never failed to profeſs it when they had an opportunity of doing it with impunity. But ſtill there is a great mixture of old and new Chriſtians, or of native Spaniards and Moriſcoes, as they ſtile the deſcendants of the ancient Moors, and theſe apply themſelves much more to mechanick arts and huſbandry than the former, which may be one occaſion of the fertility of this province.

Chief towns.

The chief towns are Valencia, Morviedro, Segorba, Zerica, Villa Real, Villa Hermoſa, St. Mattheo, Caſtello de la Plana, Peniſcola and Morella to the northward; and Alzira, Monteſa, Xativa, Gandia, Denia, Altea, Alicant, Elche, Elda, and Crigula to the ſouthward.

Valencia.

Valencia, the capital, is ſituated in a fine plain on the river Guadalquivir, or Turia, two miles from the ſea, lying about fifty-five leagues ſouth-eaſt of Madrid, and as many ſouth-weſt of Barcelona. It is ſurrounded by a wall and ſome antique fortifications, but eſteemed a place of no great ſtrength. The form of the town is round, and contains about twelve thouſand houſes. All the travellers I meet with concur in admiring the beauty of the place, and it's charming ſituation; they enjoy, ſays one of them, a ſweet temperate air, and are ſcarce ſenſible of winter; they abound in all things that can render life agreeable: the town is watered with a fine river, over which there are five ſtone-bridges, and their fountains are innumerable: the ſuburbs, large as the town, are intermixed with the moſt beautiful gardens: the inhabitants are of an obliging agreeable converſation, and entertain you with an air of gaiety, not to be met with in other parts of Spain: their women the fineſt and moſt inclined to gallantry of any of the ſex: but here comes the curſe, (for I never met with a place extremely happy or engaging in ſome reſpects, but it was as unfortunate in others) theſe fine ladies and their gallants occaſion perpetual quarrels; and it is ſaid there are more bravo's and aſſaſſins natives of Valencia, than of all the provinces of Spain beſides, who for a dollar will murder any man you are jealous of: ſo that here is no ſafety among all this vaſt variety of delights, which ſurely muſt imbitter every thing that carries the name of pleaſure.

But I am apt to think murders are not ſo frequent as travellers ſuggeſt, for all the nobility and gentry almoſt of the province reſide at Valencia, trade and manufactures flouriſh here, and there are abundance of rich merchants and tradeſmen in the place, who would certainly find other ſeats if there was ſo little ſafety to be met with. Their principal manufacture is ſilk, they have alſo thoſe of woollen, and their foreign trade in wine, oil and fruit is conſiderable.

In the neighbourhood of this beautiful city, there is on one ſide a continued regular plantation of fruit-trees and ever-greens, and towards the ſea a bay is formed by the mouth of the river, three leagues in length and one in breadth, which abounds in fiſh and wild fowl; and about half a league to the eaſtward is a little fortified town, called Porto el Grujo, which may be looked upon as the port to Valencia. All the way from Valencia to Xativa, which is no leſs than nine leagues, looks like a garden, and the country is ſo populous, that the towns and villages are not half a league aſunder, where we ſee crouds of women and children before the houſes buſied in ſpinning of ſilk.

But to return to the town. The moſt conſiderable publick buildings are the cathedral, the Viceroy's palace, and that of Cinta; the monaſtery of St. Jerom, the exchange and the arſenal. In the time of the Romans, it was eſteemed the moſt beautiful town in Spain. From PLINY we underſtand it was a Roman colony, as well as by an ancient inſcription, wherein it is ſtiled *Colonia Julia Valencia*. There are many fragments of antiquity ſtill remaining in and about the city. It was the ſeat of the Mooriſh Kings, till they were expelled by JAMES the Firſt, King of Arragon, ſtiled the Victorious, in the year 1238, who united this province to the reſt of his dominions. It is at preſent the See of an Archbiſhop and a univerſity, and was one of the firſt towns that declared for King CHARLES III. after the taking of Barcelona in the year 1705, but ſuffered ſufficiently for her forwardneſs after the loſs of the battle of Almanza, anno 1707; they were ſacrificed with the reſt of our friends in Spain to the covetouſneſs and ambition of a certain General, who would not ſuffer the Engliſh forces in Spain to be timely re-inforced, leſt there ſhould have been too ſudden a revolution in that kingdom, which might have eclipſed his glory, and put an end to the war, before his inſatiable avarice had acquired a treaſure equal to that of many crowned heads.

Morviedro.

Morviedro is ſituated at the foot of a high hill on the river Palencia, or Morviedro, four or five leagues to the northward of Valencia, and about two leagues from the ſea. It is ſurrounded with an old wall and towers, and contains ſeven hundred families.

Saguntum.

Upon the top of an adjoining rock they ſhew the ruins of the once famous but unfortunate Saguntum, whoſe citizens, in the war between the Romans and Carthaginians, being confederates of the former, after having ſuſtained a ſiege of nine months, choſe rather to bury themſelves in the ruins of their town, than ſubmit to HANNIBAL, for which their bravery and reſolution has been often celebrated in Roman ſtory. It was retaken eight years after by SCIPIO, who reſtored it to thoſe that remained alive of the inhabitants. Upon one of the gates we meet with the following inſcription, viz. SENATVS POPVLVSQVE SAGVNTINORVM CLAVDIO INVICTO PIO FEL. IMP. CÆS. PONT. MAX. TRIB. POT. P. P. PROCOS.

At another gate near the cathedral, is the head of HANNIBAL cut in ſtone: from hence as we aſcend the rock, we meet with the ruins of an amphitheatre, conſiſting of ſix and twenty benches hewn out of the rock, and above the amphitheatre the remains of an ancient Roman fortreſs.

Segorba.

Segorba is ſituated on an eminence, in the middle of a ſpacious plain ſurrounded with mountains, on the river Morviedro, ten leagues north of Valencia, and as many to the eaſtward of the ſea. It is a walled town, conſiſting of about eight hundred families, and defended by a caſtle; the See of a Biſhop, and capital of a duchy. Near it is a quarry of excellent marble, which the Romans uſed to tranſport to Rome to adorn their palaces.

Xerica.

North-weſt of Segorba ſtands the little town of Xerica, the capital of a county.

Villa Real

Four or five leagues to the northward of Morviedro ſtands Villa Real, upon the river Millares, about a league from the ſea. It was a handſom little town, conſiſting of about eight hundred inhabitants, till taken by ſtorm in the year 1706 by the Marſhal DE TORRES, King PHILIP's General, who burnt it down to the ground, and put the people to the ſword, as he ſerved ſeveral other towns in the neighbourhood for adhering to King CHARLES III.

Alzira.

Alzira is ſituated on the river Xucar, ſix leagues to the ſouthward of Valencia, and is remarkable chiefly for it's ſilk-manufacture.

Xativa.

Xativa was ſituated on a riſing ground, nine or ten leagues ſouth of Valencia. It was one of the fineſt towns in Spain, and conſiſted of about three thouſand families, but after the battle of Almanza, anno 1707, it was burnt, and the fortifications razed by King PHILIP's army. This was another melancholy conſequence of the Confederates deſerting their friends in Spain who had declared for them, only to humour ſome favourite Generals in other parts of Europe. King PHILIP ſince

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ordered another town to be built in the place where Xativa ſtood, and called after his name.

Gandia. Gandia is ſituated on the little river Alcoy, within half a league of the ſea, ten leagues ſouth of Valencia, moſt remarkable for it's ſugar-works.

Denia. Three or four leagues ſouth-eaſt of Gandia lies the town of Denia, on the ſea-coaſt, defended by a caſtle ſituated on a neighbouring mountain, and has a tolerable harbour.

Altea. Three or four leagues further ſouth ſtands Altea, on a high hill, rather adorned than defended by an old caſtle, famous for it's bay, where ſhips frequently take in water. The country-people here made no difficulty in declaring their inclinations for King CHARLES the Third, when the confederate fleet touched here in their way to Barcelona, anno 1705; for which they ſuffered ſufficiently afterwards.

Alicant. Alicant is a ſea-port town, defended by a ſtrong caſtle ſituated on a rock, about twenty leagues ſouth of Valencia, and as many to the northward of Cartagena. It is a town of the beſt trade of any in the province, particularly in red and white wines, oranges, lemons and other fruits. The confederate fleet commanded by Sir JOHN LEAKE took both the town and caſtle in the year 1706; but immediately after the battle of Almanza, King PHILIP's forces retook the town, and blocked up the caſtle; the latter however held out againſt all the efforts of France and Spain till April 1709. The enemy tried all imaginable ways to reduce it, and among the reſt had recourſe to mining, in which they made but a very ſlow progreſs, the rock being extremely hard; they lodged however twelve hundred barrels of powder in the rock, and then ſummoned RICHARDS the Governor to ſurrender, acquainting him at the ſame time with his danger, and giving leave to two of his officers to come out and view the mine, which they did accordingly, and upon their report the Governor held a council of war, wherein it was reſolved not to ſurrender; whereupon the enemy ſprung their mine, which made an incredible noiſe, but had no great effect upon the caſtle; only the Governor, Major-General RICHARDS, and Colonel SYBURGH, happening to be a little too near the place where the mine was, were unfortunately blown up and buried in the ruins, with ſeveral other officers. The command hereupon devolving upon Lieutenant-Colonel D'ALBON, he determined to hold out till he was relieved, and venture another mine. On the 15th of April 1709, to the great joy of the gariſon, Sir GEORGE BYNG, and Major-General STANHOPE, appeared before the place with a fleet of men of war, and four thouſand land-forces on board; but the Spaniſh army being much ſuperior to them, they did not think fit to diſimbark their troops, but contented themſelves with ſending a flag of truce on ſhore, with an offer of withdrawing the Engliſh gariſon out of the caſtle, which the Spaniards agreed to; and purſuant to this capitulation, the gariſon, conſiſting of five hundred men, marched out the eighteenth of April 1709, N. S. with two pieces of cannon, and all other marks of honour, and embarked on board the fleet. Either the Confederates apprehended it impracticable to throw ſupplies into the caſtle while the Spaniſh army were poſſeſſed of all the avenues, or they might be of opinion that another mine would totally demoliſh it; at leaſt that it would be more eligible to withdraw the gariſon in time, than run the hazard of another experiment.

Origuela. Origuela, or Orihuela, is ſituated in a fruitful plain ſurrounded with mountains, on the river Seguria, in the midway between Alicant and Cartagena, and about a league from the confines of Murcia. It is encloſed with a wall, and defended by an old caſtle, and has the honour of being a univerſity and the See of a Biſhop. The neighbouring country abounds in corn, wine, fruits, honey, flax and ſalt; inſomuch that it is become a proverb, whether it rains or not, there is always plenty at Origuela.

CHAP. XIII.

Treats of the province of Eſtramadura.

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THIS province and the two Caſtiles are frequently comprehended in one; but I ſhall follow our beſt maps, and deſcribe Eſtramadura as a diſtinct province from the Baſtiles, and bound it with the province of Leon on the north; by New Baſtile on the eaſt; by Andaluſia on the ſouth; and by Portugal on the weſt; being about ſixty leagues in length from north to ſouth, and thirty-four in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The mountains of Banos, Pico and Guadaloupe divide it from the two Caſtiles on the eaſt, and thoſe of Sierra Morena ſeparate it from Andaluſia on the ſouth; but the reſt of the country is plain and level, if compared with the other provinces, and eſteemed the moſt fruitful part of Spain, to which the rivers that water it very much contribute: the chief of them are the Tagus and Guadiana, that croſs it from eaſt to weſt. Rivers. The Alagon, which riſing in the north runs ſouthward, and paſſing by Coria, falls into the Tagus. The Almonte, which riſing in the eaſt takes it's courſe north-weſt, and falls likewiſe into the Tagus. And the Zuja, which has it's ſource in Sierra Morena, and running firſt to the north, then turns about to the weſt, and diſcharges itſelf into the Guadiana near Medelin.

Chief towns. The chief towns are Placencia, Coria, Alcantara, Albuquerque, Feria, Truxillo, Guadaloupe, Merida, Medelin, Badajoz, Xeres de Badajoz and Lerena.

Placencia. Placencia is ſituated on the banks of the little river Xente, ſurrounded with mountains, about forty leagues ſouth-weſt of Madrid. Both mountains and valleys in the diſtrict of this city are extremely fruitful. The plains produce excellent grain, and on the mountains are whole foreſts of fruit trees, as apples, pears, cheſnuts, olives, cherries, peaches, apricots, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, &c. The town itſelf is well built, containing about two thouſand houſes, which form ſeveral fine ſtreets and ſquares, embelliſhed with fountains, and is the See of a Biſhop.

Coria. Coria alſo is an epiſcopal city, ten leagues to the weſtward of Placencia, ſituate in a fruitful plain on the little river Alagon. The cathedral is the only publick building mentioned by travellers, as worth the viewing. The city has the title of a marquiſate, and belongs to the Dukes of Alva.

Alcantara. Alcantara is ſituated on the river Tagus, ten leagues ſouth of Coria, and three to the weſtward of the confines of Portugal, a frontier gariſon againſt that kingdom, moſt remarkable for a magnificent bridge over the Tagus, ſaid to be built in the reign of the Emperor TRAJAN by the people of Luſitania. It is raiſed two hundred foot above the water, and though it conſiſts but of ſix arches, is ſix hundred and ſeventy foot long, and eight

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eight and twenty broad, and has this inſcription on it, viz.

IMP. CÆSARI. D. NERVÆ F. NERVÆ TRAJANO AVG. GERM. DACICO. PONT. MAX. TRIB. POTEST. VIII. IMP. VI. COS. V. R. P.

At the foot of the bridge there is a little antique chapel hewn out of the rock, firſt dedicated to Trajan, and afterward by the Chriſtians to the honour of St. Julian. This town was built by the Moors on account of the convenience of the bridge over the river, which here runs in a very deep channel, having high craggy rocks on each ſide of it. The Moors give it the name of Alcantara, which word in their language ſignifies a bridge. Alfonsus the Tenth, King of Leon, took it from them, and gave it to the knights of Calatrava, who afterwards took the title of knights of Alcantara.

Truxillo.

Truxillo, or Trugillo, *olim Trogillium* and *Turris Julia*, is an ancient town, ſituate among the mountains on the ſide of a hill, having a citadel on the top of it, fourteen or fifteen leagues ſouth-eaſt of Alcantara, and forty-five ſouth-weſt of Madrid, contains about a thouſand houſes, ſaid to have been built by Julius Cæsar, and famous in theſe latter ages for the birth of Francis Pizarro, Marquiſs de las Charcos, one of the Spaniſh Generals that diſcovered and conquer'd the empire of Peru.

Guadalupe.

Eight leagues to the eaſtward of Truxillo, on the confines of New Caſtile, ſtands the little town of Guadalupe, on a river of the ſame name, in a plain ſurrounded with mountains, which alſo have obtained the name of the Guadalupe mountains. The town is well built, and pleaſantly ſituated in a country that looks like a foreſt of fruit-trees, where grapes, oranges, figs, and other delicious fruits abound. That which contributes much to it's fertility are three or four ſmall brooks, which falling from the mountains, run winding through the valley, and enrich it with their waters. But what the town is moſt famous for is a miraculous image, as they call it, of the bleſſed Virgin, which, according to their tradition, lay buried many hundred years in the time of the Moors, and now performs abundance of cures; at leaſt, devout people who have implored her aſſiſtance, upon their recovery have preſented her with a great many offerings, and pilgrims viſit her ſhrine from all parts of Spain. This image, like that of Monſerrat in Catalonia, is turned almoſt black, alſo ſuppoſed to be occaſioned by it's lying long under ground.

Merida.

Merida is ſituated on an eminence contiguous to the river Guadiana, twenty-five leagues north of Seville, and fifty-five ſouth-weſt of Madrid, formerly known by the name of *Emerita Auguſta*, and was the capital of the ancient Luſitania. There are ſtill ſome noble remains of antiquity here, as the ruins of the walls, which ſhew it's ancient grandeur, though the town be ſmall at preſent, not containing above a thouſand inhabitants. Augustus built a fine bridge over the Guadiana at this place, and two aqueducts, and cauſed a highway to be made from thence to Seville. The aqueducts are entirely ruined, and there is another modern one in their room, much inferior to the former, which however conveys water to the town from a conſiderable diſtance. The bridge was carried away in the year 1610 by a flood, and another built at a great expence. Among other remains of antiquity, there is a triumphal arch pretty well preſerved, which ſeems to have been the gate of a cirque or theatre. The town was fortified about the time that the Portugueſe threw off the Caſtilian yoke, and in the laſt war with that nation the Spaniards laid up their magazines here. It is at preſent a Biſhop's See, and by ſome called the capital of Eſtramadura.

Badajoz.

Badajoz is ſituated on an eminence on the ſouth bank of the river Guadiana, ſixty leagues ſouth-weſt of Madrid, ten to the weſtward of Merida, and about half a league to the eaſtward of the confines of Portugal, againſt which kingdom it is the ſtrongeſt frontier town the Spaniards have, and is generally called the capital of Eſtramadura. It is a Biſhop's See, and contains about four thouſand inhabitants. The houſes are well built, and the ſtreets tolerably large, but the beauty of it is their great ſquare, on one ſide whereof ſtands the cathedral church of Saint John, and on the other the Governor's palace. It is divided in two parts, viz. the high and low town, and defended by two caſtles, one on the ſide of Andaluſia, called St. Michael, and the other on the oppoſite ſide of the river, called St. Chriſtophal, which defends the entrance on the bridge, a very fine ſtructure, built of large hewn ſtone on thirty arches. The town has ſuſtained two memorable ſieges without being taken, one by the Portugueſe in the year 1658, and the other in 1705 by the confederates, when the Britiſh General the Earl of Galway, a French refugee, loſt his right hand by a cannot-ſhot. The town ſtands in a very fertile ſoil: it is needleſs to enumerate the kinds of fruit, having done it ſo often already in treating of other towns in this province.

Xeres de Badajoz.

Xeres de Badajoz is a little city, about eight leagues ſouth-eaſt of Badajoz, and belonged formerly to the knights templers, which occaſioned it's being called Xeres de Cavalleros. The principal riches of the place conſiſts in cattle, which are fed in the fine paſtures about it. It is ſaid they ſend no leſs than fifty thouſand horned cattle annually to the fairs of Eſcalona and Villena.

Medellin.

Medellin is ſituated on the Guadiana, ſix leagues to the eaſtward of Merida, in a fruitful country, abounding in all things, ſaid to be founded by Q. Cæcilius Metellus, a Roman Conſul, and famous for the birth of Fernando Cortez, the Spaniſh General that conquered Mexico.

Ellerena.

Ellerena, or Lerena, ſtands about ten leagues to the ſouthward of Medellin, near the mountains of Sierra Morena, built by the knights of the order of St. James, and honoured with the title of a city. It is ſituated in a fruitful ſoil, rich in paſture.

CHAP. XIV.

Treats of the province of Andaluſia.

CHAP. XIV.

Andaluſia. Situation and extent.

ANDALUSIA is bounded by a long chain of mountains, called Sierra Morena, which ſeparate it from Eſtramadura and New Caſtile, on the north; by Murcia and Grenada, towards the eaſt; by the ſame province of Grenada, the ſtreights of Gibralter and the Atlantick Ocean on the ſouth; and by Portugal, from which it is divided by the Guadiana and Chanca, towards the weſt; extending in length about ninety leagues from eaſt to weſt, and about ſixty in it's greateſt breadth from north to ſouth, but in many places, eſpecially towards the eaſt, it is not thirty leagues over. It has the advantage of near ſeventy leagues ſea-coaſt. Andaluſia is part of the ancient Bætica, which comprehended this province, Grenada, and that

Name.

part of Eſtramadura which lies ſouth of the Guadiana. It was called Vandalitia from the Vandals, who ſettled here in the fifth century, and from thence corruptly Andaluſia. The Moors poſſeſſed themſelves of it in the eighth century, and divided it into the kingdoms of Cordoua, Seville and Jaen. They enjoy here a pure ſerene heaven, a healthful air, and a ſoil anſwerable to the moſt luxurious wiſhes, abounding in corn, wine, oil, ſugar and honey. They have large herds of great and ſmall cattle, and the moſt beautiful breed of horſes in Europe, and no country was more famous for it's rich minerals till America was found out. True it is, great part of the ſummer is exceſſive hot; but as the Spaniards in the ſouthern provinces ſleep away the middle of the day, and ſeldom travel but in the morning or evening, the natives are far from thinking the heats intolerable, eſpecially as they are frequently refreſhed by ſea-breezes, and by many other ways which neceſſity, the mother of invention, has taught them to avoid the heats. Beſides other minerals, in the mountains of Andaluſia they find plenty of quick-ſilver and vermilion.

Air. Soil. Cattle. Mines.

Rivers.

The principal rivers of this province are the Guadalquivir, which runs the whole length of it from eaſt to weſt, and divides the country into almoſt two equal parts. The Xenil, which riſing in the kingdom of Grenada, enters Andaluſia above Lucena, and taking it's courſe to the weſtward, diſcharges it ſelf into the Guadalquivir. The Odier, or Odiel, which riſing in the confines of Eſtramadura, runs to the ſouthward, and diſcharges it ſelf into the ocean. The river Tinto, which runs almoſt parallel to the Odier, and falls into the ocean a little to the eaſtward of that river. The waters of the Tinto are ſo bitter, that there is no drinking them, nor can any fiſh live in it. The Guadiamar runs from north to ſouth, and falls into the Guadalquivir. The Chanca runs from north to ſouth, and falling into the Guadiana, divides Andaluſia from Portugal. The Guadalete, by the Latins called *Lethe*, riſes on the confines of Grenada, and running ſouth-weſt by Bornos and Arcos, diſcharges it ſelf into the ſea at Port St. Mary's. And the Guadarmena, which riſing in New Caſtile, runs from north to ſouth, and diſcharges it ſelf into the Guadalquivir below Cacorla.

Diviſion.

I ſhall divide this province as it was formerly, into eaſt and weſt: the eaſt contains the ancient kingdom of Cordoua, and the weſt the kingdom of Seville.

Chief towns.

The chief towns in the kingdom of Cordoua are Cacorla, Ubeda, Baeza, Jaen, Alcala Real, Anduxar or Andujar, and Cordoua.

The chief towns in the kingdom of Seville are Medina-Sidonia, Oſſuna, Ecya or Ecija, Carmona, Marchena, Seville, St. Lucar Arcos, Port St. Mary, Cadiz, Rota, Gibralter, St. Lucar la Major, Xeres de Guadiana, Aymonte and Lucena,

Jaen.

Jaen, the capital of a kingdom in the time of the Moors, is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, fifty-five leagues ſouth of Madrid, and about twenty to the eaſtward of Cordoua, ſurrounded with a wall and antique towers, and defended by a caſtle. The town is tolerably large and populous, adorned with a handſom ſquare, fine churches and cloyſters, agreeable fountains, and the magnificent houſes of many of the nobility and gentry of the province that reſide here. But this city is moſt remarkable among the Spaniards for the image of St. Veronica, who lent her handkerchief to the bleſſed Jeſus when he was carrying his croſs, to which devout people reſort in crouds. It is at preſent the See of a Biſhop, ſuffragan of Seville, and ſituate in a country abounding in ſilk, corn, wine, oil and excellent fruits.

Cordoua.

Cordoua, the capital of a kingdom alſo in the time of the Moors, is ſituated on the north bank of the river Guadalquivir, having the mountains of Sierra Morena on the north, and a ſpacious plain to the ſouth, about ſixty leagues to the ſouthward of Madrid, and twenty-four to the eaſtward of Seville. The form of it is an oblong ſquare, ſtretching from eaſt to weſt along the river Guadalquivir. The extent of the town is very large, but not populous in proportion, there being abundance of large gardens and orchards within the walls. It is adorned with ſome fine buildings, palaces, churches and religious houſes, and has ſeveral large handſom ſuburbs, of which the moſt conſiderable is towards the eaſt. The cathedral is a vaſt magnificent ſtructure, built for a Mahometan Moſque by ABDACHAMAN, King of the Moors, in the eighth century, who made Cordoua the ſeat of his government. This church is ſix hundred foot long, and two hundred and fifty wide, having four and twenty large doors adorned with excellent workmanſhip. The roof is ſuſtained by three hundred and ſixty-five pillars of alabaſter, jaſper and black marble, a foot and half diameter. The new chapel in it is as large as ſome churches, lined with marble and richly gilded, as is all the roof of the church. That vaſt number of ſlender pillars which divide the ſeveral chapels from each other, make a very grand appearance on entring the church. The Moors were in poſſeſſion of this city five hundred and twenty years, during all which time the Chriſtians were allowed liberty of conſcience, and had ſix churches, in which they performed divine ſervice: for this privilege they paid a very inconſiderable tribute.

Cordoua is a Biſhop's See, the epiſcopal palace a large edifice, chiefly remarkable for it's fine gardens, in which is a wilderneſs of orange-trees. The King's palace is at the weſt end of the town, of a vaſt extent, and ſurrounded with walls like a caſtle. In the ſtables are kept two hundred horſes of the Andaluſian breed, eſteemed the fineſt in Europe. The Place Major, or grand ſquare, is another ornament to this city; it is ſurrounded with fine houſes, ſupported by a large piazza. Cordoua being thus elegantly built, and enjoying an excellent air, abundance of perſons of quality have their reſidence in it. The town has alſo a flouriſhing trade by means of the Guadiana, which begins to be navigable at this city. Several great men, as well ancients as moderns, were natives of Cordoua, particularly the two SENECA's, the Poet LUCAN, TROGUS POMPEIUS, PORCIUS LATRO, AVICENNA, AVERROES, FERDINAND GONSALVO, AMBROSIUS MORALES, &c. The neighbourhood of Cordoua is extremely agreeable and fruitful; the mountains, at the foot of which it is built, are full of gardens, vineyards, and foreſts of fruit-trees, interſperſed with a variety of fine valleys, watered with ſprings and rivulets. When their groves of oranges and citrons are in bloſſom, they perfume the whole country. It is one of the diverſions of Cordoua to walk in the fields in a ſerene ſummer's night, to breathe that delicious air, Their vines produce wine of an excellent taſte, and their fields afford ſuch an abundance of all things, that it is with juſtice called the granary of Spain.

Seville.

Seville is ſituated in a vaſt fruitful plain upon the banks of the river Guadalquivir, twenty leagues north-eaſt of the ocean, about twenty-four north-eaſt of Cadiz, and ſeventy ſouth-weſt of Madrid, anciently called *Hiſpalis* from it's ſituation; *Hiſpalis* in the language of the Phenicians or Tyrians, who were the founders of it, ſignifying a green plain. The city is one of the largeſt in Spain, of a round form, and encompaſſed with an old wall and towers, rather an ornament than defence to it, about eight miles in circumference, having twelve handſom gates. The houſes are well built after the Mooriſh plan, but the ſtreets are narrow; the inhabitants computed at three hundred thouſand. There are ſeveral conſiderable ſuburbs, that called Triana on the oppoſite ſide of the river is the chief, with which there is a communication by a bridge, and on each ſide the river are keys, where ſhips diſcharge and receive their lading. JULIUS CÆSAR rebuilt and beautified this city, giving it the name of *Julia Romula*. It was the ſeat of the government in the time of the Gothick ſovereigns, and afterwards the capital of one of the moſt conſiderable Mooriſh kingdoms, till taken from them by FERDINAND III, King of Caſtile, in the year 1248, after a ſiege of ſixteen months, when he drove out moſt of the Mooriſh inhabitants, and introduced the Chriſtians in their room, and is ſtill the metropolis of Andaluſia, being one of the moſt ancient Archbiſhopricks in Spain, the revenue whereof is ſaid to amount to thirty thouſand pounds ſterling per annum. The cathedral was a Mahometan moſque, built in the tenth century by the Moors, and is one of the moſt magnificent ſtructures of the kind in Spain, four hundred feet in length, two hundred and ſeventy in breadth, and an hundred and twenty-eight in height, and containing no leſs than fourſcore chapels and altars, where maſſes are ſaid every day. There are in the city a great many other fine churches and monaſteries.

On the ſouth ſide of the town is the royal palace called Alcazar, of which the fineſt part was built by the Moors. Here we ſee on every ſide the imperial eagle, with CHARLES the Fifth's motto, *Plus ultra*. The gardens belonging to this palace are extremely fine. Other publick buildings taken notice of by travellers are the palace of the inquiſition, the exchange, the India-houſe, the mint, the colleges belonging to the univerſity, which has not the reputation it had formerly; a noble aqueduct, which brings water from Carmona, ſix leagues from the city. Their hoſpitals amount to an hundred and twenty of all kinds, ſome of them very large and beautiful. There are a great many ſpacious ſquares alſo in Seville, adorned with fountains and magnificent buildings, and no town abounded more in wealth in the laſt age, when all the trade to Potoſi and America in general was carried on here. Their traffick is ſtill conſiderable, but Cadiz and other ſea-ports have deprived them of a great deal of it, the river not being navigable for large veſſels higher than St. Lucar. Seville is larger than Madrid; it's ſituation on the river Guadalquivir in one of the moſt beautiful plains in the world, renders it a very deſirable abode. The Spaniards look upon it as one of the wonders of the world, a perfect paradiſe, eſpecially in a fine evening, which they ſeldom want, when all the quality repair to the neighbouring fields in their coaches to taſte the fragrant air, perfumed with a variety of ſweet flowers and bloſſoms that nature produces here in almoſt every ſeaſon. Their olives are the beſt in Europe, and grow in the greateſt quantities; there is a wood of them not far from the city near twenty miles in circumference.

Cadiz.

Cadiz, *olim Gades*, or, as the Engliſh uſually pronounce it, Cales, is ſituated on the north-weſt point of the iſland of Leon, or Lions, in thirty-ſix degrees thirty minutes north latitude, ſix degrees forty minutes to the weſtward of London, and about ninety-four leagues ſouth-weſt of Madrid. The iſland it ſtands upon bears ſome reſemblance to a pear with a long ſtalk, and is in length from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt about ſix leagues; the north-weſt end where the town ſtands is ſcarce half a league broad; the ſouth-weſt end is about three leagues over, and has a communication with the continent by a bridge called Ponte Sanore. The iſland with the continent over againſt it form a bay four leagues long, and in moſt places two in breadth, only about the middle of the bay are two points of land, one on the continent, and the other on the iſland, ſo near together that the forts upon them, called the Puntal and Matagorda, command the paſſage, and within theſe points is the harbour, which it is impoſſible for an enemy to enter till he has taken the ſaid forts. This was the reaſon that the confederates in their expedition againſt Cadiz in the year 1702, made their deſcent near Port St. Mary's on the continent, in order to attack the fort called Puntal on that ſide, and thereby facilitate the entrance of their fleet into the harbour. Some other reaſons were given for their landing on that ſide, as the furniſhing themſelves with proviſions, and giving the country an opportunity of declaring for them: it was alſo thought very hazardous landing on the backſide of the iſland next the ocean, there running ſo great a ſurf upon the ſhore. But I find it was the opinion afterwards, both of the Generals and Admirals, that the landing on the back of the iſland, notwithſtanding the hazard, had been the moſt likely way to have carried the town; and that though they had taken the fort of Puntal, the fleet could not have entered the harbour unleſs they had made themſelves alſo maſters of Fort Matagorda on the iſland. This I thought fit to obſerve for the animadverſion of thoſe who may hereafter be concerned in an attempt of the like nature againſt this place. The Earl of Eſſex and Sir WALTER RALEIGH, in the year 1596, took the town before they attempted the ſhips within the puntals.

But to return to the town: It ſtands upon ſo very narrow a point of land that there is ſcarce any ground between that and the ſea, except to the ſouth-weſt; and it is the general opinion, that part of the iſland has been waſhed away or deſtroyed by an earthquake, together with great part of the ancient Gades, the preſent dimenſions not agreeing with thoſe given us by the Greek and Roman hiſtorians. However, the city is computed to contain ſtill about five thouſand houſes, and has a prodigious foreign trade, the Galleons annually taking in their lading here, and returning hither with the treaſures of Potoſi, and other rich merchandizes of America; and here accordingly are the fineſt ſtore-houſes in Europe. This alſo is the principal port where the royal navy of Spain have their rendezvous, and where moſt of their largeſt ſhips are careened and fitted out.

Cadiz is a Biſhop's See, the cathedral a fine building, richly adorned and furniſhed; beſides which there are ſeveral other handſom churches and convents, and a ſpacious ſquare with a fountain in the middle of it.

The iſland conſiſts of hills and plains, but produces

CHAP. XIV.

no grain of any ſort. Their vineyards however afford excellent wine, and their paſture is extremely rich. In the bay and on the iſland they make abundance of good ſalt of the ſea-water.

The Phenicians firſt poſſeſſed themſelves of this iſland, and erected a temple to HERCULES in it; after them the Carthaginians and the Romans were ſucceſſively maſters of it. The Romans, probably on account of it's trade and wealth, reſorted hither more than to any other diſtant town; inſomuch that it is ſaid, no leſs than five hundred Roman knights reſided in the city at once.

Port St. Mary's.

Port St. Mary's is ſituated on the oppoſite ſide of the bay of Cadiz, on the continent, about three leagues north-eaſt of that city, remarkable for the deſcent the Confederates made there in the year 1702, and the unhappy conduct of ſome of their officers, who too much encouraged their ſoldiers in plundering the place and abuſing the nuns, notwithſtanding they declared themſelves their friends; which gave the Spaniards ſuch an opinion of our heretick troops, as did them an inconceivable prejudice in the wars that followed in that kingdom.

Gibralter.

Gibralter is ſituated in thirty-ſix degrees north latitude, ſix degrees to the weſtward of London, at the foot of the famous Mount Calpe, uſually called one of HERCULES's pillars, the other being Abyle, or Sierra de las Monas, over againſt it in Africa. There is a chapel on each of them, the one called Our Lady of Europe, and the other our Lady of Africk. But to return to Gibralter: It is a little fortified town, built on a tongue or ſlip of land that runs out into the Mediterranean ſea, and forms a bay called the Bay of Gibralter. The mountain or rock which covers it towards the land is half a league in height, and ſo ſteep that there is no aſcending it by a body of troops if they are oppoſed. When the French and Spaniards beſieged it in 1704, five or ſix hundred men indeed found means to climb up the rock in the night-time, but being diſcovered, were part of them made priſoners by the Engliſh gariſon, and the reſt broke their necks down the rock. In the late ſiege, anno 1727; the Spaniards attempted to mine under the rock, but did not make ſuch a progreſs as to give them hopes of removing the mountain, and it is by moſt held to be impregnable on the land-ſide. On the other hand, if the enemies ſhould be maſters at ſea, it ſeems much more feazible to attack it from thence; and though the place might hold out a conſiderable time, it muſt of neceſſity yield at length, if it is inveſted on all ſides: there is not a town in the world, perhaps, but may be taken if it cannot be relieved, the art of war is arrived at ſuch perfection. As to the town it ſelf, it was little better than a heap of rubbiſh very lately; the native Spaniards moſt of them left the place upon our taking it in 1704, and there have not been many Britiſh families ſettled there ſince. The communication with the neighbouring country being entirely cut off by the Spaniards, makes it but an uncomfortable abode: they have no other proviſion than what is imported from abroad. The Engliſh government are indeed about to eſtabliſh a corporation there, and to make it a free port; but the want of a good harbour, and the uncertainty of remaining long at peace, I doubt will diſcourage merchants from ſettling there: and as it is like to be a perpetual bone of contention, whether England will gain much by the poſſeſſion of it, is a very great queſtion. The ſtreight to which this town communicates it's name is about eight leagues in length and five in breadth. Ceuta in Africk ſtands directly oppoſite to Gibralter, from whence it is diſtant five or ſix leagues. There is a ſtrong current that conſtantly ſets into this ſtreight from the ocean, which will carry a ſhip ten miles an hour, and requires a briſk gale to ſtem it.

CHAP. XV.

Treats of the province of Grenada.

CHAP. XV.

Grenada province. Situation, &c.

Face of the country.

THE province or kingdom of Grenada is bounded by Andaluſia towards the north; by Murcia and the Mediterranean ſea towards the eaſt; by the ſame ſea on the ſouth; and by Andaluſia on the weſt: being about ſixty-five leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-five in breadth from north to ſouth, where broadeſt. The face of this province is very rugged and uneven, and the mountains ſo exceeding high, that notwithſtanding the heat of the climate they are generally covered with ſnow.

Air.

Produce of the soil.

Rivers.

The breezes from the mountains and the ſea are mighty refreſhing in this province, but many of their valleys are hot notwithſtanding; which, together with the ſcarcity of water in ſome places, renders travelling almoſt impracticable in the day-time during the heats, eſpecially between Grenada and Seville: but ſtill the air is not unhealthful, or ſo exceſſive hot as in Andaluſia. While the induſtrious Moors were maſters of this kingdom, it equalled moſt countries of Europe in plenty of corn, wine, oil, and delicious fruits. It was then crouded with inhabitants, and manufactures flouriſhed: but the baniſhing the greateſt part of that people has rendered it quite another thing. However, at this day 'tis ſaid to afford every thing that can render life agreeable, that their very mountains produce vines, olives, oranges and other fruit-trees, and their grapes are the largeſt we meet with any where: ſugar-canes thrive in their valleys, and they make vaſt quantities of ſilk. Thyme and other ſweet herbs growing in their paſtures, gives the fleſh of their cattle a delicious reliſh. From hence we import oranges, pomegranates, figs, raiſins of the ſun, Malaga raiſins, and rich wines. The ſoil alſo produces melons, flax and hemp; and the ſea abounds in good fiſh. They have rich mines in their mountains, and quarries of precious ſtones. The principal rivers are the Xenil and the Daro, which uniting their ſtreams at Grenada, run to the weſtward, and fall into the Guadalquivir; the Guadalentia, which riſing near Guadix, runs eaſtward through Murcia, and falls into the ſea before Lorca. In the time of the Moors it contained thirty-three populous cities, of which not more than ſixteen retain that name at preſent.

Chief towns.

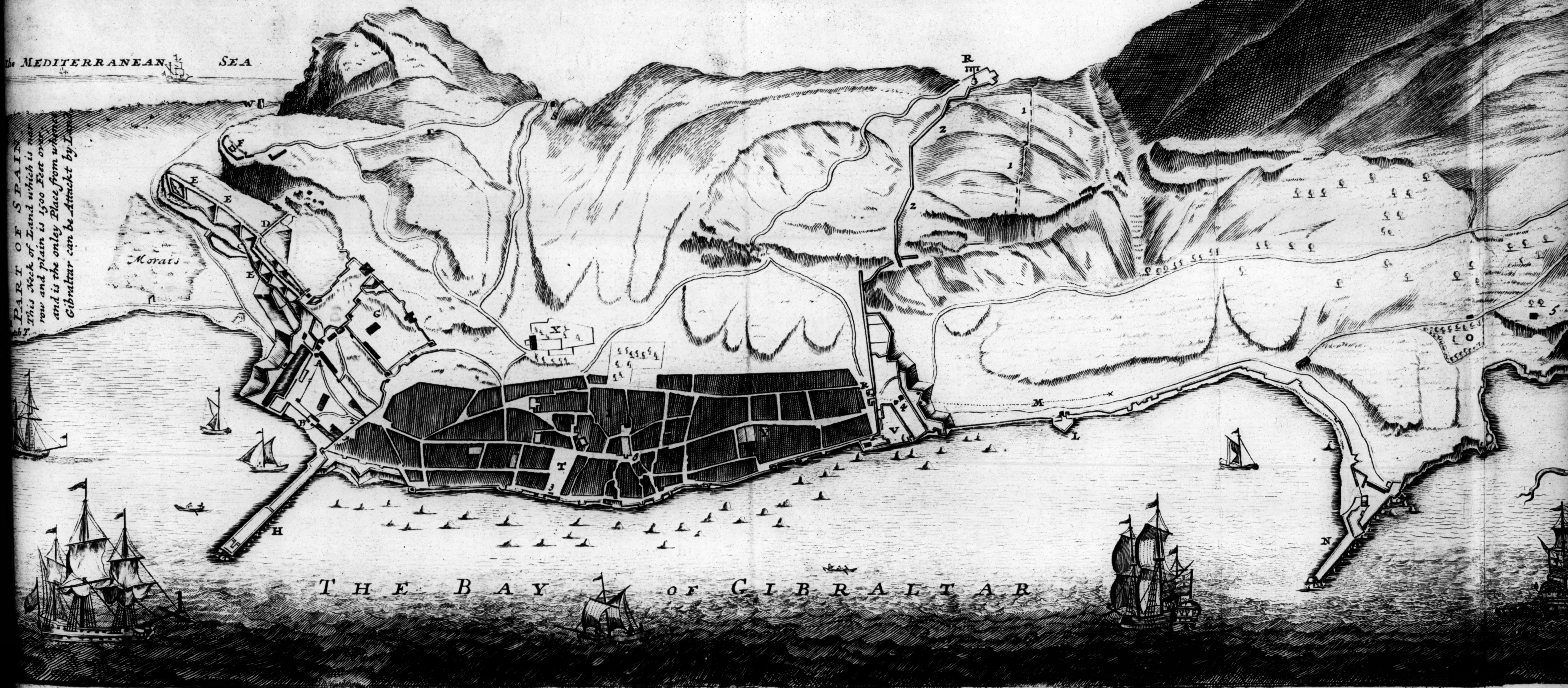
The chief towns at this day are Grenada, Guadix, Baza, Loxa, Antequera, Malaga, Cartama, Munda, Ronda, Velez Malaga, Alhama, Almunecar, Solebregua and Almeria.

Grenada.

The city of Grenada is ſituated at the foot of the mountain called Sierra Nerada, or the Snowy Mountain, partly on two little hills, and partly in a plain, at the confluence of the rivers Daro and Xenil, ſixty leagues to the ſouthward of Madrid, and twenty north-eaſt of Malaga, and is ſaid to have taken it's name from the grenades or pomegranates which the country about it produces in abundance. It is ſurrounded with an antique wall and towers, being about twelve thouſand paces in circumference, and hath twelve gates. On

XPLANATION. A. The Gate leading into Spain | B. The water Gate | C. The Round Tower | D. The Place where the Enemy made a Breach in the Year 17 4/5.
. The New work first propoſed by the E: of Portmore in 1712 and finishd when he was last there in 1720 | F. Williss Battery | G. An Old Moorish Castle
. The Old Mole | I. The Town | K. The South Gate | L. The Eight gun Battery | M. The Aquaduct | N. The New Mole | O. Rosia | P. Little Europa Point
. Great Europa Point | R. The Signal House from whence the View is Extended Sixteen Leagues both into the Ocean and up the Mediterranean; Here
continually a Signal man whose buisness it is to hang out as many large leathern Balls to the East or West as he discovers Ships coming from thoſe parts,
which means the Man of War lying in the Bay have timely notice to cut or slip their Anchors and speak with the Ships paſſing thro the Streights.
he same wind which brings them through either way serving equally to carry Ships out of the Bay | S. Middle Hill | T. the Parade | V. South Bastion
. The Devills Tower | X. the Hospitall Y. The Governours House | Z. The wall of Char. 5. | No 1. The Old Moorish Wall decayd 2. The Barier | 3. The
ainguard and Fountain | 4. The Well | 5. Place where are at this time Barracks building for a Regiment Ap. 15. 1726. 6. The Great Church

NB. The North end of the Hill is 1355. Feet high
Willis's Battery 463 Feet high from the High water mark



This Neck of Land which is nar row and plain is 1500 Feet over and is the onley Place from whence Gibraltar can be Attackt by Land

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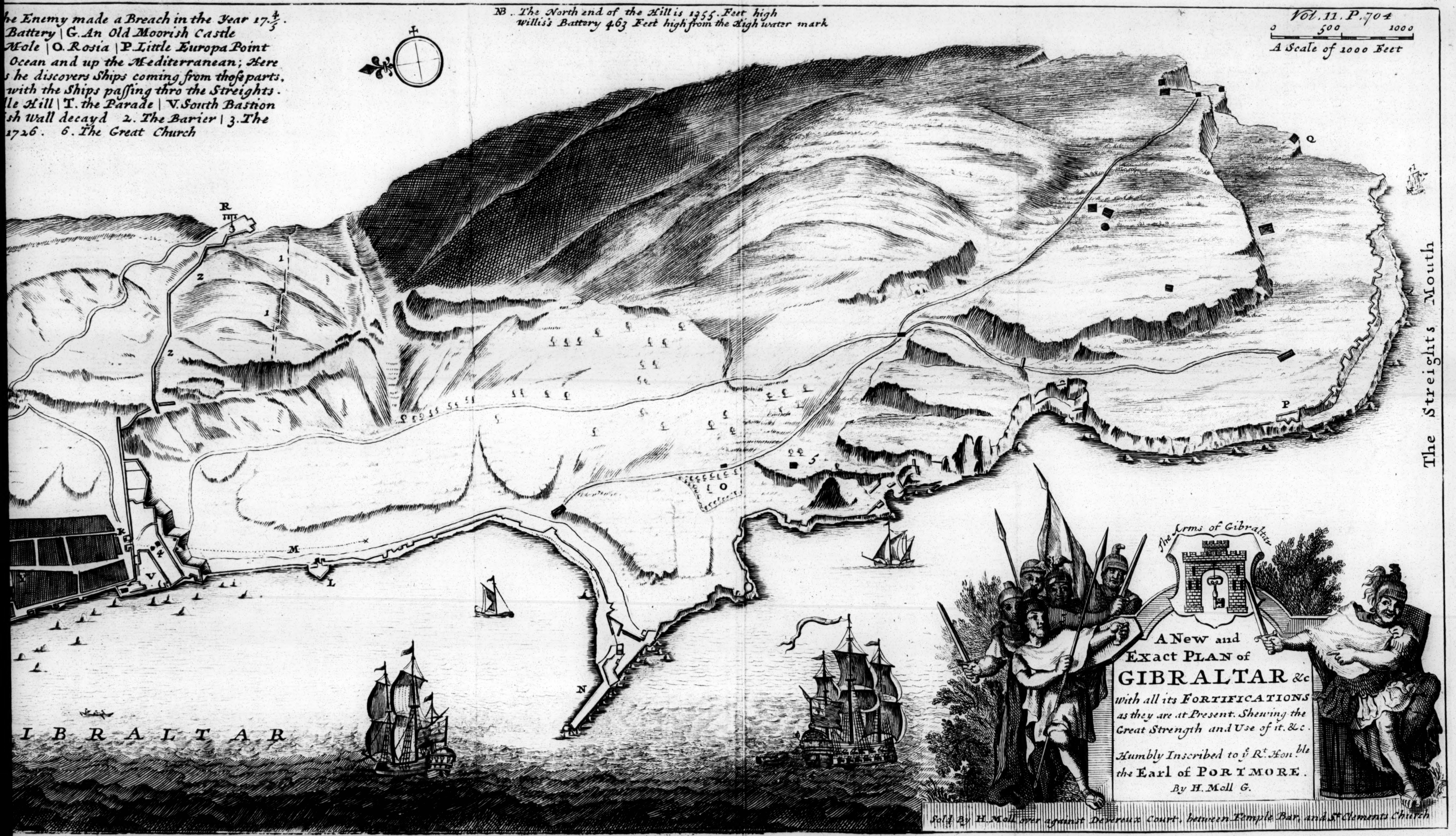

he Enemy made a Breach in the Year 17.$\frac{4}{5}$.
Battery | G. An Old Moorish Castle
Mole | O. Rosia | P. Little Europa Point
Ocean and up the Mediterranean; Here
s he discovers Ships coming from thoſe parts,
with the Ships paſsing thro the Streights.
lle Hill | T. the Parade | V. South Bastion
ish Wall decayd 2. The Barier | 3. The
1726. 6. The Great Church

NB. The North end of the Hill is 1355. Feet high
Willis's Battery 463 Feet high from the High water mark

0 500 1000
A Scale of 1000 Feet

The Arms of Gibraltar

A New and
Exact PLAN of
GIBRALTAR &c
With all its FORTIFICATIONS
as they are at Present. Shewing the
Great Strength and Use of it. &c.

Humbly Inscribed to ye Rt. Honble
the Earl of PORTMORE.
By H. Moll G.

Sold by H. Moll over against Devereux Court, between Temple Bar, and St. Clements Church

3 MA 83

the weſt ſide of the city lies a delightful plain, well watered with ſprings and rivulets: towards the eaſt the country is rocky and mountainous, but abounds in fountains and refreſhing ſtreams. Between the two hills above mentioned is a deep valley, through which the little river Daro runs, and having traverſed part of the town, unites it's waters with the Xenil, which is ſaid to have gold duſt mingled with its ſands, from whence it is ſometimes called the Golden River. The town is divided into four great quarters, known by the ſeveral names of Grenada, Alhambra, Albaycin and Antiquerula. That of Grenada is much the fineſt, and ſtands in the plain between the mountains, where the nobility, clergy, merchants and wealththy citizens chiefly reſide. This quarter is adorned with elegant buildings publick and private, and with ſeveral ſpacious ſquares embelliſhed with fountains: moſt of the houſes of the quality have gardens and fountains belonging to them.

The cathedral church is in this quarter; a fine edifice, but not large: the moſt remarkable thing in it is the dome, ſupported by twelve large pillars finely painted and gilded. Near it is the chapel where King Ferdinand V, and Isabella his Queen, who conquered Grenada, lie interred. The altar is nobly adorned, and the ſacriſty richly furniſhed. The chancery is in the ſame quarter, where the ſovereign council of Grenada and the officers of the treaſury aſſemble. There is a magnificent ſquare before it of an oblong form, adorned with fountains.

The ſecond quarter of the town, which commands the reſt, is called Alhambra from the redneſs of the ſoil, and ſometimes the Mountain of the Sun. Here are ſituated two caſtles or palaces, the one built by Philip II, and the other by the Mooriſh Kings. From the lower town we aſcend to this quarter by a fine walk of trees, adorned with ſtatues and fountains. The palace built by Philip is of blue ſtone, the architecture admirable, but it was never finiſhed. The palace of the Mooriſh Kings is much larger, ſaid to contain lodgings and accommodations for forty thouſand people. The walls are lined with jaſper, porphyry and other beautiful marbles, which form a ſort of Moſaick work; the cielings finely painted and gilded, and on the walls are abundance of inſcriptions in Arabian characters. This palace is ſtill kept in repair, and affords an admirable proſpect of the city and neighbouring country. On the outſide it has the appearance of an old caſtle, but within is extremely magnificent. In the middle is a ſpacious court paved with marble, ſurrounded with a noble piazza and galleries over them, at the four corners whereof are as many marble fountains, and in the middle one of an uncommon ſize, adorned with groups of figures, from whence the water is conveyed to the bagnio's of the Mooriſh Kings, which are rooms with vaulted roofs lined with alabaſter, having baſins to bathe in the middle of them: from the bathing-room they paſſed to another to dry themſelves, and from thence to a third, where they ſlept, or trifled away the time with their women during the heat of the day. Adjoining to the palace is a fine park and gardens well repleniſhed with fountains, rivulets and ſhady groves, which render it a very deſirable retreat in the ſummer.

The third quarter of the city called Albaycin was formerly looked upon as a ſuburb divided from the reſt of the town by a wall. It ſtands upon an eminence oppoſite to the other, and conſiſts of about two thouſand houſes. All the inhabitants of this quarter are Moreſcoes, diſtinguiſhed from the other Spaniards by their language, their habits and manners, and are for the moſt part huſbandmen.

The fourth quarter of Grenada was called Antequerula becauſe it was firſt peopled by a colony from Antiquera. It lies in a bottom, and is inhabited chiefly by thoſe employed in the ſilk manufacture and dyers. Grenada is a trading town, but not comparable to what it was in the time of the Moors, when they computed there were ſixty thouſand houſes, and two hundred thouſand inhabitants in the place. There are an incredible number of fountains here, and they never want ice and ſnow in the adjoining mountains to cool their wines, which occaſions abundance of people of quality to reſort hither from all parts of the kingdom during the heats.

Grenada was eſteemed on account of it's ſituation and it's fortifications, one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Spain while it was in the hands of the Moors, but it being of ſo large an extent, and having no other defence than the old walls and towers, would not be able to ſuſtain a long ſiege, at this day. It was ſurrendered by Boabdil the Mooriſh King, to King Ferdinand V. Anno 1491, on condition that the Moors ſhould be left in poſſeſſion of their lands, arms and horſes, keep their Moſques, enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion, and be governed by their own laws; and ſuch as deſired it, had liberty to ſell their effects and retire to Africk. How that capitulation was obſerved, will be related in the hiſtory of this country. It is at preſent an Archbiſhop's See and an Univerſity, but one of the moſt inconſiderable in Spain. The fields in the neighbourhood of the town are exceeding pleaſant, particularly on the ſouth and weſt: on that ſide next Antiquera, as has been intimated already, is a large plain eight leagues in length and four in breadth, called the Vega de Grenada, encompaſſed with little hills, and interſperſed with villages, beſides abundance of fine monaſteries and hoſpitals: to ſum up all, ſays my author, Grenada is a moſt delightful abode, the ſoil produces plenty of excellent fruit, and every thing that is deſirable in life; the air is pure and ſerene, and not ſo exceſſive hot as in Andaluſia; and ſo remarkably healthful, that people reſort hither to reſtore their ſhattered conſtitutions. The Moors were ſo raviſhed with the ſituation, that they imagined paradiſe to be in that part of the heavens which is directly over it.

Guadix.

Guadix is ſituated ten leagues eaſt of Grenada; it is an ancient town formerly called Acci, or Colonia Accitana. It is a large place, and lies on the ſide of a hill, in the middle of a ſpacious plain ſurrounded by mountains on every ſide, and watered with four little brooks or torrents. The houſes are not well built; nor is it remarkable for any thing, unleſs the cathedral and ſome fine cloyſters.

Baza.

Baza, or Baca, lies ſeven leagues north-eaſt of Guadix, in a valley called Hoya de Baca. It is tolerably large, containing about four thouſand houſes; but has nothing remarkable, unleſs the church of Our Lady of Piety, where they tell us great miracles are wrought. The ſoil is well cultivated for about half a mile round, and produces corn, wine, honey, flax and hemp; but the country beyond, as in many other parts of Spain, lies unmanured.

Loxa.

Loxa, or Loya, lies at the foot of the mountains, on the river Xenil, ſix leagues to the weſtward of Grenada. The town is moderately large, and remarkable for it's pleaſant ſituation, the fields about it being a perfect garden. They ſupply Grenada with great quantities of fruit, herbs, fleſh and other proviſions; the neighbouring mountains being well ſtocked with flocks and herds of cattle as well as game.

Antiquera

Antiquera is ſituated twelve leagues ſouth-weſt of Grenada, partly on little hills at the foot of the mountains, and partly in a plain. It is a fine large town, the ſtreets ſpacious, and the houſes well built; defended by an antique wall and towers, and a caſtle ſituated on an eminence at one end of the town, fortified after the manner of the Moors, and eſteemed a ſtrong place in thoſe days, but has no modern fortifications. It ſtands in a fruitful country, well watered with fountains and rivulets, and the natives employ themſelves in ſilk and other manufactures; but they are moſt famous for their ſalts-pits, where they make ſalt enough to ſerve the whole province. Two leagues from the town is a medicinal ſpring which cures many diſeaſes, and particularly the gravel.

Malaga.

Malaga is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, two and twenty leagues north-eaſt of Gibralter at the foot of a ſteep mountain, between which and the ſea there is but juſt room enough for the town, which is not very large or well built, but conſiderable on account of it's trade; it's harbour and fortifications being defended by a double wall, and two caſtles one above another on the adjoining mountain. It is eſteemed a rich populous place, conſidering the extent.

In autumn every year reſort hither great numbers of foreign ſhips, particularly from England and Holland, to load fruit, as raiſins, almonds, figs, oranges, capers, &c. beſides wines, ſome of which have obtained the name of Malaga from the place they are put on board, and are the produce of the neighbouring country. Malaga is the See of a Biſhop ſuffragan of Grenada, and the cathedral an elegant building, richly furniſhed and adorned, as are moſt of the great churches in Spain. It was near this city that happened the laſt general ſea-fight between the Confederates and the French, in the year 1704, when the latter ſeemed to reſign the empire of the Ocean to their enemies, having never appeared at ſea with their grand fleet ſince.

Ronda.

Ronda is a pretty little town, honoured with the title of a city, and ſtands on the top of a high rock, at the foot whereof runs the little river of Rio Verde, to which there is a deſcent by four hundred broad ſteps, cut out of the ſolid rock. It lies about ſix or ſeven leagues north-eaſt of Gibralter, on the confines of Andaluſia, which is ſeparated from this province of Grenada by a long chain of mountains, called the mountains of Ronda, vaſtly high and uneven, and almoſt one continued barren rock.

Velez Malaga.

The town of Velez Malaga lies about five leagues to the eaſtward of Malaga. It is ſituated in a fine plain, ſurrounded with mountains, and has an old caſtle belonging to it of no great ſtrength. The principal trade of the natives is in dried raiſins, which grow on the hills, about it, in oranges, citrons, and other fruits.

Alpuxar mountains inhabited by the Moriſcoes.

Near Velez Malaga lie the mountains of Alpuxarras, containing ſeventeen leagues in length and eleven in breadth inhabited altogether by the deſcendants of the Moors, who notwithſtanding they profeſs the chriſtian religion, retain their ancient cuſtoms and habits, and by their application to huſbandry render this mountainous tract one of the moſt fruitful parts of the country.

Alhama baths.

The town of Alhama is ſituated near the ſource of the river Rio Frio, ſeven leagues ſouth-weſt of Grenada, and is a handſom town, moderately large, but moſt famous for it's baths, eſteemed the beſt in Spain; they riſe from ſeveral fountains, and the waters thereof are ſo clear, that a piece of money may be ſeen plainly at the bottom: the heat is ſo moderate and agreeable, that people bathe in them with pleaſure; nor have they any ill taſte, and yet are allowed to heal many diſeaſes and infirmities. The Kings of Spain have built here a vaſt edifice for the uſe of the court, from whence people go down into the baths by ſtone ſteps, to what depth they pleaſe: and hither the nobility and gentry reſort, as well for pleaſure as their healths, at the ſeaſons for bathing, which are in ſpring and autumn. A little above theſe baths are frightful rocks, from whence the river Frio iſſues with a terrible noiſe, forming ſeveral natural caſcades. The waters of this ſtream are exceſſive cold, from whence the river takes it's name. A little below it unites it's waters with thoſe of the baths, and running ſouthward falls into the ſea near Puerto de Torres, where it forms a ſmall bay.

Almeria.

Almeria is ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, fourteen or fifteen leagues ſouth-eaſt of Grenada, and four or five north-weſt of Cape de Gatte, well known to our mariners. It ſtands in a fruitful ſoil, watered with fountains and rivulets, and abounds with ſuch fruits as are common in the reſt of the province, but chiefly with olives, of which they make excellent oil. The town is very ancient, and a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan to Grenada.

CHAP. XVI.

Treats of the province of Murcia.

CHAP. XVI.

Murcia province.

THE province or kingdom of Murcia is bounded by New Caſtile on the north and weſt; by Valencia and the Mediterranean towards the eaſt; by the ſame ſea on the ſouth, and by Grenada on the ſouth-weſt; and is five and twenty leagues in length, and three and twenty in breadth, being much the leaſt of all the provinces of Spain. This country produces good corn and wine, but not much of either, it is ſo very rocky and mountainous. Their greateſt riches are their fruits, ſilk and ſugar, and they have ſome rice. Here are alſo quarries of rich marble, and other ſtones. The air is generally pure and healthful.

Rivers. Segura.

The moſt conſiderable rivers are, 1. The Segura, anciently called Terebus and Sorabis, which riſing in New Caſtile, takes it's courſe eaſtward, and running through the middle of this province, paſſes over the ſouth part of Valencia, diſcharging it ſelf into the ſea at Guardamar.

Guadalantin.

2. The Guadalantin, which riſing in the kingdom of Grenada, runs eaſtward through the ſouth part of Murcia, and falls into the ſea near Almacaron.

Chief towns.

The chief towns are Lorca, Murcia, Cartagena and Almacaron.

Lorca.

Lorca is ſituated on an eminence, at the foot whereof runs the river Guadalantin, about ſix leagues from the ſea. It is tolerably large, but in a declining condition, inhabited chiefly by new Chriſtians, or Moriſcoes, as they are called, whoſe principal employment is huſbandry.

Murcia.

Murcia, the capital of the province, is ſituated in a fine plain on the river Segura, ſixty-four leagues ſouth eaſt of Madrid, and about twelve ſouth-eaſt of Alicant, being four or five miles in circumference. It is tolerably well built, and beſides the cathedral, has ſeveral handſom churches and monaſteries. Upon an eminence a little above it ſtands a caſtle, more an ornament than defence to the place. The country about it is extremely fruitful and pleaſant; it abounds chiefly in olives and mulberry-trees, the leaves whereof feed an incredible number of ſilk-worms, ſilk being their principal manufacture. Here are alſo ſome plantations of ſugar-canes and rice, but very little other grain.

Cartagena

Cartagena, *Carthago Nova*, is ſituated at the bottom of a fine bay of the Mediterranean ſea, ſeven or eight leagues ſouth of Murcia. The town is not large or rich, but moſt conſiderable on account of it's harbour at preſent. In the adjacent country, it is ſaid, are ſome mines of precious ſtones, as rubies, amethyſts and carbuncles, beſides others of gold and ſilver, which have not been wrought for many years; their alum mines however are ſtill very valuable. HANNIBAL, or AMILCAR, it is ſaid, firſt laid the foundation of this town in the ſecond Punick war, the Carthaginians having here their principal magazine. It increaſed within a ſhort time to ſuch a degree that it became the capital of Spain, and it was computed ſixty ſeveral people were ſubject to it, but was taken by Scipio in the year of Rome 544, where he found prodigious quantities of gold and ſilver plate, and other treaſures. This town was almoſt entirely deſtroyed by the Goths and Vandals, and remained a conſiderable time almoſt buried in it's ruins, till the commodiouſneſs of it's harbour drew people again to ſettle here, whereupon PHILIP the ſecond built the laſt walls and fortified it, ſince which it has flouriſhed a little, but falls infinitely ſhort of it's ancient grandeur in the time of the Carthaginians and Romans. It is ſtill however the See of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Toledo, and one of the moſt ancient Sees in Spain.

Almaçaron.

Almacaron lies on the ſea-coaſt at the mouth of the river Guadalantin, ſix leagues to the weſtward of Cartagena, conſiderable chiefly for it's alum mines, honoured with the title of a city.

CHAP. XVII.

Treats of the Spaniſh iſlands.

CHAP. XVII.
The Spaniſh iſlands.

THE principal iſlands belonging to Spain in the Mediterranean are the Baleares, conſiſting of Majorca, Minorca, Ivica and Fermentera, which were ſometimes called the kingdom of Majorca. They are ſituated between the thirty-eighth degree thirty minutes and forty degrees fifteen minutes north latitude; the moſt eaſterly of them, which is Minorca, lying four degrees to the eaſtward of London; and Ivica, the moſt weſterly of them, forty minutes to the eaſtward of London. They are ſaid to have obtained the name of Baleares from the Greek word *Ballo* to throw, the natives being very expert at flinging ſtones, and uſing the ſling as the principal miſſive weapon in their wars. They were alſo called Gymneſia from their going naked.

Majorca.

Majorca, the largeſt of theſe iſlands, and which has Minorca on the north-eaſt and Ivica on the ſouth-weſt, is ſituated about ſeven and twenty leagues to the ſouthward of the coaſt of Catalonia, and thirty-two to the eaſtward of Valencia, being about twenty leagues in length from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt, and fifteen in breadth from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt. The face of the country is very rough and mountainous, eſpecially on the coaſt, but there are ſeveral fine plains and valleys in the heart of the iſland, where we meet with arable lands, meadows, vineyards and orchards. There are ſeveral good ports and roads for ſhipping on the coaſt. The air is healthful and more temperate than the neghbouring continent, not ſo hot in ſummer or ſo cold in winter; and they are ſaid to abound in corn, wine, oil, ſalt, honey, ſaffron, cattle, wool, game and fiſh; but there are no wild beaſts or noxious animals on the iſland. I don't find they have one ſtream that deſerves the name of a river, to ſupply which defect however, they have a great many ſprings, from which they water their grounds; but in dry years they are forced to import corn from abroad for their ſubſiſtence. They reſemble the Spaniards on the continent in their cuſtoms and manners, more particularly thoſe of Catalonia. People of condition uſually ſpeak Spaniſh, but the common people a dialect called Limouſin, a barbarous kind of French. The chief towns are Majorca and Alcudia.

No rivers.

Majorca city.

Majorca is ſituated towards the bottom of a large bay, on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the iſland, partly on a hill and partly in a plain, being defended by a wall and other fortifications, and contains about ſix thouſand houſes. The ſtreets are broad and the ſquares ſpacious, the houſes built of hewn ſtone. They reckon up two and twenty churches in the place, beſides chapels and oratories; the cathedral is eſteemed an elegant building The harbour is large, and ſecure againſt all winds but the ſouth-weſt. This city is the reſidence of the Viceroy, who had the government of all the iſlands 'till Minorca was yielded to the Engliſh, and is a Biſhop's See, whoſe juriſdiction alſo extended over the whole kingdom.

Alcudia.

Alcudia is ſituated on a peninſula in the eaſt part of the iſland, and contains about a thouſand houſes. It is defended by a wall and two forts, but neither this nor the capital city made any defence, when the forces of King PHILIP landed here after the reduction of the Catalans in 1715.

Minorca.

The next iſland of conſequence is that of Minorca, ſituate five or ſix leagues north-eaſt of Majorca. It ſtretches itſelf from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, and is about ten leagues in length and four in breadth. This iſland alſo is incumbered with mountains, which are not ſo fruitful as thoſe of Majorca. The language and cuſtoms of this people differed little from thoſe of Majorca, 'till the conqueſt of it by the Engliſh in 1708. What this iſland is moſt conſiderable for, is the fine harbour of Port-Mahon, ſituated in the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, where the greateſt fleets may ride ſecure from tempeſts or enemies. The gariſon of Fort Philip and the other forts erected for it's ſecurity, made but a mean defence when the Engliſh attacked them; but the fortifications are ſince ſo well improved, that it would require a good fleet and army to reduce them at this day. I do not meet with any rivers here any more than in Majorca; and notwithſtanding the pretended fertility both of the one and the other, which moſt writers entertain us with, I am very well aſſured the Engliſh gariſons in Minorca would find it difficult to ſubſiſt, if they were not ſupplied with proviſions from abroad. The only town of any note is Cividella, or Citadella, ſituate on a bay of the

No rivers.

A barren iſland.

Cividella.

the ſea at the weſt end of the iſland, which contains about five or ſix hundred houſes.

Yvica. The iſland of Yvica, or Ivica, lies twelve or thirteen leagues ſouth-weſt of Majorca, and is about ten leagues in length and eight in breadth. This iſland alſo is mountainous; it produces ſome corn and fruits; but what it is moſt conſiderable for, is it's ſalt, of which they tranſport great quantities. The chief town is called Yvica, the ancient *Ebuſſa*, ſituated on a bay of the ſea in the ſouth part of the iſland, which travellers have not thought worth a deſcription.

Formentera. The little iſland of Formentera lies about two leagues ſouth of Ivica, once well peopled, but now perfectly deſerted on account of the Turkiſh and Barbary rovers, who frequently come on ſhore here. Some have pretended that it was forſaken on account of the multitude of ſerpents and other poiſonous inſects that were found here; but I am pretty well aſſured there are no venomous inſects here, or in any other of the iſlands of Baleares. There is another little uninhabited iſland called Cabreta, a little to the ſouthward of Majorca, and ſeveral more near the mouth of the Ebro on the coaſt of Catalonia, but they have not been thought worth a particular deſcription.

The iſlands of the Baleares have uſually partaken of the fate of Spain. They were poſſeſſed by the Phenicians and Greeks, and afterwards by the Romans. The Moors made themſelves maſters of them about the ſeventh century. In the year 1230, JAMES King of Arragon conquered Majorca, and two years afterwards Minorca; and in 1344, PETER IV, King of Arragon annexed them to his crown. Majorca revolted at the inſtance of the Catalans againſt the preſent King PHILIP V, and continued the war againſt him after the Confederates had withdrawn their forces out of Spain; but Barcelona being ſurrendered, they ſubmitted to King PHILIP on his tranſporting an army of fourteen or fifteen thouſand men thither without ſtriking a ſtroke. As to Minorca, that was confirmed to the Engliſh by the peace of Utrecht, having been reduced by them in the year 1708. There is nothing in the iſland but the celebrated Port Mahon which could induce the Engliſh to be at the charge of keeping it; and this indeed, in caſe of a war with any of the powers that border upon the Mediterranean, might be a conſiderable advantage to the nation. But if Spain is determined never to entertain a ſincere friendſhip for us, 'till this, and that other barren ſpot on which Gibraltar ſtands are yielded to them, whether we ſhall be gainers by keeping them in the end, may deſerve conſideration. I proceed in the next place to give an abſtract of the hiſtory of this kingdom.

CHAP. XVIII.

Contains an abſtract of the ancient and modern hiſtory of Spain.

CHAP. XVIII.

Abſtract of the ancient hiſtory.

Phenicians and Greeks plant colonies in Spain.

THE writers of the laſt and ſome preceding ages, have pretended to ſhew us from which of the ſons of NOAH every people on the face of the earth are deſcended, unleſs the inhabitants of America: but as they have no records, no hiſtory, or even tradition to ſupport their conjectures, I ſhall not abuſe the reader's patience by entertaining him with their random gueſſes. Certain it is, both the Phenicians and the Greeks, who planted colonies on the coaſt of Spain about the time that Rome was built, found the country well peopled at their arrival. The Celtæ alſo, a French nation, who paſſed the Pyrenees about the ſame time and fixed themſelves on the banks of Ebro or Iberus, are ſaid to have inter-married and incorporated with the natives they found there; and from this union the inhabitants of the north-eaſt part of Spain, 'tis ſuppoſed, afterwards obtained the name of Celtiberians.

The Celtæ fix themſelves there.

JOSEPHUS and ſome other Hebrew writers relate, that NEBUCHADNEZZAR having ſubdued the Phenicians, Jews and Egyptians, and being acquainted with the rich traffick they carried on with Spain, invaded that kingdom afterwards, and extended his conqueſts as far as Cadiz. But however that were, it is agreed on all hands, that the Phenicians were ſoon after in poſſeſſion of Cadiz, Malaga and the other ports they had made themſelves maſters of on the coaſt of Spain again (if ever they were expelled from thence) and that the Phenicians encroaching on the natives, and building forts on the continent, ſo exaſperated the Spaniards, that they entered into a general confederacy againſt them, and had well nigh driven them out of their country, when the Phenicians called in the Carthaginians, who were deſcended from the ſame anceſtors, to their aſſiſtance. Which invitation the Carthaginians gladly accepted, having themſelves long waited for an opportunity to make a deſcent on the coaſt of Spain, and for that end already poſſeſſed themſelves of the iſlands of Baleares. It was about the year 236 after the building of Rome that the Carthaginians under the command of their General MAHERBAL came into Spain to the aſſiſtance of their brethren and allies the Phenicians. The war continued between the natives and theſe foreigners for ſeveral years with various ſucceſs; but the Carthaginians, who are repreſented as much ſuperior to the Phenicians, as well as the Spaniards in point of policy or ſtate-craft, partly by force and partly by treaties, procured themſelves at length ſuch an extent of country, and ſo ſtrongly fortified themſelves, that they began to aſſume the dominion of the ſouth part of Spain, and treat both the natives and Phenicians as their ſubjects, and eſpecially on the ſea-coaſts, there being at that time no maritime power able to oppoſe their naval forces.

Carthaginians get footing n Spain.

A.R. 236.

It is related, that about the year 307 after the building of Rome, the Senate of Carthage fitted out two ſquadrons of ſhips, the one under the command of HANNO for the diſcovery of the coaſt of Africk, and the other under HAMILCAR to ſail northward about Spain and the reſt of Europe. HANNO, whoſe fleet conſiſted of ſixty galleys, on which he had thirty thouſand men and women on board in order to plant colonies where he thought proper, ſetting ſail from Cadiz to the ſouthward, built a city on the coaſt of Africk which he named Thymiaterion; and having afterwards diſcovered ſome iſlands under the equinoctial, returned home. PLINY indeed ſays, he paſſed the Cape of Good Hope and ſailed northward as far as the Red Sea, from whence he ſent an account of his expedition to Carthage: but thoſe who are acquainted with the ſeas about the ſouthern part of Africk will not eaſily believe that the galleys his fleet is ſaid to conſiſt of could live in thoſe ſeas. It is generally agreed, however, that HANNO was out five years upon diſcovery, and did not return to Carthage 'till the year 312. As to HAMILCAR, it is ſaid he kept cloſe to the coaſt of Spain 'till he had paſſed Cape

307.

Carthaginian diſcoveries of the coaſt of Africk.

312.

Finiſterra, and then ſteering eaſtward diſcovered the coaſts of Gaul and Britain, and according to ſome ſailed as far as the Baltick, ſpending about two years in this voyage.

The Carthaginians did not only eſtabliſh themſelves in Spain about this time, but were endeavouring alſo to ſubdue the iſlands of Sicily and Sardinia; but the natives calling in the Romans to their aſſiſtance, the Sicilian war proved a very long and bloody one, and the Carthaginians were in the end driven from thence. Several of the cities of Spain alſo, being weary of the Carthaginian yoke, entered into an alliance with the Romans, particularly Roſes, Empurias and Saguntum.

Hamilcar Governor of Spain,

Whereupon HAMILCAR, father of the celebrated HANNIBAL, was ſent into Spain with a powerful army, and reduced ſome of the places that had revolted;

Builds Barcelona.

after which he built the city of Barcelona, but was killed in a battle with the natives and their allies the Romans about the year of Rome 522, in which, 'tis ſaid, the Carthaginians loſt forty thouſand men.

522.

Aſdrubal builds Carthagena.

ASDRUBAL ſucceeding HAMILCAR in the government of Spain, reſtored the affairs of the Carthaginians, and built the city of Carthagena, which ſo increaſed in wealth and power, that it ſoon after became the capital of their dominions on that ſide, to which the commodiouſneſs of the harbour (being the beſt in Spain) did not a little contribute.

528.

While ASDRUBAL remained here, the Romans ſent and embaſſy to the republick of Carthage propoſing that the Ebro might be the boundary between the Romans and Carthaginians in Spain, except the city and territory of Saguntum, which lay to the weſtward of the river Ebro, and was in alliance with Rome, which they deſired might alſo remain independent of Carthage. And though that republick was not very well pleaſed with the Romans intermeddling in the affairs of Spain, yet being acquainted with the ſucceſs of that people againſt the Gauls at this time, they thought fit to diſſemble their reſentment and ſign a treaty to that effect. The Ambaſſadors however were no ſooner diſmiſſed, but ASDRUBAL began to make preparations for a war with the Romans; in which having ſpent three whole years, he was aſſaſſinated by the ſlave of a noble Spaniard whom ASDRUBAL had put to death, about the year 532.

532.

Hannibal Governor of Spain.

To him ſucceeded the celebrated HANNIBAL, no leſs an enemy to the Romans than ASDRUBAL, who determining to fall upon the Saguntines, and drive them and the reſt of the Spaniards who were in confederacy with the Romans beyond the Ebro, if we may credit the Roman writers, underhand incited the Spaniards in alliance with Carthage to enter into a diſpute with the Saguntines about their limits; and under pretence of doing juſtice to the allies of the republick, laid ſiege to that city. The Saguntines hereupon ſent Ambaſſadors to Rome to acquaint that ſtate with the danger that threatned them, and to deſire an army might march to their relief. But the Roman Senate, either not prepared to enter into a war, or doubting the ſucceſs of it, contented themſelves with ſending a herald to HANNIBAL, requiring him to riſe from before Saguntum, and not offer violence to the allies of Rome, which that General was ſo far from regarding, that he preſſed the ſiege with the greater fury, and after eight months carried the place by ſtorm.

Saguntum taken by Hannibal.

It is reported, that many of the inhabitants finding all was loſt, and that there was no proſpect of relief, took all their richeſt movables and ſet fire to them in the market-place, killing their wives and children, and afterwards themſelves with their own hands, rather than ſubmit to the enemy: inſomuch that when the Carthaginians took the city, they found in it ſcarce any thing but a heap of ruins. Thus was Saguntum deſtroyed in the 536th year of Rome, or according to others the 534th, when PUBLIUS CORNELIUS and TITUS SEMPRONIUS were Conſuls; a town much celebrated in Roman ſtory for it's unſhaken fidelity to that republick, though the neglect the Romans ſhewed of that brave people does not ſeem to reflect much honour on their ſtate.

536.

The town of Morviedro in Valencia, about five miles from the ſea, is ſuppoſed to have been built out of the ruins of Saguntum. But to proceed: The Romans upon the deſtruction of this city declared war againſt Carthage;

Hannibal's march through France into Italy.

whereupon HANNIBAL, leaving his brother ASDRUBAL in the Further Spain beyond the Ebro with a good body of African forces, aſſembled an army of 12000 horſe and 90000 foot, compoſed of Spaniards and Africans, though ſome make their numbers much leſs, and having paſſed the Ebro, left HANNO another of his brothers with a body of troops in the Hither Spain, continuing his march from thence through France into Italy over the Pyrenean mountains and the Alps, which were before thought unpaſſable for an army. The Romans did not only aſſemble an army and make head againſt this bold invader in Italy, but ſent CNEIUS SCIPIO into Spain with another army to make a diverſion on that ſide. HANNIBAL's ſucceſs in Italy, eſpecially at the battle of Cannæ, where 40000 Roman foot and 3000 horſe were killed, beſides 12000 made priſoners, has been already related in the hiſtory of Italy.

Succeſs of Scipio in Spain.

In Spain however the Carthaginians were every where beaten: SCIPIO defeated the army of HANNO in the Hither Spain, and made their General priſoner. He gained a victory alſo over the Carthaginian fleet, took ſeveral towns in the Further Spain, and kept ASDRUBAL in play, whom HANNIBAL had left there, to command in his abſence. The Senate of Rome hereupon ſent PUBLIUS CORNELIUS SCIPIO into Spain with a reinforcement of troops to the aſſiſtance of his brother, rightly judging that if they could cut off the ſupplies which HANNIBAL received from Spain, he would be obliged to abandon Italy. The two SCIPIO's therefore, in obedience to their orders, fell upon ASDRUBAL, who was marching towards Italy to the aſſiſtance of his brother, and entirely defeated him; ASDRUBAL with the remains of his army throwing himſelf into Carthagena. The Carthaginians were routed afterwards in ſeveral other encounters, but received at length ſuch numerous reinforcements from Africa, and particularly from their friend and ally MASINISSA, an African Prince, that the Romans in Spain received a ſignal defeat, wherein the two SCIPIO's who commanded them were killed.

The two Scipio's killed in Spain.

And now the Carthaginian Generals believing there was no enemy left to oppoſe them, obſerved no manner of diſcipline, but diſperſed themſelves all over the country, either to plunder or revenge themſelves on ſuch Spaniards as had appeared in the intereſt of their enemies. Which MARCUS, a Roman tribune, obſerving, aſſembled a body of Roman troops, and falling firſt upon one part of the Carthaginian army and then upon another, and defeating them in ſeveral engagements, maintained his ground

Carthagena taken by the Romans. 544.

The Carthaginians driven out of Spain. 548.

'till Publius Cornelius Scipio was ſent into Spain, with a greater reinforcement to his aſſiſtance. Scipio laid ſiege to the capital city of Carthagena in the year of Rome 544, which he carried in a few weeks. The next year the Carthaginians were defeated in a general battle, and before the end of the year 548, driven intirely out of Spain.

552.

The war being ended in Spain, Scipio returned to Rome, and being choſen Conſul, attacked the Carthaginians in Africk, where meeting with a ſeries of ſucceſs, the republick of Carthage found themſelves under a neceſſity of recalling Hannibal from Italy to defend their own country; but this General being defeated alſo by Scipio, a peace followed, the terms whereof were very advantageous to the Romans, and thus ended the ſecond Punick war, in the year of Rome 552. Scipio, who was ſon and nephew to the two Scipio's who loſt their lives in the Spaniſh war, obtained a triumph on his return from Africk, and had the title of Africanus conferred upon him for the ſignal ſervice he had done the republick in this war. But to return to Spain.

The Romans aſſume the dominion of Spain.

The Spaniards had no ſooner expelled the Carthaginians by the aſſiſtance of the Romans, but they found themſelves in a worſe condition under their deliverers than they were in the days of their former maſters; for Hannibal and many of the Carthaginian chiefs having intermarried with the Spaniards, they were in a manner become one people, and their intereſts the ſame, though there might be ſome inſtances of partiality towards the Africans, as they received their governors from thence. But ſtill, 'tis evident they had much better have borne with a few ſlight inconveniences and diſcouragements from the Carthaginians than have promoted another revolution in favour of the Romans; for the latter had no ties of relation or intereſt to induce them to uſe the Spaniards better than any other people they had ſubdued. They politickly pretended indeed, when they invited Saguntum and other cities to accept of their alliance, to have no other views but the freeing an injured people from the Carthaginian yoke, and reſtoring them to their liberties: but when they had driven out the Africans, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in their room, they ſoon gave the natives to underſtand they muſt now receive laws from their republick; and what is worſe, they ſaw themſelves frequently abandoned to the avarice and cruelty of the Governors and Generals that were ſent amongſt them, and lived neither under the protection of their own laws, or the inſtitutions of that people who had acquired the dominion of them. Magiſtrates were ſent amongſt them, not to aſſert their liberties, or defend their rights, but to patch up their broken fortunes by pillaging the natives, as is become the general practice of our days, where any power is poſſeſſed of diſtant plantations, and hath eſtabliſhed colonies abroad.

The Spaniards endeavour to throw off the Roman yoke.

559.

The Spaniards provoked by the cruelty and oppreſſions exerciſed on them by the Roman officers, had recourſe to arms in many places, and ſeveral ſmart engagements happened, wherein great numbers were killed on both ſides. The Roman writers have not been ſo particular in enumerating their own loſſes as thoſe of their enemies, of whom they tell us in one engagement they killed 12000, in another 15000, &c. but ſtill the Roman Senate were ſo apprehenſive of a general revolt, that they thought fit to ſend M. Porcius Cato thither, A. R. 559, (the firſt Conſul that ever commanded in Spain) with a reinforcement of two legions, of whom their writers relate, that having killed forty thouſand Spaniards in one general battle, beſides a multitude of others in ſieges and ſkirmiſhes, he ſold abundance of the natives for ſlaves, demoliſhed moſt of their fortifications, and reduced them to that deſpair, that many of them choſe to die by their own ſwords rather than ſubmit to the Roman government; after which he left ſtrong gariſons in the country and returned to Rome, whither he carried a hundred and forty-eight thouſand pound weight of ſilver, and five hundred and forty pound weight of gold, which he had plundered the country of, beſides a prodigious treaſure that he diſtributed amongſt his ſoldiers.

601.

The firſt Numantian war.

The Roman Generals plunder the Spaniards.

After Cato, Spain was governed generally by Prætors, one ſent to the Hither and the other to the Further Spain, 'till the year 601, during which time we find the natives complaining to the Senate of Rome of the oppreſſions and extortions committed by their Governors, for which they could have no redreſs, which occaſioned a general inſurrection of the Spaniards: they defeated their enemies in ſeveral engagements, killing many thouſands of them. The city of Numantia, ſituated in Old Caſtile near the ſource of the Duero, being at the head of this confederacy, it obtained the name of the Numantian war, and was a very long and bloody one; inſomuch that the Roman Senate found it neceſſary to ſend Generals of conſular dignity into Spain again, at the head of numerous armies. Of theſe Lucullus and Galba rendered their names infamous by their treachery and cruelty: Galba, when the town of Coca had ſurrendered to him upon certain conditions, was no ſooner poſſeſſed of the place but he put all the inhabitants to the ſword: And Sergius Galba, when the Luſitanian army had ſubmitted to him, cauſed them all to be murdered. Both Lucullus and Galba raiſed prodigious fortunes by the plunder of this people, and being charged with their rapaciouſneſs and cruelty at Rome, which had rendered the Spaniards deſperate, and occaſioned the continuance of the war, and a conſiderable loſs both of men and money to the republick, they found means to buy their peace with the very ſpoils they had robbed the Spaniards of: from whence ſome have obſerved, that the moſt notorious villains often eſcape the hand of juſtice, while poor puny ſinners are executed without mercy.

604.

614.

Upon Galba's return to Rome, Spain was again under the government of Prætors; when Viriatus, a poor ſhepherd, a Luſitanian by birth, anno 604, cauſed another inſurrection, and defeated the Romans in ſeveral battles: nor were they able to reduce him by pure force, but after ten years hired ſome of his officers to aſſaſſinate him while he lay aſleep.

Pompey oppreſſes the Spaniards.

Pompey, who now commanded in Spain, obſerving that the city of Numantia and ſome others who had made their peace with Rome, and were called friends and allies to that republick, affected to retain their independencey, and refuſed to be directed or influenced by that ſtate, ſtudied how he might pick a quarrel with them, and reduce them under his power; and having made or found ſome frivolous pretence to break with that people, aſſembled his forces and blocked them up on all ſides; nor would he accept of any condeſcenſions or ſatisfactions offered by the Numantians for the pretended

tended injuries received. However, the Spaniards being at that time as well diſciplined as the Romans, maintained their ground againſt this great man, and the Conſuls that ſucceeded him, 'till the year 617, when C. HOSTILIUS MANCINUS, the Conſul, coming into Spain, they defeated his forces, and ſurrounding the Conſul with the remains of his ſhattered army, obtained ſuch a peace of him as was very advantageous to themſelves, and no leſs diſhonourable to the Roman ſtate: but the Senate refuſed to ratify it, ordering the Conſul who made it to be delivered up to the Numantians. To which that people anſwered, the whole army ought to be delivered up if they would not ratify the treaty, ſince it was at their mercy when the peace was ſigned. But the Senate determining to reduce all Spain under their dominion, in the year 619 ſent the celebrated SCIPIO AFRICANUS into the Hither Spain, as they had done DECIUS BRUTUS into the Further Spain, with numerous armies: and theſe experienced Generals, within the compaſs of two years, brought almoſt every city under the ſubjection of the Romans; even Numantia itſelf offered to ſubmit upon conditions, but were told by SCIPIO they muſt ſurrender at diſcretion: which they refuſing, he intrenched himſelf in ſuch a manner round their little ſtate, that nothing could go in or out. They endeavoured ſeveral times to break through the Roman army, but were repulſed. Whereupon being reduced to the utmoſt deſpair, they firſt killed their wives and children, and having ſet their houſes and their goods on fire, threw themſelves into the flames. Thus fell the Numantines in the year 621, and with them the liberties of Spain, the Romans ever after exerciſing an abſolute dominion in that province, except among the Cantabri, who poſſeſſed ſome inacceſſible mountains, and were not conquered 'till the reign of AUGUSTUS. And this was looked upon as ſo ſignal a ſervice to the Roman State, that both SCIPIO and BRUTUS had a triumph granted them on their return home.

Scipio ſent into Spain again.

The deſtruction of Numantia.

Spain abſolutely ſubdued.

The Baleares conquered by the Romans.

631.

Spain now remaining in peace for ſeveral years, was governed by ten Legates or Lieutenants; and in the year 631 the Conſul Q. CECILIUS METELLUS conquered the Baleares or iſlands of Majorca, Minorca, &c. and in the years 643 and 650 the Cimbri, a northern nation, having penetrated through France, and invaded Spain, were repulſed by the Romans. About the ſame time were inſurrections in ſeveral parts of Spain, which were ſuppreſſed by CALPURNIUS PISO, SULPITIUS GALBA and TITUS DIDIUS: and in the year 657 the Conſul PUBLIUS LICINIUS CRASSUS being ſent into *Hiſpania Ulterior*, ſuppreſſed ſeveral formidable inſurrections, for which in the ſixth year of his government he obtained a triumph. And in this country it is ſuppoſed CRASSUS heaped up that immenſe wealth which occaſioned his ſon MARCUS CRASSUS to be eſteemed the richeſt citizen in Rome. In the year 660 Italy was diſtracted with civil wars, the two factions being led by MARIUS and SYLLA; in theſe Spain alſo was involved, by the contrivance of SERTORIUS, a Roman tribune, who ſet up for himſelf, and maintained his ground againſt the Generals of the republick, and even POMPEY himſelf, who was ſent againſt him, 'till the year 681, when SERTORIUS was aſſaſſinated by his own party for ſome acts of tyranny he had committed.

657. 660. 681.

Pompey ſuppreſſes an inſurrection in Spain.

PERPENNA, who ſucceeded SERTORIUS, being entirely defeated by POMPEY, the reſt of Spain made their ſubmiſſion: whereupon POMPEY erected ſeveral trophies upon the Pyrenean mountains, ſome footſteps whereof it is ſaid are to be ſeen at this day; and among the Vaſcones or Gaſcons, in the kingdom of Navarre, he founded the city of Pompeiopolis, now called Pampelona. At his return to Rome in the year 683, a triumph was granted him for his ſucceſſes in Spain; and METELLUS, who was joined with him in command, had the ſame honour.

683.

JULIUS CÆSAR afterwards commanded in Spain in the years 685 and 693; but in 701 the government of that province was again conferred upon POMPEY, which he governed by his Lieutenants, finding it neceſſary to remain at Rome to ſupport his intereſt in the ſenate. Whereupon CÆSAR, who was in Gaul, led a great body of his forces over the Pyrenean mountains into Spain, and ſubdued POMPEY's party there, for now the civil wars were begun in the Roman Empire, CÆSAR being at the head of one party, and POMPEY of the other. CÆSAR, having obtained the victory at Pharſalia, in the year 706, ſubdued King PTOLEMY in Egypt, and afterwards JUBA another African Prince, and having ſettled his affairs at Rome, came again into Spain in the year 709, where he had the good fortune alſo to vanquiſh POMPEY's two ſons CNEIUS and SEXTUS POMPEIUS, and having amaſſed together a prodigious treaſure (for he did not ſpare even the temple of HERCULES) he returned to Rome, leaving the government of the Hither Spain to MARCUS LEPIDUS, and that of the Further Spain to ASINIUS POLLIO.

Cæſar ſubdues Pompey's party there.

706.

Cæſar defeats Pompey's Sons.

710.

JULIUS CÆSAR being killed in the ſenate on the 15th of March, A. R. 710, SEXTUS POMPEIUS, the youngeſt of POMPEY's ſons, aſſembled his friends in that province, fell upon ASINIUS POLLIO, who commanded in the Further Spain, and defeated him. But this war was ſoon after terminated by the mediation of LEPIDUS. In the year 714. AUGUSTUS, JULIUS CÆSAR's heir, MARC ANTONY, and LEPIDUS, divided the Roman Empire between them; in which diviſion Spain was allotted to AUGUSTUS, which occaſioned a new Æra to be begun in that province, called *Æra Cæſaris*, that commenced from the year of Rome 714, and was generally made uſe of in this country till the year of Chriſt 1383, when King JOHN of Caſtile in an aſſembly of the ſtates, decreed, that all future computations of years ſhould be from the birth of Chriſt. Notwithſtanding which, the Æra Cæſaris was made uſe of in ſeveral parts of Spain many years after, which commenced 29 years before the Chriſtian Æra, or the birth of our Saviour.

714.

A new Æra in Spain from the government of Auguſtus.

AUGUSTUS CÆSAR having ſubdued his rivals in the Empire, LEPIDUS and MARC ANTONY, and for ſome time governed the Roman Empire in peace, the Cantabri, who inhabited that part of Spain now called Biſcay, truſting to their mountains, which were looked upon as inacceſſible, ventured to fall upon the Roman colonies in Spain, and drew the people of Aſturia and Gallicia into their alliance, who were weary of the extortions, and oppreſſions of the Roman Governors. AUGUSTUS hereupon aſſembling a numerous army, went into Spain in perſon; but finding the enemy fortified in their mountains, after he had in vain endeavoured to bring them to a battle, falling ſick with the fatigue and vexation at the diſappoint-

Auguſtus conquers the Cantabri.

ment, he left the continuation of the war to his General M. Agrippa, and retired himſelf to Tarragona in Catalonia to wait the event of it.

Agrippa having divided the army in three parts, ordered them to ſurround the three principal mountains the enemies were poſſeſſed of, and caſt up ſuch intrenchments that it was impoſſible they ſhould receive any ſupplies of proviſions; whereby the Cantabrians were at length obliged to ſubmit, tho' many of them, 'tis ſaid, choſe rather to die by their own hands than ſurrender at diſcretion, as the Roman Generals inſiſted they ſhould. And thus the war in Spain was brought to a period after five years continuance, being about two hundred years after the Romans firſt entrance into that country. Auguſtus having ſold many of the moſt reſolute of the Spaniards for ſlaves, obliged the reſt to leave their habitations in the mountains, and come down into the valleys, that they might not be in a condition to inſult the Roman colonies again. He alſo fortified ſeveral places, and left ſtrong gariſons in them to keep the natives in awe, as Merida, Saragoſſa (*Cæſar Auguſta*), Badajoz, Bracara-Auguſta, now Braga, &c. A triumph was decreed Auguſtus at his return to Rome for the entire conqueſt of Spain, but he did not accept it; ſports however were inſtituted in the room of it. And now the temple of Janus was ſhut the fourth time, all the world remaining in peace. A. D. 15. This great Emperor died in the 15th year after the birth of Chriſt.

The Government of Spain from the time of Auguſtus.

From the time of Auguſtus, Spain being divided into three provinces, viz. thoſe of Tarraconenſis, Bætica and Luſitania, was governed by as many Prætors. In Tarraconenſis, or Hiſpania Citerior, which was now much the largeſt of the three, were fourteen colonies, thirteen municipiums, and ſeven ſovereign courts, viz. at Carthagena, Tarragona, Saragoſſa, Cluma now Corunna, Aſtorga, Luga and Braga. In Bætica were eight colonies, and as many municipiums, with four ſovereign courts, viz. at Cadiz, Seville, Ezija and Cordoua. In Luſitania were five colonies, and one municipium, viz. Liſbon, called Felicitas Julia; and three ſovereign courts, viz. at Merida, Badajoz and Santeren, then called Scalabis.

Trajan, a Spaniard. 99.

In the year of our Lord 99, Spain had the honour of giving an Emperor to Rome, and one of the beſt that had reigned for many years, viz. M. Ulpius Trajanus, born at Italica near Seville. He was a Prince of great natural parts, which were improved by his preceptor Plutarch the philoſopher; and he was as remarkable for his humanity and univerſal benevolence, as for his parts and learning. He built two bridges of admirable ſtructure, one over the Danube in Germany, and the other in Spain, over the Tagus at Alcantara, which is ſtill ſtanding. He governed the Empire nineteen years and an half.

400. The Vandals, &c. break into Spain.

The Romans continued ſovereigns of Spain till the beginning of the fifth century, when the northern Nations broke in upon the Empire. The Vandals, the Suevi, the Alans and Silingians, firſt ſettled themſelves in France; but the Romans and Goths uniting their forces againſt them, they paſſed the Pyrenean mountains, waſting Spain as they had Italy and France before. The Vandals, and Swedes fixed themſelves in Gallicia and Caſtile, the Silingians in Bætica, and the Alans in Luſitania, inſomuch that only Cantabria and Aſturia now remained under the dominion of the Romans. Theſe nations falling out among themſelves, the Vandals went over into Africa, while the Swedes reduced both the Alans and Silingians under their dominion, and had infallibly conquered the reſt of Spain, if the Goths, another northern nation, had not ſtopped their Progreſs. The Goths follow them. That people having ravaged Italy, and plundered Rome it ſelf, marched into Gaul, making Narbonne the ſeat of their Empire there, which in the beginning extended only over Languedoc and Catalonia, though afterwards it comprehended moſt part of Spain. Atolphus, or Adolph their King, had ſcarce eſtabliſhed his dominion in Gaul, but he was beſieged in his capital by the Generals of the Emperor Honorius, notwithſtanding he had married the Princeſs Placida, that Emperor's ſiſter, becauſe he refuſed to deliver up Attila, whom Alarick had cauſed to be proclaimed Emperor in Rome. Attila being taken at ſea during this ſiege, and conſequently the occaſion of the war removed, a treaty was concluded between theſe two powers; but ſo little to the ſatisfaction of the Goths, who thereby loſt all hopes of returning to Italy, that they aſſaſſinated Atolphus, and advanced Sigerick to the throne in his ſtead, who confirming the peace with the Romans which Atolphus had made, was aſſaſſinated alſo by his ſubjects in the year 416, before he had reigned a whole year.

Wallia, ſuppoſed to be the ſon of Atolphus, was unanimouſly elected King in the room of Sigerick. With this Prince the Romans 418. joined their arms, and aſſiſted the Goths in driving the Swedes and the other barbarous nations out of Spain. I ſhall paſs over the reigns of the future Gothick Kings till we come to that of Furick, eſteemed one of the braveſt of them; he conquered all that the Romans had left in Spain, took Gallicia from the Swedes, and reduced all the ſouthern provinces of France under his dominion, and died at Arles, his capital city, anno 483. Under the 483. reign of Recareda, the Son of Levigilda, the Empire of the Goths was in its greateſt glory, 487. for then it not only comprehended the ſouthern provinces of France, and the whole kingdom of Spain, but that part of Africk which lies next Tangier. Their Empire began to decline under the reign of King Witiza, and was 710. totally deſtroyed in the reign of Roderick, who abandoning himſelf to his paſſion, raviſhed the beautiful Cava, the daughter of Count Julian, Governor of Gothick Mauritania, and of that part of Spain which borders upon the ſtreights of Gibralter. This unfortunute father, to revenge the diſgrace done to his family, 713. took a reſolution to do it at the expence of his country, and confederating himſelf with ſome other malecontent Lords, invited the Saracens into Spain, The Empire of the Goths deſtroyed by the Saracens. who defeated the effeminate Goths in a general battle, where Roderick is ſuppoſed to be killed, and within three years after made themſelves entirely maſters of Spain, except ſome of the mountains of Aſturia, Biſcay and Navarre, whither ſuch of the Gothick Chriſtians retired as did not think fit to live under the dominion of the Infidels. Thus was the Empire of the Goths deſtroyed, about three hundred years after their firſt arrival in Spain. And here it is thought proper to give a liſt of their Kings.

Gothick Kings of Spain, before the invaſion of the Saracens.

Adolph, or Atolphus, invaded Spain, A. D.	411
Sigerick ſucceeded	415
Wallia	416
Theodoric I.	419

Thoriſmond	451
Theodoric II.	453
Evaric	466
Alaric, the firſt King of the Viſegoths	483
Geſalic	506
Theodoric III.	511
Amalaric	526
Theudis	531
Theodegeſilus	548
Agila	549
Athanagildus	554
Leuva I.	567
Leuvigildus	568
Recaredus I.	586
Leuva II.	601
Witeric	603
Gondomar	610
Siſebut	612
Recaredus II.	620
Swinthila	621
Sizenandus	631
Chintilanus	635
Tulga	640
Chindaſuint	641
Recheſwinte	649
Wamba	672
Ervigius	680
Egica	687
Witiza	701
Roderic	711
He was defeated and killed in a general battle by the Moors or Saracens	713

I muſt here beg leave to detain the reader a little, and obſerve, that theſe Moors or Saracens who conquered Spain, were indebted to that impoſtor Mahomet, of whom I have treated already in the State of Arabia, both for their religion and empire: as he had aſſumed the office of High-prieſt of that new religion he ſtruck out, as well as the ſovereignty of the people he ſubdued; his ſucceſſors alſo pretended to the ſupreme power, both in eccleſiaſtical and temporal affairs, which they exerciſed for ſome centuries under the title of Caliphs, making Babylon the ſeat of their empire; and ſuch prodigious ſucceſs did the ſucceſſors of this impoſtor meet with, that they eſtabliſhed their dominion in moſt of the kingdoms of Aſia and Africa within the compaſs of fourſcore years. It was in the year of our Lord 713, and the 97th of the Mahometan Æra, that they paſſed into Europe and poſſeſſed themſelves of the kingdom of Spain. They allowed liberty of conſcience, I find, to the Chriſtians wherever they came, tho' the Mahometan religion only was encouraged by them, and thoſe who embraced it generally obtained the name of Saracens from the Arabs the founders of it, who had long gone under that denomination; they were alſo called Moors in many countries, from the darkneſs of their complexion.

Ulid Caliph of Babylon when the Saracens conquered Spain.

Ulid, or Ulit, the ninth Caliph from Mahomet, was Emperor and High-prieſt of the Saracens when they were invited over from the coaſt of Barbary by Julian and ſome other treacherous Chriſtians, who were diſguſted at King Roderick's adminiſtration. They applied themſelves to Muza then Governor of Barbary, who ſent over at firſt a ſmall detachment of four or five hundred men, rather to ſound the inclination of the Spaniards than with any hopes of ſucceſs; but finding the people generally inclined to revolt, he raiſed a powerful army, and ſent them under the conduct of Tarif, a Saracen General, to make a deſcent on the Spaniſh coaſt. Roderick on this occaſion, it is ſaid, behaved himſelf with as much bravery and conduct as any of his Gothick anceſtors, and bid fair for the victory when the armies came to an engagement, but was betrayed by his general officers, and even by his Biſhops, who in the heat of the battle joined the Mahometans. They imagined poſſibly that the infidels, after they had aſſiſted them in dethroning their ſovereign King Roderick, whoſe tyranny they dreaded, would have been ſo complaiſant as to have retired on the other ſide the water again, and left them to have nominated a ſucceſſor in his ſtead: but the Saracens were too well acquainted with the fruitfulneſs and riches of the country to abandon it; tho' in gratitude to the Spaniards, who invited them over, they indulged them in a general toleration of their religion: nay, Abdalaſis, the Son of Muza Governor of Barbary, to whom his father committed the government of Spain, condeſcended to marry Queen Egilona the widow of Roderick, and ſuffered her to enjoy the free exerciſe of her religion in his own palace.

Abdalaſis the firſt Mooriſh King of Spain.

Abdalaſis having cauſed himſelf to be acknowledged King of Spain by the perſuaſion of his wife Egilona, made Seville the ſeat of his government; and carrying the war into France, conquered the ſouthern provinces, which were then in poſſeſſion of the Goths.

Abdalaſis having reigned three years, was aſſaſſinated by his kinſman Ajub, who uſurped the government of Spain, but not the title of King any more than his ſucceſſors, till Abdaramen, who aſſumed the regal title about the year 731, againſt whom Muniz the Saracen, Governor of Gallia Gothica, revolting, Abdaramen marched into France, and having defeated Muniz, he afterwards conquered great part of France, but was oppoſed by Charles Martel prime miniſter of that kingdom, and killed in a general battle, where, according to the French hiſtorians, the Saracens loſt upwards of 300000 Men; and in the year 739 the Saracens were driven almoſt out of France by the ſame ſucceſsful General Charles Martel.

The Saracens defeated in France by Charles Martel.

Not long after the Saracens erected ſeveral petty kingdoms in Spain, viz. the kingdoms of Toledo, Saragoſſa, Cordoua, Seville, Grenada and Murcia: which diviſion of their conqueſts gave the Chriſtians a great advantage of them. And this brings me to treat of the Gothick Princes who recovered their country again from the Saracens.

The Saracens erect ſeveral petty kingdoms in Spain.

The Moors having made themſelves maſters of 716.
all Spain, except ſome barren inacceſſible rocks and mountains in Aſturia, Biſcay and Navarre, whither the Chriſtians retired who refuſed to ſubmit to their government, paſſed the Pyrenees in order to reduce that part of France under their power which belonged to the Goths there, as has been intimated already. During this expedition of the Moors into France, which was in the third year after their arrival in Spain, the Goths in the mountains of Aſturia finding it difficult to ſubſiſt the multitudes that had taken refuge there, made choice of Pelagius for their leader, a gentleman who had ſerved in the Moors army, and upon ſome diſguſt had retired to his diſtreſſed brethren, and under his conduct ventured to deſcend into the plains again. Having made themſelves maſters of Oviedo, they proclaimed Pelagius their King. He afterwards obtained a ſignal victory over the Mooriſh forces, and upon this ſucceſs being joined
by the Chriſtians from all parts, beſieged and took 722.
the capital city of Leon, ſubduing great part of that

Pelagius defeats the Saracens and is made King by the Chriſtians.

His ſucceſſors ſtiled Kings of Leon.

that province, from whence his ſucceſſors afterwards obtained the title of Kings of Leon. What contributed mightily to this ſucceſs, was the multitude of Chriſtians that remained diſperſed among the Moors, who found means to deliver up many places to their brethren. For the Moors having been invited over by the bulk of the people, ſeemed to look upon the Spaniards as their friends; and on their expedition into France truſted many of the Chriſtians with commands in the army they left behind them, and with the government of ſome conſiderable places, looking upon this as the moſt probable means of keeping the people quiet while they were empolyed in the Gallick war; ſo that there is no reaſon to have recourſe to miracles to account for the ſucceſs of the Chriſtians at this time, as the Spaniſh writers conſtantly do. But to proceed; PELAGIUS after a long and fortunate reign, died in the year 737, leaving his new-erected kingdom to his Son FAVILA, of whom nothing remarkable is related, unleſs it be, that he was killed by a bear as he was hunting, two years after his acceſſion.

Favila. 737.

Alonſo.

To FAVILA ſucceeded Don ALONSO, or ALFONSO, who retook ſeveral conſiderable towns from the Moors, extending his conqueſts to the moſt diſtant provinces. He died in the year 757; and had the Spaniards continued united under his ſucceſſors, the Moors had probably been driven out of Spain in a few years: but about this time ſeveral others of the Gothick nobility, obſerving the ſucceſſes of the Kings of Leon, attacked the Moors in different parts, and aſſumed to themſelves the title and dignity of ſovereign Princes, particularly Don GARCIAS XIMENES in Navarre; AZNAR Son of EUDO Duke of Aquitain in Arragon; BERNARD, a Frenchman, made Earl of Catalonia by CHARLES the Great, upon the taking Barcelona; and ſeveral others took upon them the titles of Counts and Earls in Caſtile, acknowledging however the King of Leon for their ſupreme Lord. But to return to Leon.

Kings of Navarre, Arragon, &c.

Froila. 757.

Don ALONSO was ſucceeded by his Son FROILA, who gained a ſignal victory over the Moors, and bravely defended what his father had acquired. He was murdered in the year 768 by his brother AURELIUS, who uſurped his throne to the prejudice of his Son AURELIUS, and appointed SILON to ſucceed to the throne after his death; which happened in the year 774. Of SILON little more notice is taken in hiſtory, than that he died anno 783, and was ſucceeded by ALONSO the Son of FROILA.

Aurelius. 768.

Silon. 774.

Alonſo. 783.

Mauregatus. The Chriſtians pay a tribute of virgins to the Moors.

MAUREGATUS, ALONSO's uncle, by the aſſiſtance of the Moors, depoſed him, and having reigned five years and ſix months died anno 788. He was deteſted by the Chriſtians as well on account of his uſurpation, as his agreeing to pay the Moors annually a tribute of an hundred virgins, of which fifty were to be of noble extraction. The ſame year died ABDERHAMAN King of the Moors, who having united all the infidels under one head again, recovered Barcelona, and moſt of the towns the Chriſtians had poſſeſſed themſelves of in the reign of ALONSO I.

Bermudo. 788.

BERMUDO, called the DEACON, ſucceeded MAUREGATUS, and having declared the depoſed ALONSO his companion in the government, died anno 791. ALONSO refuſing to pay the tribute of virgins, was attacked by the infidels, whom he defeated, and killed 70000 of them in the field of battle, according to the Spaniſh writers, whom I cannot give entire credit to upon theſe occaſions; for the numbers of their enemies ſlain within the compaſs of a few years were ſo many, according to them, that there could have been no Moors left in the country.

ALONSO having no children, it is ſaid, appointed CHARLEMAIN his ſucceſſor, upon condition he would aſſiſt him in expelling the Moors out of Spain: but the Spaniſh nobility dreading the dominion of the Franks, united their forces with the infidels, and taking the paſſes of the Pyrenees about the mountains of Roncevaux, gave CHARLEMAIN a memorable defeat, wherein the celebrated ROLAND was killed, whoſe actions the Spaniſh hiſtories as well as romances are ſtuffed with. ALONSO died in the year 843, having appointed RAMIRO the ſon of BERMUDO his ſucceſſor.

Charlemain's forces defeated.

Ramiro. 843.

The reign of RAMIRO is celebrated for a ſignal victory he obtained over the Moors, whereby he aboliſhed that infamous tribute of an hundred virgins which the Chriſtians had been obliged to pay the infidels for many years. He alſo defended the coaſts of Gallicia againſt the Normans, who invaded them, and obliged the Normans to return to their ſhips.

Ordonno. 850.

ORDONNO the ſon of RAMIRO ſucceeded his father anno 850. He defeated the Moors and took ſeveral towns from them, and dying in the year 862, was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon ALONSO the great.

Alonſo. 862.

Don ALONSO was driven from his throne, and having recovered it again, was ſucceſsful againſt the Moors; but ſquandring away his treaſures in magnificent buildings, and oppreſſing his ſubjects with heavy taxes to reimburſe himſelf, an inſurrection was raiſed againſt him, to appeaſe which he was obliged to reſign his crown to his ſon GARCIAS, anno 910.

Garcias. 910.

GARCIAS was ſucceſsful againſt the Moors, and died anno 913.

Ordonno. 913.

ORDONNO his brother ſucceeded him, and transferred the ſeat of his government from Oviedo to Leon. The Earls of Caſtile endeavouring to render themſelves independent, he ſummoned them to meet him on pretence of conſulting them, and cauſed them all to be put to death, and died himſelf ſoon after, anno 923.

Froila. 923.

He was ſucceeded by his brother FROILA, who putting to death ſeveral other Caſtilian noblemen, that province revolted from him, chuſing two of the nobility to govern them; one of whom had the civil, and the other the military government conferred on him.

Alonſo. 924.

ALONSO ſucceeded on the death of FROILA, which happened anno 924. He reſigned his crown to his brother RAMIRUS, anno 931, and became a monk.

Ramirus. 931.

RAMIRUS defeated the Moors and plundered the town of Madrid. He reſigned his crown to his ſon ORDONNO in his old age, and died ſoon after, viz. anno 950.

Ordonno. 950.

ORDONNO joining his forces with the Caſtilians, obtained a ſignal victory over the Moors and died anno 955, being ſucceeded by SANCHO his brother.

Sancho. 955.

SANCHO was depoſed and expelled the kingdom in the beginning of his reign by ORDONNO the ſon of ALONSO the monk, by the aſſiſtance of the Moors; but SANCHO recovered his throne again. He was engaged in war with the Earl of Caſtile, and compelled at length to renounce the ſovereignty of that earldom. SANCHO was poiſoned with an apple by GONZALO, a diſaffected Earl, and died anno 967, being ſucceeded by his Son RAMIRUS, an infant of five years of age.

Ramirus, 967.

RAMIRUS was under the tuition of his mother and aunt moſt part of his reign. His couſin BERMUDO the Son of ORDONNO raiſed a rebellion againſt him; of which the Moors took advantage, and recovered ſeveral towns from the Chriſtians. The clergy are ſaid to be extremely wicked in this reign. RAMIRUS died anno 982, and was ſucceeded by his couſin BERMUDO, who had incited the rebellion againſt him.

Bermudo. 982.

BERMUDO, or VEREMUND II, obtaining the crown by a faction, was diſtracted with civil wars in the beginning of his reign, of which the Moors taking advantage, retook abundance of towns from the Chriſtians, and even the city of Leon: whereupon BERMUDO entered into a confederacy with the Earl of Caſtile and King of Navarre, and repulſed the Infidels, driving them out of his country. He died in the year 999, and left his kingdom to his Son ALONSO, an infant.

Alonſo V. 999.

The beginning of the reign of ALONSO was unfortunate, the Moors ravaging his territories in a terrible manner. But the infidels being afterwards weakened by civil diſſenſions, and dividing their country among a multitude of petty royalets (or every one that could poſſeſs himſelf of a city ſtiled himſelf a King) the King of Leon re-poſſeſſed himſelf of all the Moors had taken from him; and in confederacy with the King of Navarre and the Earl of Caſtile, made incurſions into the enemies country as far as Cordoua; inſomuch that the infidels were glad to purchaſe their peace on very hard terms. King ALONSO afterwards rebuilt the city of Leon which had been demoliſhed by the Moors, and invaded Luſitania or Portugal, and laying ſiege to Viſco, he was killed before that town with a dart, anno 1028.

Bermudo. 1028.

Sancho K. of Navarre conquers Leon and obtains Caſtile by marriage.

Divides his territories among his ſons.

Ferdinand 1038. Firſt K. of Caſtile, &c.

BERMUDO, or VEREMUND III, ſucceeded his father ALONSO. During this reign it was, that SANCHO King of Navarre having married the ſiſter and heireſs of GARCIAS, Earl of Caſtile, united Caſtile to the kingdom of Navarre on the death of GARCIAS, who was murdered by ſome of his vaſſal Lords. SANCHO King of Navarre afterwards made war on BERMUDO King of Leon, and conquered part of his territories, which produced a treaty between the two Kings, wherein it was agreed, that Don FERDINAND, the King of Navarre's Son, ſhould marry DONNA SANCHA, the daughter and heireſs of the King of Leon, and that ſhe ſhould receive as a dower in preſent, all that had been conquered of Leon, and be declared heireſs of that kingdom. SANCHO died anno 1035, moſt of Spain being at this time united in his houſe. He left four ſons; to GARCIAS the eldeſt he gave Navarre and Biſcay, to FERDINAND Caſtile, to GONSALVO Sobrarva and Ripagorſa, and to RAMIRUS, a natural Son Arragon; and on every one of them conferred the title of King. GARCIAS the eldeſt going a pilgrimage to Rome, RAMIRUS endeavoured to make himſelf maſter of Navarre; but GARCIAS returning home, drove him even out of Arragon. BERMUDO King of Leon, while the brothers were engaged in war among themſelves, invaded Caſtile, the dominions of his brother FERDINAND; but GARCIAS coming to the aſſiſtance of FERDINAND, they defeated BERMUDO, and killed him in the field of battle, whereby FERDINAND became poſſeſſed of the kingdom of Leon in right of his wife. A war happened afterwards between GARCIAS King of Navarre and FERDINAND, in which GARCIAS loſing his life, FERDINAND ſucceeded to Navarre, and during the diſpute, RAMIRO found means to recover Arragon again. FERDINAND alſo recovered great part of Luſitania from the Moors, and dying in the year 1065, divided his dominions among his ſons.

Kings of Caſtile after the invaſion of the Saracens.

This country was governed after the year 904 by Counts; the laſt was GARCIAS, who was killed on the day of his marriage. His ſiſter ELVIRA married SANCHO II, King of Navarre, by which Caſtile was added to the crown of Navarre. SANCHO divided his dominions among his children, anno 1037, or 1038: he gave Caſtile to his Son FERDINAND, who conquered Leon, and on his death divided his kingdoms among his three Sons; to SANCHO he gave Caſtile, to ALONSO, Leon, and to GARCIAS, Gallicia.

SANCHO ſucceeded to Caſtile,	anno	1067
ALONSO his brother ſucceeded him		1073
ALPHONSUS VII.		1109
ALPHONSUS, or ALONSO VIII.		1118
SANCHO II.		1157
ALPHONSUS, or ALONSO IX.		1158
HENRY I.		1214
FERDINAND III.		1217
ALPHONSUS X.		1252
SANCHO III.		1284
FERDINAND IV.		1295
ALPHONSUS XI.		1312
PETER		1350
HENRY II.		1369
JOHN I.		1379
HENRY III.		1390
JOHN II.		1407
HENRY IV.		1454
FERDINAND V.		1474
PHILIP I.		1504
CHARLES I.		1516
PHILIP II.		1558
PHILIP III.		1598
PHILIP IV.		1621
CHARLES II.		1665
PHILIP V.		1700

CHARLES III, Archduke of Auſtria, the preſent Emperor, was proclaimed King of Spain anno 1703, and is to retain that title during his life, together with Naples, Sicily, Milan and Spaniſh Flanders, which are to deſcend to his heirs: the reſt of the dominions of Spain are confirmed to PHILIP V, and his heirs.

Sancho. 1067.

Alonſo VI 1073. Takes Toledo and a vaſt extent of country from the Moors.

SANCHO having driven ALONSO out of his dominions, and taken GARCIAS priſoner, poſſeſſed himſelf of the territories of his two brothers about the year 1067; but being killed at the ſiege of Camora, ALONSO his brother, who till this time had reſided among the Moors, made himſelf maſter of Caſtile as well as Leon, and afterwards took Toledo, held impregnable in thoſe days, and a vaſt extent of country from the Moors. Great re-inforcements coming over from Africk afterwards, the infidels defeated the Chriſtians in two general battels; notwithſtanding which, ALONSO at length repulſed them again, and obliged the King of Cordoua, then the greateſt of the Mooriſh ſovereigns, to become tributary to him.

Alonſo VII. 1109.

ALONSO VII dying in the year 1109, ALONSO, who had married URACA his only daughter and heireſs, ſucceeded to his dominions; but this mar-

Alonſo VIII. 1118. 1134.

riage being declared void for conſanguinity, Alonso the Son of Uraca, by Raymund of Burgundy, her firſt huſband, was proclaimed King of Caſtile and Leon. About this time Alonso King of Arragon took Saragoſſa from the Moors. Both Alonso King of Arragon, and Alonso his ſon-in-law, King of Caſtile, were very ſucceſsful againſt the Moors, taking towns without number from them: but the King of Arragon had the miſfortune to be killed in a ſkirmiſh with the infidels in the year 1134. By his will he left his dominions to the knights templers and hoſpitallers, but his ſubjects did not acquieſce in it: the Navarrois choſe Garcias, deſcended from their former royal family, for their King; and the Arragonians elected Ramiro a Monk, brother to their late King, whereby theſe kingdoms became divided again.

Alonſo K. of Caſtile ſtiled Emperor. 1135.

Alonso King of Caſtile being now the moſt potent of the Spaniſh Sovereigns, cauſed himſelf to be crowned Emperor of Spain at Toledo, on Whitſunday 1135.

Kingdom of Portugal founded. 1139.

Two years after, the Earl of Portugal, Don Alonso, who was then poſſeſſed of the eaſtern part of that country, having great ſucceſs againſt the Moors, was ſaluted King of Portugal by his army, which title his ſucceſſors retained for many hundred years.

The Moors decline apace. 1147.

Alonso the Emperor entring into a confederacy with the Kings of Navarre and Arragon againſt the Moors, they took from the infidels the cities of Banca, Almeria, Tortoſa, Lerida and Fraga in the years 1147 and 1148, and about the ſame time Liſbon was taken from them by the King of Portugal.

Sancho. 1157.

Alonso the Emperor died in the year 1157, his eldeſt Son Sancho ſucceeding to Caſtile, and Ferdinand his youngeſt Son to Leon and Galicia.

Alonſo. 1158. 1168. 1195. 1212. A ſignal victory gained by the Chriſtians.

Sancho dying within little more than a year, was ſucceeded by his Son Alonso an infant. During his minority, his Uncle Ferdinand King of Leon waſted his country, endeavouring to get the young King into his hands; but the nobility of Caſtile defended their monarch's perſon againſt all his efforts, notwithſtanding King Ferdinand had made himſelf maſter of Toledo, and moſt of the conſiderable towns in that kingdom. The Caſtilians weary of the tyranny of Ferdinand King of Leon, invited their young King Alonso to take the government upon him, about the year 1168; and upon his appearing, Toledo and other cities expelled the King of Leon's gariſons and declared for him. Not long after the Kings of Caſtile and Arragon entered into a defenſive alliance, and the young King of Caſtile to ſtrengthen himſelf ſtill more, married the Princeſs Eleanor, the daughter of Henry II, King of England. And now the Spaniſh Kings being at peace among themſelves, entered into a confederacy againſt the Moors. The Infidels on the other hand having invited over vaſt numbers of Africans to their aſſiſtance, fell upon Alonso King of Caſtile, and routed his army before the Kings of Leon and Navarre had joined him, whereupon followed a truce between the Chriſtians and Moors. The year 1212 was more favourable to the Chriſtians; for the four Kings of Spain, viz. the Kings of Leon, Navarre, Caſtile and Arragon, having aſſembled all their forces, and being joined by an hundred thouſand foreigners, who came from France and other Chriſtian countries, gained a ſignal victory over the Moors, who had been re-inforced in like manner by the Mahometan Princes from Africk, and, according to the Chriſtian account, killed two hundred thouſand of them upon the ſpot.

Henry I. 1214. Ferdinand 1217.

Alonso died in the year 1214, leaving behind him one ſon named Henry, whoſe minority occaſioned great diſturbances in the kingdom. He died without iſſue in the year 1217. His eldeſt ſiſter Blanch had been married to Lewis VIII, ſon of Philip-Augustus King of France: the other, Berengaria, to Alonso King of Leon. The crown ſhould have deſcended to the eldeſt and her heirs, but the ſtates, out of their averſion to foreigners, transferred their allegiance to Ferdinand, ſurnamed the Holy, Son of Berengaria, who immediately poſſeſſed himſelf of the kingdom. It is related by ſome, that Blanch was not the eldeſt ſiſter, and that the Caſtilian noblemen diſputed Berengaria's right to the crown, only on account of the Pope's having declared her marriage with Alonso void, and their children illegitimate, as being too near in blood.

Leon and Caſtile united again. 1231. The Chriſtians conquer Majorca, Valencia, Andaluſia, Murcia, &c.

By the death of Alonso, Leon and Caſtile were reunited again under Ferdinand. The power of the Moors began to decline extremely at this time; King James of Arragon took from them Majorca in the year 1230, Minorca in the year 1232, Yvica in the year 1234, the city and kingdom of Valencia in the year 1238. Ferdinand took from them in the year 1230, Merida and Badajoz, and ſeveral other places; in the year 1236, the city and kingdom of Corduba; in the year 1240, Murcia put it ſelf under the protection of Caſtile; in the year 1243, Seville and the greateſt part of Andaluſia ſubmitted to Ferdinand: but whilſt he was making preparations to carry the war into Africa, he died in the year 1252, being ſucceeded by his Son Alonso X.

Alonſo X. 1252.

Alonso or Alfonso the tenth was famous among foreigners for his wiſdom and great ſkill in aſtronomy; but he was unfortunate at home, and hated by his ſubjects; the firſt occaſion of which was his loading his ſubjects with taxes, in order to repleniſh his exhauſted treaſury: he alſo cauſed the current coin to be diminiſhed, which enhanced the price of every thing; whereupon he ſet certain rates on all proviſions, and this occaſioned a general ſcarcity, the people not being willing to ſell at the rates preſcribed them. He was by ſome of the Electors choſen Roman Emperor, but becauſe his children were then very young, and great diviſions ariſen among his nobility, he delayed the taking poſſeſſion of the imperial dignity ſo long, that Rodolph of Haſburg was elected in his ſtead, and when he would afterwards have accepted of it, he was excommunicated by the Pope, and obliged to renounce the title of Emperor.

Upon the death of Ferdinand his eldeſt Son, Sancho the younger brother begun to form deſigns upon the ſucceſſion, though Ferdinand had left children behind him. This occaſioned a jealouſy betwixt the father and ſon, which at length broke out into an open rebellion, the ſon being aſſiſted by the major part of the ſtates.

Sancho. 1284.

This commotion however ceaſed on the death of Alonso, which happened anno 1284, when Sancho uſurped the crown, to the prejudice of his nephews. Under the reign of this King, many battles were fought againſt the Moors with various ſucceſs. In the year of his acceſſion happened the Sicilian Veſpers, by which means Peter King of Arragon obtained the kingdom of Sicily. He died in the year 1295.

Ferdinand VI. 1295. During the minority of his Son FERDINAND the fourth, the kingdom of Caſtile was in great diſtraction. After FERDINAND came to age, he commenced a war with the Moors, taking from them Gibralter, and died in the flower of his age, anno 1312, leaving one Son named ALONSO, an infant about twelve months old. Under the reign of this King, JAMES King of Arragon obtained the kingdom of Sardinia by the Pope's grant, who pretended to a right of diſpoſing of it; and the republick of Piſa being then in poſſeſſion of the ſame, were beaten out by the Arragonians.

Alonſo XI 1312. The minority of ALONSO XI, was in like manner full of trouble, the Moors receiving great reinforcements from Africa. The Caſtilians however obtained a ſignal victory over them in the year 1340, in which battle, it is ſaid, two hundred thouſand Moors were killed, and but twenty-five thouſand Spaniards; upon this Algezira was taken, and a peace concluded with the King of Grenada, on condition that he ſhould be tributary to Caſtile. A victory over the Moors, an. 1340.

Peter the Cruel. 1350. King ALONSO died at the ſiege of Gibralter, anno 1350, and was ſucceeded by his Son PETER, ſurnamed the Cruel, who reigned very tyrannically. He drew the hatred of moſt of his ſubjects upon himſelf by parting from his Queen BLANCH, whom he afterwards cauſed to be murdered for the ſake of a concubine. This occaſioned a plot againſt him, which he ſuppreſſed with a great deal of bloodſhed. In the mean while a war aroſe betwixt him and PETER IV King of Arragon, who aſſiſted the rebels in Caſtile. They had ſet up for their King, HENRY the King's brother, by a concubine called ELEONORA GUSMAN. With him alſo joined a great many French voluntiers, ſo that falling upon PETER of Caſtile, he forced him to flee into Aquitain. But PETER having prevailed with the Prince of Wales to aſſiſt him with an army of veteran troops, returned into Spain, defeated HENRY, 1367. and obliged him to retire into France in his turn. King PETER however did not deſiſt from his tyranny, whereby he quite loſt the affection of his ſubjects; and HENRY having gathered another army in France, re-entered Caſtile, where being aſſiſted by the Caſtilians, he defeated his rival, and killed him with his own hands.

Henry II. 1369. HENRY II, ſurnamed the Baſtard, did at firſt labour under great difficulties, the neighbouring powers attacking him on every ſide; but at laſt a peace was made with all of them upon honourable terms. He died in the year 1379.

John. 1379. His ſon JOHN endeavoured to obtain the crown of Portugal upon the death of FERDINAND it's King, whoſe daughter he had married; but the Portugueſe, out of their averſion to the Caſtilians, ſet up for their King JOHN, natural ſon to PETER King of Portugal, who maintained himſelf againſt the Caſtilians, and gained a ſignal victory over them near Aliumbaret. Caſtile was at that time in great diſtraction, the Engliſh ſiding with the Portugueſe under the Duke of Lancaſter, who having married the daughter of PETER ſurnamed the Cruel, pretended a right to the crown of Caſtile, and accordingly aſſumed the title and arms; but the diſpute was at laſt compoſed, by marrying the daughter of the Engliſh Duke to the Prince of Caſtile. After which a peace was likewiſe concluded with Portugal. JOHN died by a fall from his horſe, anno 1390.

Henry III. 1390. HENRY III was a ſickly Prince, under whoſe minority great diviſions aroſe in the kingdom. He did nothing remarkable, except that he reſtored the revenues which the nobility had alienated from the crown. He died in the year 1407, leaving behind him JOHN II, a child of two months old.

John II. 1407. The tuition of this Prince was committed to his mother and Don FERDINAND his uncle, to whom the States offered the kingdom, which he refuſed, but accepted however the crown of Arragon. This King under the tuition of his mother being grown very effeminate, addicted to pleaſure, and having no genius or inclination for publick buſineſs, committed the whole management of the State to his favourite ALVAREZ DE LUNA, an ambitious man, which occaſioned great murmurings among the nobility. JOHN taking his favourite's part, a civil war enſued, wherein the rebels were headed by his own ſon, and the city of Toledo declared againſt him. At laſt the King tired out with protecting ALVAREZ, and the many inconveniences he had brought himſelf under, conſented to cut off this favourite's head, and died himſelf the next year. Under the reign of this King a war broke out betwixt the Spaniards and the Moors of Grenada, wherein the firſt had great advantages. In the year 1420 King ALONSO of Arragon was adopted by JOAN Queen of Naples for her heir; but a difference ariſing betwixt JOAN and ALONSO, ſhe declared the ſaid adoption void and null, receiving in his ſtead LEWIS Duke of Anjou; which afterwards occaſioned bloody wars betwixt France and Spain: but at laſt ALONSO prevailed, making himſelf maſter of Naples, and leaving the ſame to his natural ſon FERDINAND.

Henry IV. 1454. In the kingdom of Caſtile, JOHN II was ſucceeded by his ſon HENRY IV, ſtiled by ſome the Scourge and Scandal of Caſtile, who being incapable of begetting children, to remove the ſuſpicion of his impotence, hired one BERTRAND DE CUEVA, afterwards created a Duke, to lie with the Queen, who having been delivered of a daughter named JOAN, HENRY cauſed her to be proclaimed heireſs to the crown. What confirmed the people in this belief was, that the Queen afterwards had another baſtard by another perſon. To wipe off the ſcandal, and to exclude JOAN from the ſucceſſion of the crown, the nobility of Caſtile entered into an aſſociation; and placing the image of HENRY upon a ſcaffold, they there formally accuſed him of this wicked contrivance, and afterwards having taken off his ornaments, threw his image from the ſcaffold, proclaiming at the ſame time ALONSO, brother of HENRY, their King. From hence aroſe inteſtine wars, which occaſioned ſeveral battles. During theſe troubles ALONSO died.

Ferdinand ſon of John II, King of Arragon, married to Iſabella, ſiſter to Henry of Caſtile. 1469. About the ſame time FERDINAND, ſon of JOHN II, King of Arragon, whom his father had declared King of Sicily, propoſed a marriage with ISABELLA, HENRY's ſiſter, to whom the rebellious Caſtilians had offered the crown, and forced HENRY to confirm her right to the ſame: whereupon the nuptials were celebrated privately. Yet would HENRY, by making his conceſſion void, have afterwards ſet up again the title of JOAN, whom he had promiſed in marriage to CHARLES Duke of Aquitain, brother to LEWIS XI King of France. But he dying ſuddenly, HENRY at laſt was reconciled to FERDINAND and ISABELLA, and died in the year 1474.

Ferdinand and Iſabella King and Queen of Caſtile. 1474. ISABELLA, now Queen of Caſtile, being married to FERDINAND King of Sicily, and preſumptive heir to the kingdom of Arragon, and thereby moſt of the dominions of Spain becoming ſubject to one houſe, I ſhall treat more largely of the future reigns than I have of the former, when this country was ſplit into ſo many little kingdoms and principalities, that their hiſtory was not of ſuch conſequence as that of the ſucceeding Monarchs. But it may be proper here to give a liſt of the Kings of Arragon before it was united to Caſtile.

Kings of Arragon after the invaſion of the Saracens.

This kingdom was erected in 905, and contained then Sobrarva and the country of Ripagorſa. SANCHO ABRACA was their firſt King, and called himſelf King of Navarre and Arragon. They continued in one hand 132 years, till SANCHO the Great divided his dominions betwixt his ſons; and Arragon fell to his baſtard ſon RAMIRO, who was the firſt of the ſeparate Kings.

RAMIRO came to the crown anno	1037
SANCHO RAMIR ſucceeded	1067
Don PEDRO I.	1094
ALPHONSUS, or ALONSO I.	1104
RAMIRO II.	1134
RAIMOND I.	1138
ALPHONSUS, or ALONSO II.	1165
PETER II.	1196
JAMES I.	1214
PETER III.	1276
ALPHONSUS III.	1285
JAMES II.	
ALPHONSUS IV.	1328
PETER IV.	1336
JOHN I.	1389
MARTIN	1395
FERDINAND	1413
ALPHONSUS V.	
JOHN II.	1460
FERDINAND	1478

FERDINAND and ISABELLA met with great oppoſition in the beginning of their reign, as well from a powerful faction in Caſtile, as from ALONSO King of Portugal, who having eſpouſed the Princeſs JOANNA, by ſome pretended to be the legitimate daughter (though generally held to be illegitimate) of the late King HENRY, aſſumed the title of King of Caſtile, and raiſed a numerous army to aſſert his title. But the King of Portugal being defeated in a general battle near Toro, deſiſted from his pretenſions, and the Princeſs JOANNA, whom he had eſpouſed, retired into a nunnery.

1479. Arragon deſcends to Ferdinand.

JOHN King of Arragon dying in the year 1479, FERDINAND took poſſeſſion of that kingdom, together with Catalonia, Valencia, and Majorca, which belonged to it; ſo that he was now in his own or his wife's right Sovereign of all Spain, except Navarre, Portugal, and Grenada, the laſt of which provinces was yet in the poſſeſſion of the Moors.

The people of Caſtile complaining that the nobility oppreſſed the commons, and had devoured the revenues of the crown, which was the occaſion of the heavy taxes impoſed on the nation, all grants extorted by force, or granted voluntarily by the late King HENRY were declared void. At the ſame time Prince JOHN, the ſon of King FERDINAND and ISABELLA, was declared heir to the kingdoms of Caſtile and Arragon. He was born in the year 1478. 1481.

And now King FERDINAND and his Queen being peaceably ſettled in their dominions, employed themſelves in reforming ſuch abuſes in the adminiſtration, as had been introduced during the late wars; and particularly in the courts of juſtice: for lawyers are the ſame in every country, and if their practice is not ſometimes examined into by the legiſlature, greater oppreſſions will be committed under a colour of juſtice, than could have happened in places where there was no law in being. His next care, ſay the Spaniards, was to root all errors and hereſies out of the church; and to that end he eſtabliſhed the holy Inquiſition, to keep the converted Moors and Jews in awe, and deter them from returning to their idolatry and ſuperſtition. But notwithſtanding the ſpecious pretences for erecting this court, in the words of the judicious PUFFENDORF, it is eſteemed by other nations an inhuman and execrable tribunal, and carries the greateſt injuſtice with it, in making the children to bear the guilt of their parents, and not ſuffering any one to know either his accuſers, or the particulars of the charge brought againſt him, in order to clear himſelf of it. But I ſhall enlarge further on this head, when I come to give the hiſtory of the perſecution raiſed againſt the converted Jews and Moors of Grenada, &c.

1481.

The greateſt part of Spain being united under one head, was become too powerful for the Moors of Grenada, who were alſo much weakened by their inteſtine diviſions, which induced King FERDINAND about this time to endeavour the making an abſolute conqueſt of them. The war was begun in the year 1481, by ſkirmiſhing and attacking ſome inconſiderable towns, which were often taken and retaken; but nothing of any great conſequence happened in this war till the year 1487, when the city of Malaga was beſieged by King FERDINAND with an army of twelve thouſand horſe and forty thouſand foot. It was taken on the 18th of Auguſt 1487, when it ſurrendered at diſcretion, after it had been bravely defended upwards of three months.

1487. Malaga taken by King Ferdinand.

There being ſome diſturbances in Arragon, and the plague ſweeping away great numbers of people in Spain the three following years, the war againſt the Moors was not carried on with vigour, only the country was haraſſed and waſted to the very walls of Grenada. In the year 1491 that capital was beſieged by the Chriſtians, ſaid to contain at that time ſixty thouſand houſes, and to have no leſs than a thouſand and thirty beautiful towers on the walls. King FERDINAND ſat down before it on the 24th of April 1491, and it ſurrendered upon articles on the 25th of November following, having held out a ſiege of ſeven months. The articles were ſworn to by King FERDINAND on the one ſide, and by BOABDIL, the Mooriſh King, on the other: the ſubſtance whereof were;

Grenada beſieged. 1491. The largeneſs of that city.

Articles of ſurrender.

‘That the Moors within ſixty days deliver up to the King the two caſtles, the towers, and gates of the city. That they do homage to King FERDINAND, and take an oath of allegiance to him. That they ſet at liberty all Chriſtian ſlaves without ranſom. That till theſe articles be performed they deliver up five hundred ſons of the principal inhabitants as hoſtages. That they be left poſſeſſed of their lands, arms, and horſes, only delivering up the artillery. That they keep their moſques, and have the 'free exerciſe of their religion. That they be governed according to their own laws; and to this purpoſe perſons of their own nation be appointed, by whoſe advice the King's officers ſhall adminiſter juſtice to them. That part of the uſual taxes be abated during the term of three years, and never after be greater than they uſed to pay to their own Kings. That ſuch as will go over into Africk may ſell their goods, and be furniſhed with ſhips for their paſſage into any port they ſhall chuſe. That King Boabdil's ſon, and the other hoſtages delivered by him, be reſtored after the city is ſurrendered.'

Before the ſixty days were expired a fanatick Moor raiſed an inſurrection in the city, exclaiming againſt the capitulation, which King Boabdil with ſome difficulty ſuppreſſed; and being apprehenſive of farther tumults, ſent immediately to King Ferdinand to acquaint him with the ſituation of affairs, offering to deliver up the city before the time was expired. Whereupon King Ferdinand made his entry into the city of Grenada at the head of his army on the day after New-Year's-Day 1491-2, being met by King Boabdil at the head of fifty horſe, who upon delivering up the keys of the town to Ferdinand, ſaid, 'We are your ſlaves, invincible King! We deliver up this city and kingdom to you, not doubting you will uſe us with clemency and moderation.'

To King Boabdil was aſſigned the valley of Purchena for his reſidence, with a handſome revenue; but he choſe to tranſport himſelf to Africa, rather than live a ſubject in a country of which he had been Sovereign. And here it may be proper to inſert a liſt of the Mooriſh Kings of Grenada.

Kings of Grenada after the invaſion of the Saracens.

This was the laſt of the kingdoms of the Moors in Spain, whither that people generally retired after their expulſion from the other provinces.

Mahomet Aben Alhamar began his reign A. D.	1238
Mahomet Mir	1273
Mahomet Aben Alhamar	1305
Mahomet Aben Azer	1313
Ismael	1314
Mahomet	1328
Joseph	1334
Mahomet Lagus	1361
Mahomet of Cadiz	1394
Joseph	1409
Mahomet Aben Balva	1412
Joseph	1424
Mahomet the Crook-back	1428
Mahomet the Little	ibid.
Mahomet the Crook-back again	1430
Joseph Alben Almao uſurped the crown.	
Mahomet the Crook-back was reſtored again	1435
Mahomet the Lame	1439
Aben Ismael	1452
Muley Hacen	1470
Mahomet Boabdil the Little	1482
Muley Boabdil	1485

And being beſieged in his capital city of Grenada, ſurrendered it, together with his kingdom, to Ferdinand and Isabella, King and Queen of Caſtile and Arragon, on the day after New-Year's-Day, anno 1491-2; which put an end to the dominion of the Moors in Spain.

King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella being at Grenada in the year 1492, commanded all Jews to depart the kingdom of Spain within the ſpace of four months; but gave them leave to ſell their effects or carry them with them. Whereupon it is ſaid, ſeventeen thouſand families of that people (and according to others, eight hundred thouſand ſouls) quitted that kingdom; ſome tranſported themſelves to Africa, others to Italy, &c. but the bulk of them went to Portugal, where King John II permitted them to be received upon condition of their paying him eight crowns of gold for every head, and their promiſing to depart his kingdom within a certain limited time, on the expiration whereof all who remained behind were to be made ſlaves. But when this people came to the port towns of Portugal, in order to tranſport themſelves, they found the King had prohibited all ſhips to take them on board; and notwithſtanding their ſtay was occaſioned by the King's own orders, he cauſed all their effects to be ſeized on the expiration of the time prefixed, and ſold their perſons to his ſubjects for ſlaves.

Doctor Geddes adds, 'That King Emanuel, who ſucceeded John, reckoning it to have been both an unjuſt and diſhonourable thing that his predeceſſor had done to the Jews, he ſet them all at liberty again; but at the ſame time commanded them all, upon pain of perpetual ſervitude, either to be baptized within a certain term of months, or to leave Portugal, promiſing that ſhips ſhould be provided for all that would depart at the three chief ports of his kingdom. The Jews who had all left Spain, where they and their anceſtors had lived for a great many generations, becauſe they would not turn Chriſtians, did intend to leave Portugal for the ſame reaſon, and did accordingly repair with their families to the ports appointed for their embarkation, where inſtead of ſhips to carry them off, they met with a proclamation prohibiting them upon pain of death to embark any where but at Liſbon: To which city when they were all come with their families, the King commanded all their children that were under fourteen years of age to be taken from them, and to be baptized by force. With which unexpected violence ſeveral parents were ſo inraged, that they threw their children that were under that age into the river and into wells, and themſelves after them. But the time appointed for their embarkation being expired, and no ſhips being permitted to take any of them aboard, they did, rather than be made ſlaves again, conſent to be baptized.

'The Jews who were baptized at this time, in this manner, are reckoned to have been above three hundred thouſand, men, women and children. And whereas few, if any of them, were in their hearts Chriſtians when they were thus forced to receive baptiſm, great numbers of their deſcendants do to this day in Portugal continue to breed up their children in the Jewiſh religion, notwithſtanding the unintermitting cruelties which have ever ſince been exerciſed by the Inquiſition upon all who have been convicted of having returned to that faith.

‘ This diſperſion of the Spaniſh Jews is reckoned, by all of that nation and religion, to have been, both as to hardſhips and as to their numbers, nothing inferior to that which followed upon the deſtruction of Jeruſalem.’

America diſcovered by Columbus.

It was ſoon after the conqueſt of Grenada that CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, a Genoeſe, attempted the diſcovery of America for the Spaniards. He had applied himſelf firſt to the court of Portugal, and afterwards to HENRY VII, King of England, for a ſquadron of ſhips in order to undertake that enterprize, and was ſlighted by both of them. At length FERDINAND and ISABELLA, Sovereigns of Caſtile and Arragon, after deliberating upon the matter ſeven years, aſſiſted him with three ſhips and ſeventeen thouſand ducats, which they were forced to borrow, their treaſury was ſo exhauſted by the wars: and with theſe COLUMBUS ſet ſail from Palos on the third of Auguſt 1492, and having touched at the Canaries, after ſeveral days ſail diſcovered certain iſlands which he named the *Prince's Iſlands*; and having built a fort, and left ſome men in gariſon there, he returned to Spain.

1492.

The next year he diſcovered the iſlands of Cuba and Hiſpaniola, and great part of the continent, both north and ſouth, introducing the Spaniards into a country of many thouſand miles extent, rich and fruitful beyond expreſſion, and where they found ſuch inexhauſtible mines of gold and ſilver, that they have ſupplied Europe with the greateſt part of thoſe precious minerals ever ſince. To eſtabliſh themſelves, they deſtroyed the two vaſt empires of Peru and Mexico, which they found little difficulty in effecting, the natives being perfectly naked and unarmed. But I ſhall not here enlarge on the diſcovery of America, reſerving this part of modern hiſtory 'till I come to treat of that part of the world.

1493. Rouſſillon and Cerdagne yielded to the Spaniards.

The French King deſigning to make an attempt on the kingdom of Naples, to which the houſe of Arragon had ſome pretenſions, in order to ſecure the Friendſhip of King FERDINAND while he was engaged in that expedition, he made him a ceſſion of Rouſſillon and Cerdagne, in the year 1493.

Not long after, King FERDINAND poſſeſſed himſelf of the maſterſhips of the three military orders in Caſtile, the maſters whereof had claimed an exemption from the regal juriſdiction, and were become ſo very powerful by reaſon of their vaſt revenues and numbers of dependants, that they were formidable to the King himſelf. Theſe maſterſhips were confirmed to his Majeſty by Pope INNOCENT VIII. His Holineſs alſo gave him the title of the Catholick King, on account of the zeal he had ſhewn for extirpating the Jews and Mahometans.

John Prince of Caſtile dies.

In the year 1497 died JOHN Prince of Caſtile and Arragon, and preſumptive heir to both thoſe crowns.

1499.

Dr Geddes's account of the uſage of the Moors after the conqueſt of Grenada.

I come now to enquire into the uſage the Moors met with in Spain, after they had ſubmitted to the Chriſtians, of which our countryman Doctor GEDDES has given us a very full account. He obſerves, that notwithſtanding the taking of the city of Grenada put an end to the dominion of the Moors in Spain, the body of the people in that province, as well as in the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia, were ſtill Mahometans; and that there were alſo great numbers of them ſtill diſperſed over Caſtile, Eſtramadura, Arragon, Catalonia, and other provinces of Spain, who continued a diſtinct people from the Spaniards by an obſtinate adherence to the religion, language, habits, and cuſtoms of their anceſtors, ſcarce any of them having been converted to the Chriſtian faith by the Spaniſh miſſionaries who had been employed for that end.

Whereupon King FERDINAND and Queen ISABELLA coming to Grenada in the year 1499, ſent for the famous XIMENES, Archbiſhop of Toledo, and charged him, as he had any regard for the honour of the Chriſtian religion, the ſalvation of mankind and the ſafety of the government, that he would take effectual meaſures for the converſion of their Mooriſh ſubjects, who were no leſs infidels than when they lived under Mahometan Kings.

‘ XIMENES, ſays that writer, who was a man that would not be eaſily baffled in any thing that he undertook, begun that great work with courting and careſſing the chief men among the Moors, and having by rich preſents and greater promiſes perſuaded ſome of the firſt quality among them to turn Chriſtians, their examples were followed by a conſiderable number of the inferior ſort.

‘ The Moors both in the city and country being much alarmed and diſpleaſed with thoſe converſions, ſeveral of their principal men, with whom the Archbiſhop had not been able to prevail, did go about to perſuade their kindred and others neither to be flattered nor bribed out of the religion of their forefathers.

‘ The Archbiſhop, as ſoon as he heard of thoſe counterworkings, laying all humanity, ſaith the writer of his life, almoſt aſide, he commanded all thoſe zealots to be apprehended, and having loaded them with irons, he ordered them to be thrown into dungeons, and to be treated in them as the greateſt of malefactors.

‘ Among theſe zealots there was one named ZAGRI, who was of a noble family, and had been in a high command in armies, and who, among his other exploits, had in his younger days fought hand to hand with GONZALO, the Great Captain. The Archbiſhop reckoning that if he were but able to ſubdue ZAGRI's high ſpirit ſo far as to make him turn Chriſtian, none among the Moors would after that dare to oppoſe him in his converſions, he committed him to the cuſtody of one of his own chaplains named LEONI, a man of a fierce and cruel diſpoſition, in whoſe keeping ZAGRI had not been many days before he begged of his keeper to be permitted to ſpeak with the Archbiſhop; which having been granted, ZAGRI when he appeared before him, deſired that his irons might be knocked off that he might deliver his mind with the more freedom, which having been done, he declared that he had been commanded the night before in a dream to turn Chriſtian; adding at the ſame time with a ſmile, I am not ſuch a blockhead as to want any more arguments to perſuade me to that, beſides thoſe I have had given me by that terrible lion of your Lordſhip's (alluding to his keeper's name:) to whom ſaid ZAGRI, Let my countrymen be but committed for ſo many days as I have been, and I will undertake they ſhall all be converted by him to Chriſtianity; intimatiug how barbarouſly he had been uſed by LEONI.

‘ The Archbiſhop being overjoyed at his having thus converted ZAGRI, commanded him to be led out and waſhed, and having cloathed him

‘ in ſcarlet, he baptized him himſelf, calling him by the name of GONZALO FERDINANDO, the Great Captain who was at that time in Grenada, and ſettled a penſion on him of 5000 crowns yearly for his life.

‘ The other Mooriſh priſoners being no more able than ZAGRI to withſtand LEONI's arguments, did yield, and were baptized likewiſe by the Archbiſhop; who after this commanded all the Moors to deliver their Alcorans and all their other Arabick books to him; which having been done, he ordered all the books that treated of philoſophy and medicine to be preſerved, burning all the reſt in the market-place of the city, to the great mortification of the Moors who had not changed their religion. And being reſolved to make his harveſt as great as it was poſſible, he commanded the children of all the Moors, who were called Elkes, to be taken from them and baptized, upon pretence that their anceſtors were anciently Chriſtians, who had apoſtatized to the Mahometan ſect.’

Theſe violent proceedings of the Archbiſhop's occaſioned an inſurrection in the city, which being with difficulty ſuppreſſed by the King's troops, his Majeſty ordered the mutineers to be dealt with as traytors, unleſs they would turn Chriſtians. Whereupon, it is ſaid, no leſs than fifty thouſand of them ſubmitted to be baptized.

1500. The Moors in the country, underſtanding the force that had been put upon their brethren in Grenada, had recourſe to arms; whereupon the Great Captain GONZALO marched againſt them, and having taken the town of Huyar, put all the Infidels therein to the ſword, men, women, and children; which rendered the Moors deſperate, and occaſioned the inſurrection to become ſtill more general, inſomuch that the Great Captain was obliged to deſire his Majeſty to aſſemble the reſt of his army, and march againſt them in perſon.

The Chriſtians afterwards made themſelves maſters of Guadix, Almeria, and many other towns of the Infidels; but thoſe who had retired into the moſt inacceſſible part of the mountains, ſtill defending themſelves, obtained leave to go over to Barbary on their paying ten dollars a head, many of whom however were obliged to remain in Spain and be baptized, for want of money to pay for their paſſage. And in this manner it is computed about two hundred thouſand Moors, men, women, and children, were made Chriſtians within the compaſs of a few months.

200000 Moors obliged to profeſs themſelves Chriſtians.

As to the uſage of the Moors in the other conquered provinces, I find that in Andaluſia, where the ſame forced converſions had been practiſed, the Inquiſition of Seville had condemned no leſs than an hundred thouſand of the Moriſcoes, preſent or abſent, for apoſtacy within the ſpace of forty years; of which number four thouſand had been actually burnt, thirty thouſand reconciled to the church, and the reſt had made their eſcapes into Barbary; inſomuch that many thouſand houſes, in the diſtrict of Seville only, were deſerted and left without inhabitants, which had occaſioned grievous complaints from the nobility, and put a ſtop to theſe barbarities for a time.

The Moors ſubject to Arragon more mildly dealt with.

The Moors of Valencia, who were conquered by JAMES King of Arragon in the year 1236, enjoyed the free exerciſe of their religion many years afterwards. That Prince had indeed ordered his clergy to endeavour to make proſelytes of them by preaching, and upon their repreſenting that the Moriſcoes were ſuch incurable Infidels that they could never be converted to Chriſtianity but by force, and the Pope's exhorting him to baniſh them out of his dominions, he did propoſe the expulſion of them to the Cortes. Yet the thing was ſo warmly oppoſed by his Barons, to whom moſt of the Moriſcoes were vaſſals, and whoſe lands would have been of little value to them, if theſe people, by whom they were cultivated, were baniſhed, that the deſign was laid aſide, and not revived again in above three hundred years, notwithſtanding they did all that time continue Mahometans.

As to the general expulſion of this people out of Spain, I ſhall reſerve the account of it till I come to the year 1610, when it was effected by PHILIP III.

The Emperor Charles V born. 1502.

The Princeſs JOANNA, the eldeſt ſurviving daughter of King FERDINAND and Queen ISABELLA, having been married to PHILIP Duke of Burgundy and Archduke of Auſtria, ſon to the Emperor MAXIMILIAN, was on St. MATTHIAS's day, 1500, delivered of a Prince, afterwards called CHARLES V, Emperor of Germany and King of Spain. And PHILIP and his Princeſs coming into Spain in the year 1502, were ſworn heirs of the kingdoms of Caſtile and Leon. Thus was the Auſtrian family firſt introduced into Spain.

The French King, CHARLES VIII, having about this time made a conqueſt of the dutchy of Milan and kingdom of Naples, FERDINAND King of Caſtile and Arragon entered into a confederacy with the Pope, the Emperor, Venice, and Milan, to drive the French out of Italy, ſending GONSALVO FERDINAND DE CERDUA, commonly called the Great Captain, to the aſſiſtance of the Neapolitans, by whoſe conduct the French were expelled that kingdom. But not long after a treaty of peace was concluded between France and Spain, wherein it was agreed to depoſe FREDERICK King of Naples, and to divide that kingdom between them; Apulia and Calabria were allotted to FERDINAND the Catholick King, and Abruzzo and Campania to the French; and the Pope gave each of them the inveſtiture of his part. The two Kings accordingly made an entire conqueſt of the country, and the unfortunate FREDERICK fled to the iſland of Iſchia. But the French and Spaniards afterwards falling out about the limits of their territories, GONSALVO the Great Captain drove the French out of that kingdom a ſecond time, and moſt of their army periſhed in their retreat. From this time we may look upon the Spaniards to be ſole Sovereigns of Naples as well as Sicily.

The Spaniards make a conqueſt of Naples.

1504. Iſabella Queen of Caſtile dies.

ISABELLA Queen of Caſtile dying in the year 1504, appointed the Princeſs JOANNA and the Archduke her huſband heirs to the crown of Caſtile: but if the Princeſs, on account of her indiſpoſition (ſhe is reported to have been diſtracted with jealouſy) ſhould not take upon her the government, ſhe committed the adminiſtration of it to King FERDINAND, till Prince CHARLES, their ſon, arrived at the age of twenty years, according to an act of the Cortes, or three Eſtates of Caſtile, paſſed not long before for that purpoſe. She confirmed alſo to King FERDINAND the maſterſhips of the three military orders, and half the revenues of the new conqueſts in America.

King FERDINAND immediately upon the Queen's death cauſed his daughter the Princeſs

Joanna to be proclaimed Queen, and her huſband Philip King of Caſtile in right of his wife, but took the adminiſtration of the government upon himſelf; and in order to ſupport his power, entered into an alliance with the King of France, which he cemented by marrying Germana de Foix, the French King's niece, on whom he agreed to confer the kingdom of Naples, in excluſion of Prince Charles his grandſon; which his ſon-in-law King Philip highly reſented, as well as his taking upon him the government of Caſtile. Philip therefore coming to Spain from the Low Countries with a great fleet and a good body of German troops, with which his friends in Caſtile joined him on his arrival, King Ferdinand was obliged to retire to Arragon, and leave Philip in the poſſeſſion of Caſtile. However, a treaty was ſet on foot between them, and they parted friends, in appearance at leaſt.

Philip I, K. of Caſtile.

King Philip, as has been intimated already, entertaining a variety of miſtreſſes, provoked his Queen to the laſt degree. Whereupon ſhe took all opportunities of ſhewing her reſentment; and the people were ſo diſguſted at the ill uſage ſhe received from her huſband, that a party was formed in the kingdom to reſcue her out of his hands. Philip, on the other hand, gave out ſhe was mad, and propoſed the excluding her from the regency; but when the matter was mentioned in the Cortes, and they were required to take the oaths of allegiance, it was carried, that they ſhould ſwear to Queen Joanna as Queen of Caſtile in her own right, to King Philip only as her huſband, and to Prince Charles as heir to the crown after his mother's death. Another occaſion of diſcontent among the Caſtilians was the diſplacing the native Spaniards, and putting the Germans and Flemings into all poſts of honour and profit in the kingdom; and ſo general was the diſaffection at this time, that if Ferdinand had returned into the kingdom, the people would infallibly have depoſed King Philip, and conferred the adminiſtration of affairs on the Catholick King again: but he was gone to Naples to ſecure that kingdom, being apprehenſive that Gonsalvo the Great Captain might ſet up for himſelf, or yield that kingdom to ſome other Sovereign. To prevent which, the Catholick King propoſed the bringing back the Great Captain with him to Spain, under pretence of his having occaſion for his ſervice on that ſide; and in the mean time King Philip died, viz. on the 25th of September, 1506. The ſituation of affairs in Spain on this event is ſo well deſcribed by Dr. Geddes, that I chuſe to follow that gentleman in the relation of them.

1506. King Philip dies.

Queen Joanna's behaviour to her dead huſband.

He ſays, 'That the Queen, whoſe brain was ſomewhat diſtempered before, did upon this loſs ſink into ſo deep a melancholy, that thoſe who were about her had much ado to keep her from famiſhing herſelf. And as during the whole time of her huſband's ſickneſs ſhe had never, though ſhe was big with child, day nor night, ſtirred from his bed-ſide; ſo having, ſome days after he was buried, been told by a Monk, that he had read in ſome legend or other of a King who came to life again after he had been dead fourteen years, ſhe immediately commanded her huſband's body to be brought into her bedchamber, where, having taken it out of the coffin, and laid it in a bed of ſtate with its face uncovered, ſhe kept it there as long as ſhe lived, which was above twice fourteen years; and when ſhe was awake, was continually looking upon it, and watching when it would riſe.

'And as the Queen's fondneſs for her huſband, who had little deſerved it from her, ſo her jealouſy of him was ſo much increaſed by his death, that ſhe would never ſuffer any woman but herſelf to go near his corps, nor none of that ſex, beſides her old ſervants and confidants, to come within the doors of the room where it lay. And having left Burgos, with a reſolution never to ſee that nor any other city any more, ſhe travelled in the night by torch-light, with her huſband's corps drawn in a hearſe by ſix Flanders mares from one obſcure village to another, until ſhe ſettled at laſt at Tortela, where in a very mean houſe ſhe was delivered of a daughter, without the help of a midwife; for as there was no perſuading of her to lie-in in any other room but in that where her huſband's corps was, ſo ſhe would not hear of a midwife, tho' never ſo ancient, being brought into it.

'The breath was not well out of Philip's body, when the Grandees were all to pieces about the adminiſtration of the government during Prince Charles's minority. The Nobles, who had appeared moſt forward in driving Ferdinand out of Caſtile, talked high againſt his being recalled to be their Governor; alledging, That if his government was grievous to his Nobles before, it would be much more ſo now, after he had been ſo highly provoked by their having joined with Philip againſt him. His being married to the Princeſs Germana, in hopes of having male iſſue by her, was likewiſe urged as an unkind thing to the poſterity of their Queen Isabella, and which, if he were it's Governor, might prove of dangerous conſequence to Caſtile.

'The Queen, who when ſhe would ſpeak, which was but ſeldom, did always give very pertinent anſwers, being addreſſed to know to whom ſhe would have the adminiſtration of the government of her kingdoms committed, is ſaid to have anſwered, "My firſt-born ſon and heir Charles is too young to adminiſter the government himſelf, and Maixmilian my father-in-law cannot well leave the Empire and his own hereditary dominions; or if he would, he is altogether a ſtranger to the tempers and cuſtoms of my people, which are all perfectly underſtood by my father, and who has with great toil and danger much enlarged my territories." But when ſhe was deſired, after ſo wiſe an extemporary anſwer, by a publick inſtrument to conſtitute her father Governor of Caſtile during her ſon's minority, not a word more was to be had from her, neither would ſhe to her dying day ever be perſuaded to put her hand to any writing, or to give any reaſon why ſhe would not do it; only on other occaſions ſhe would ſometimes ſay, "That it was ſcandalous for the widow of a good huſband to let any thing trouble her thoughts but the memory of her great loſs."

'Cardinal Ximenes, Archbiſhop of Toledo, the wiſeſt and moſt diſintereſted ſtateſman that Spain, or perhaps any other kingdom, ever had, at firſt ſeemed to agree with the Nobles to exclude Ferdinand from the regency, to which his near relation to the Prince gave him ſo good a title; but being ſenſible that no man was ſo fit as Ferdinand to govern Spain at that time, he ſo managed the Council of State, that he pre-

'vailed with them to ſend for **Ferdinand**, who was then at Naples, to deſire him to come and take upon him the adminiſtration of the government, during the time of his daughter's indiſpoſition, and of his grandſon's minority. And though the Queen would not be perſuaded to give any countenance to his coming by writing a line to invite him, yet having been deſired by his Ambaſſador at her court, to order publick prayers and ſupplications to be made in all the churches for his ſafe arrival in Caſtile, ſhe made anſwer, it ſhall be done; and added, that ſhe doubted not but that God would both give her father a proſperous voyage, and would bleſs him in the adminiſtration of the government of her kingdoms.

'**Ferdinand** being arrived in Caſtile, went directly to viſit his diſconſolate daughter; and though the place he found her in was extremely incommodious both for herſelf and the court, he had much ado to perſuade her to leave it, to go to Santa Maria de Campo, from whence he intended to have moved her to Burgos, and to have fixed her there, ſo ſoon as the caſtle of that city (which was held out againſt him by one **Emanuel**, the great favourite of King **Philip**) was reduced. But the Queen, when ſhe came to Arcos, ſuſpecting that her father intended to have carried her to Burgos, would not go a ſtep further; telling him, that ſhe was reſolved never to ſee the place any more, wherein ſhe had been ſo unhappy as to loſe the beſt of huſbands. And though Arcos was a town of bad air, and very inconvenient for the court, it was five months before he could perſuade her to leave it to go to Tordeſillas, a pleaſant village, and where ſhe had a palace, in the neighbourhood of Valladolid: but having at laſt prevailed with her to remove, ſhe travelled all the way by night with her hearſe, ſtopping ſtill at the firſt houſe ſhe met with, though it was a cottage, after the day began to dawn, and remained there till it was dark night. And when ſhe was deſired by her father, who accompanied her, not to feed her melancholy by travelling after ſuch a diſmal manner, all the anſwer he could have was, "That the ſun ought never to ſee a woman, after ſhe was ſo unfortunate as to be a widow."

King Ferdinand reſumes the adminiſtration.

The Emperor **Maximilian** did at firſt oppoſe King **Ferdinand**'s taking upon him the government of Caſtile, alledging, that as his daughter Queen **Joanna** was non compos, the adminiſtration of the government devolved upon him (the Emperor) during the minority of his grandſon Prince **Charles**. But matters were at length accommodated between the Emperor and **Ferdinand**, and the latter continued Regent of Caſtile all the remainder of his life. The moſt remarkable things that happened during his adminiſtration were the Italian war and the conqueſt of Navarre. 1508. For in the year 1508 **Ferdinand** entered into a confederacy with the French King and other Princes againſt the Venetians, on account of that republick's refuſing to deliver up to him Brunduſium, Otranto, and ſome other cities of Calabria, which the Venetians had poſſeſſed themſelves of. But the Venetians agreeing to ſurrender thoſe places to him, he thought fit to change ſides, and thereby prevented the French and Imperialiſts from making themſelves maſters of the Venetian territories. And this occaſioned the other war againſt Navarre; for **John d'Albert**, King of Navarre, entering into an alliance with the French King againſt Spain, **Ferdinand** took this opportunity of reducing all that part of Navarre, which lies on the Spaniſh ſide of the Pyrenees (which is four times larger than that on the French ſide) to the obedience of Caſtile: in which expedition he had the Pope on his ſide, who excommunicated the King of Navarre for joining with France, and gave his dominions to any power that could conquer it. Nor were the Kings of Navarre ever able to recover this part of their territories again. 1510. This victorious King alſo took Tripoli and ſeveral other towns on the coaſt of Barbary from the Infidels; and after a long and glorious reign, wherein immenſe treaſures continually flowed in from the American conqueſts that were diſcovered and ſubdued under his adminiſtration, (and to which as well as his wiſdom his ſucceſſes are to be aſcribed) he died on the twenty-third of January, 1515-16, leaving all the provinces of Spain, except Portugal, united under one head. He had made three wills, in all of which he named his daughter Queen **Joanna** his Heireſs, and her ſon Prince **Charles**'s Governor of his dominions; and during that Prince's abſence he appointed his illegitimate ſon the Archbiſhop of Saragoſſa to be Governor of Arragon, and Cardinal **Ximenes**, Archbiſhop of Toledo, Governor of Caſtile, which was complied with afterwards; only the Dean of Louvain, producing the Prince's commiſſion, was admitted joint Governor with Cardinal **Ximenes**. To Prince **Ferdinad**, his younger grandſon, he left ſome towns in the kingdom of Naples, and an annual penſion of fifty thouſand ducats. He was interred in the royal chapel in the cathedral of Grenada, near his late wife Queen **Isabella**, with the ſplendor and magnificence due to ſo great a conqueror.

Navarre conquered by Ferdinand.

1515. K. Ferdinand dies.

Charles his grandſon K. of Spain.

Prince **Charles**, upon the death of his grandfather King **Ferdinand**, took upon him the title of King of Spain, notwithſtanding his mother Queen **Joanna** was living, but did not arrive in Spain however till a year and a half afterwards; the government of Caſtile in the mean time being committed to Cardinal **Ximenes** and **Adrian** Dean of Louvain, **Charles**'s preceptor, who afterwards arrived at the papacy by the powerful intereſt of his pupil.

The Spaniards had been entertained with ſuch a glorious character of their new Sovereign **Charles**, that they expected him with the utmoſt impatience, and were apt to impute his ſtay to the arts of the Flemings, who obtained vaſt remittances of treaſure from Spain in the mean time. But however that was, **Charles** arrived at length with a royal fleet at Villa Vicioſa in Aſturia on the nineteenth of September 1517, whither Cardinal **Ximenes** was going to attend his Majeſty, but died upon the road before he ſaw him; whereupon **Chevers** a Frenchman, the then favourite in King **Charles**'s court, begged that noble preferment, computed to be worth fourſcore thouſand pounds ſterling per ann. for his nephew, **William de Croy** Biſhop of Cambray. Other poſts of honour and profit were taken from the native Spaniards and conferred on the Germans and Flemings, which very much diſguſted the Caſtilians, and began to make them alter the good opinion they had conceived of their new Monarch. 1517.

1518. A Cortes was aſſembled in the year 1518, where King **Charles** took the uſual oaths to govern according to their laws, and to protect the liberties and privileges of the ſubject: after which a motion was made by the court-party for a ſupply to defray the charges of the government; but the Commons inſiſted before they parted with their money, to have two of their ancient laws confirmed, viz. 1. That none but natives of Caſtile ſhould be admitted into any office or employment in Church or State. And, 2. That no treaſure ſhould be ſent out of the kingdom, on pain of death: wiſely foreſeeing, that if theſe reſtrictions were not complied with, Spain muſt ſooner or later be reduced to a ſtate of beggary. But the court-party, by places or penſions, or the hopes they gave the majority of finding their account in complying with his Majeſty, procured the ſupply to be granted before the privileges of the ſubject were confirmed; and the donative, as the Caſtilians call a bill of ſupply, was immediately borrowed of the Italian bankers at a high intereſt, and diſtributed among the Flemings, though it was not to have been raiſed under three years: and what was a further mortification to them was, that they ſaw all that vaſt ſum exported to Flanders by the King's Dutch favourites, almoſt as ſoon as it was borrowed.

Donna LEONORA, the King's ſiſter, was about this time given in marriage to EMANUEL King of Portugal, though he had married two of her aunts before, and he was old enough to be her grandfather. This the Caſtilians made another ſubject of complaint, aſcribing this match to CHEVERS the King's favourite, who, 'twas ſaid, ſacrificed this young Princeſs to his covetouſneſs, being known to have received one and twenty thouſand ducats of the King of Portugal. The King alſo ſent his brother Don FERDINAND to Flanders under the tuition of a Flemiſh Governor; and conferred the rich archbiſhoprick of Tortoſa on his preceptor ADRIAN, for whom he procured a Cardinal's cap; which ſo diſguſted the Spaniſh clergy, that they refuſed to raiſe the tenths the Pope had granted him.

The King afterwards aſſembled the Cortes of Arragon at Sarragoſſa, where he took the oaths to maintain their privileges, and then demanded a ſupply; but the States anſwered, It was not uſual to give money before their grievances were redreſſed, and the debts of the crown were paid. 1519. But the Emperor MAXIMILIAN dying about this time, and the King deſiring them not to delay the ſupply, becauſe he ſhould be obliged to go into Germany to be preſent at the next election, in order to prevent the French King's being choſen Emperor, the donative was granted; clogged however with ſo many appropriations to publick uſes, that there remained but little for the King. From whence he went to Barcelona, and aſſembled the States of Catalonia, who were nine months before they granted any money, and then applied ſo much of it to the paying of old debts, that there were not above twenty-five pounds left for his Majeſty's uſe; which the courtiers exclaiming againſt, were told, That the King ſeemed to be governed by Dutch and French Miniſters, who were come into Spain as into an enemy's country, intending after they had plundered it, to carry the ſpoils to Flanders. They complained alſo, that all offices were ſold by the Prime Miniſter CHEVERS or his Lady, a practice till then not known in Spain.

K. Charles choſen Emperor.

The King having been choſen Emperor while he remained at Barcelona, the Spaniards foreſaw that they ſhould now be made a province of Germany, and that as the King would generally reſide there, the treaſures of Spain would be exported thither, which made them ſtill more untractable; inſomuch that when the Emperor deputed Cardinal ADRIAN to hold a Cortes at Valencia, they refuſed to grant him a ſupply, or even to acknowledge him for their Sovereign, till he came amongſt them, and took the oaths to obſerve their privileges in perſon, which he could not do at this time, being preſſed by the Imperial Diet to haſten into Germany. However as he was in great want of money, he ordered the Cortes of Caſtile to aſſemble at the Groyne, a port-town in Galicia, from whence he intended to embark for Flanders; and threatned the electors, if they did not ſend repreſentatives thither prepared to grant what money he ſhould aſk, he would remove all the Courts of Judicature out of Caſtile into that loyal province of Galicia.

Miſunderſtandings between the Emperor and the Cortes of Caſtile.

The Caſtilians hereupon complained openly, that they were treated by their Dutch King and his miniſtry more like ſlaves than ſubjects; that the commanding them to meet in Galicia, a remote province, and demanding a new donative before the time for raiſing the former was expired, and threatning to remove the Courts of Judicature, if they did not raiſe ſuch ſums as the miniſtry demanded, were things unprecedented. This was indeed to rule them with a rod of iron, as ſome of his Dutch favourites had threatned; and the city of Valladolid in particular was ſo exaſperated at the King's removing both the Courts and Cortes from thence, that they had recourſe to arms, and determined to prevent his Majeſty's going out of the gates; but he took the advantage of a tempeſtuous night, and eſcaped from them, going from thence to the Groyne. Here he was met by Commiſſioners from Toledo, who proteſted againſt his holding a Cortes in Galicia, declaring it to be unlawful. But the King, who had now ſo many valuable poſts to diſpoſe of in the Empire, as well as in the dominions of Spain, notwithſtanding their oppoſition, procured the Cortes to be aſſembled at the Groyne, and found means to influence a majority to grant him the ſupplies he demanded, for which indeed they were called *tools and journeymen to* CHEVERS *the Prime Miniſter*, and charged with conniving at their country's being plundered by foreigners, that they might have a ſhare in it's ſpoils. And the nation in general was ſo provoked at the proceedings of this Cortes, that an inſurrection was looked upon as inevitable. However, the King proceeded in his voyage, embarking at the Groyne the twenty-ſecond of May 1520; and Cardinal ADRIAN was left Governor of Caſtile, a man the moſt grateful to the Spaniards of any of the foreigners the King had brought over on account of his unblemiſhed integrity; but he was not truſted with the diſpoſal of any preferments of conſequence, for theſe the Spaniards were forced to go over and ſollicit in Germany, and in the Spaniards phraſe, *to buy them of the Prime Miniſter* CHEVERS.

1520. The Emperor embarks for Germany.

The Commons of Caſtile make an inſurrection.

The people of Valencia had already taken up arms, and excluded the nobility of that kingdom from all employments; and the King was no ſooner gone to his German dominions, but the city of Toledo propoſed an aſſociation among all the cities of Caſtile, for redreſſing their grievances, and recovering their invaded liberties. Accordingly they choſe them a General, formed an army, and elected repreſentatives in every town, who aſſembled at Abula, and took upon them the title of a Cortes, and the direction of all affairs. The members who had voted the ſupply at the Groyne were ſoon made ſenſible of the people's reſentment; they fell upon them wherever they met with them, dragged them from the very altars, and tore them in pieces, crying out, that *Rogues who had betrayed their country ought not to have the benefit of it's ſanctuaries.*

Their demands.

The firſt thing the Cortes or Junta of the diſaffected Commons entred upon, was the drawing up a particular of their demands; the chief whereof were, 'That the King ſhould reſide in Caſtile, 'or appoint one of the natives his Viceroy. That 'no foreigner ſhould be capable of any office or 'preferment. That the King ſhould give no office or ſalary to any member of the Cortes. 'That a Cortes ſhould meet once in three years. 'That the ſoldiers ſhould not have free quarters. 'That all privileges granted to the nobility to 'the prejudice of the Commons ſhould be revoked. That the lands of the Nobility ſhould 'be taxed equally with the Commons. That no 'gold, ſilver, or jewels ſhould be ſent out of the 'kingdom, &c.'

With theſe demands they ſent a deputation to the King in Germany; but before thoſe gentlemen had paſſed through France, they underſtood the King had ordered them all to be made priſoners as ſoon as they entered his German dominions; whereupon they returned to Spain, endeavouring to heighten the diſcontents of the people againſt their Sovereign. And now the breach appeared to be ſo wide, that nothing but the ſword could decide it; whereupon the Cardinal, who was left Governor of Caſtile, aſſembled all the forces he could, and the malecontents increaſed theirs. The Commons had much the advantage at firſt, for both the Clergy and Nobility, if they did not join them, lay ſtill and were not diſpleaſed to obſerve their ſucceſs; but when they found that the Commons were no leſs bent upon their deſtruction than that of the Miniſters, they joined with the Court againſt them, which in the end brought their affairs into an ill ſituation. Another occaſion of their misfortune was their making choice of Don John de Padilla for their General, a nobleman of very little knowledge or experience in martial affairs. The King however having but few forces in Caſtile at the time of the inſurrection, the Commons remained maſters of the country for near eighteen months; but when the royal army advanced from the kingdom of Navarre, that had been employed againſt the French, the great army the Commons had aſſembled, conſiſting chiefly of an undiſciplined mob, diſperſed without ever coming to a battle; whereas if they had kept together but a very few weeks, the French having over-run all Navarre, and entered the frontiers of Caſtile, the royal army muſt have returned to Navarre again to have prevented the loſs of that kingdom.

Upon the diſperſion of the army of the malecontents, their Generals and ſuperior Officers were made priſoners, of whom ſome few were executed, particularly Don John de Padilla; but the common ſoldiers were pardoned, on condition of ſurrendring their arms, and returning to their houſes. This ſucceſs of the Royaliſts ſo terrified the aſſociated cities, that they all ſubmitted to the government in an inſtant. Never did any cauſe, ſays Dr. Geddes, which was eſpouſed by the body of a people, and which had been allowed time to put itſelf under ſome government, fall ſo flat at once as this of the Commons of Caſtile; no place beſides Toledo having made the leaſt effort to renew the war, after they heard of their army's being diſperſed, and this the Clergy held out only out of prejudice to their Archbiſhop, who was a foreigner, and he happening to die a few months after, the town ſurrendered without any army's appearing before it. The war with the Commons of Valencia ended about the ſame time, which had been carried on with much greater fury and devaſtation than that of Caſtile, and concluded with a very great ſlaughter of the Commons in the laſt deciſive battle.

1522.

Cardinal Adrian, Viceroy of Caſtile, elected Pope.

In the mean time Cardinal Adrian, Governor or Viceroy of Caſtile, received news of his being elected Pope, while he was at Victoria in Biſcay, carrying on the war againſt the French; whereupon he immediately ſet out for Italy, as the Emperor did for Spain, where he arrived the September following. His Imperial Majeſty returning to Caſtile very much in debt, aſſembled a Cortes at Valladolid, the members whereof were generally eſteemed to be in the court-intereſt, for the other party, ſince their late ill ſucceſs, durſt not appear to conteſt the elections with the Royaliſts; and yet when the Emperor came to demand a ſupply of them, they inſiſted that their grievances ſhould be redreſſed before they raiſed any money; which is the more to be admired, ſince the Speaker in his ſpeech to the Emperor on this occaſion takes notice, *That there was not one of the Members of this Cortes, who was not either of his Majeſty's houſhold, or in ſome poſt in the government*, and had been a ſufferer for the crown in the late inſurrection. The Emperor anſwered, that he could never alter the cuſtom introduced of raiſing money before any other buſineſs was entered upon. And when the Cortes addreſſed him in a body, that their grievances might be firſt taken into conſideration, he told them in ſhort, *That it was in vain to ſtruggle with him for a thing which he was reſolved never to grant*; whereupon they ceaſed to importune him any more, and granted the ſum he required, being forty hundred thouſand ducats, to be raiſed within three years; the conſequence whereof was, that their grievances were never redreſſed, or their privileges confirmed. But what could be expected more from a Parliament compoſed entirely of creatures of the court? And what can any people ever expect, where a majority of their Repreſentatives are always ſuch? Private intereſt will ever exclude that of the publick.

The Emperor returns to Spain.

Nomination to biſhopricks in the crown.

The Clergy found themſelves in a ſtill worſe condition than the Commons; for Adrian the Emperor's Preceptor being advanced to the papal chair, inſtead of the tenths formerly granted, conferred on the Emperor the fourths of the Clergy in his dominions. He alſo granted to him and his ſucceſſors Kings of Spain, the power of electing and preſenting to all biſhopricks in their dominions, with the maſterſhip of the three military orders for ever, of which his predeceſſors had only temporary grants from former Popes. But Adrian's pontificate proved very ſhort, his Holineſs dying in September 1523. He was the laſt ultramontane Pope: it is obſerved, the Italians have ever ſince choſen one of their own nation; which 'twas very eaſy to do, the reigning Pope always taking care to have a majority of Italian

1523.

Cardinals. Adrian was ſucceeded by Cardinal Julius de Medicis, and took the name of Clement VII.

War between the Emperor and France in Italy.

Naples Sicily and held of the Pope.

The French having entered the dutchy of Milan in the year 1524, were defeated by the Imperial Generals, who afterwards paſſed the Alps, and laid ſiege to Marſeilles: whereupon Francis the French King aſſembled a powerful army, and raiſed the ſiege: he afterwards followed the Imperialiſts into Italy, and reduced great part of Milan. In the mean time the Emperor entred into an alliance with Pope Leo for driving the French out of Italy; by which treaty it was agreed, that the Emperor ſhould annually on St. Peter's day, pay his Holineſs ſeven thouſand ducats and a white pad, as a tribute for the kingdom of Naples, to which the Popes had long laid claim. That the Emperor ſhould alſo acknowledge Sicily to be a fief of the Church, paying annnally 15000 ducats to the Holy See for that iſland; and that the duchy of Milan ſhould be conferred on Francis Sforza, after the French were driven out of it.

1525. Battle of Pavia. The King of France taken priſoner.

In purſuance of this treaty, the Pope's forces having joined the Imperialiſts, they attacked King Francis in his trenches before the city of Pavia, which he had beſieged, and the French being entirely defeated, their King was taken priſoner, and ſoon after ſent to Spain. This battle was fought on Friday the twenty-fourth of February 1526, being St. Matthias's day, and the Emperor's birth-day.

1526. Whilſt King Francis remained a priſoner at Madrid, a treaty of peace was concluded between him and the Emperor, by which the French King renounced all pretenſions to the ſovereignty of Flanders, Milan, Genoa and Aſte. He promiſed alſo to reſtore the duchy of Burgundy to the Emperor, to marry the Emperor's ſiſter, Eleanor Queen dowager of Portugal, and to pardon Charles Duke of Bourbon, who had deſerted the French ſervice, and was at this time General of the imperial army. Upon the concluſion of this treaty the French King was ſet at liberty, but left his two ſons, Francis the Dauphin and Henry his younger brother, hoſtages for the performance of the articles.

The Emperor ſeizes Milan.

The Emperor afterwards deprived Francis Sforza of the duchy of Milan, and took poſſeſſion of it himſelf, under pretence that the Duke held correſpondence with France; whereupon the Pope changed hands, and entered into a confederacy with France, England and the Venetians againſt the Emperor. But Charles Duke of Bourbon, the imperial General, taking the field before the confederates had aſſembled their troops, inveſted the city of Rome, where he was killed by a muſket-ſhot from the walls; notwithſtanding which the Imperialiſts took the town by ſtorm, and laid ſiege to the caſtle of St. Angelo, whither the Pope and Cardinals had retired. The Emperor being at Valladolid in Spain when this news was brought him, declared that Rome had been beſieged without his knowledge, and ordered a faſt to be proclaimed and prayers put up for the ſafety of his Holineſs, which was looked upon as a piece of grimace by the reſt of the Princes of Europe: however, matters were ſoon after accommodated between his Imperial Majeſty and his Holineſs. The Florentines, who mortally hated the Pope, took this opportunity of expelling the family of Medicis, to which the Pope was nearly related.

1527. In the mean time the French having aſſembled a fine army, joined their confederates, and marched through Italy, laying ſiege to Naples; but 1528. the plague waſting their army, and Andrew Doria their Admiral, who was a Genoeſe nobleman, deſerting their ſervice, they were forced to raiſe the ſiege of Naples, and moſt of the French army periſhed before they reached their own country. The Genoeſe at the ſame time, by Doria's aſſiſtance, expelled the French faction, and declared themſelves a free ſtate, and have ever ſince looked upon the family of Doria as their deliverers.

1529. The following year a peace was concluded between the Emperor and France, wherein it was agreed, that the French Princes ſhould be releaſed on their father's paying his Imperial Majeſty two millions of gold: that Burgundy was confirmed to the French; who on the other hand renounced all ſuperiority or homage in reſpect to the Spaniſh Low Countries. The Portugueſe alſo agreed to advance the Emperor 350,000 ducats, on condition the Spaniards ſhould not trade to the Molucca iſlands in the Eaſt-Indies, where the fine ſpices grow, till that ſum was repaid.

1530. Florence taken by the Emperor.

The Emperor after this went over to Italy, and was crowned by the Pope at Bologna, the ceremony being performed with the utmoſt ſplendor and magnificence. His Generals, of whom Philibert Prince of Orange was the chief, about the ſame time beſieged the city of Florence, and took it; whereby the Florentines loſt their liberties, and were compelled to accept Alexander de Medicis for their Duke and Sovereign. From Italy the Emperor went to Germany, and held a Diet at Augſburg, the principal deſign whereof was to depreſs the Lutheran intereſt; but thoſe of that perſuaſion preſented their confeſſion of faith in writing to the Diet, ſaid to be compoſed by Philip Melancthon, which from the place where it was drawn up, afterwards obtained the name of THE AUGSBURG CONFESSION.

1531. The next year the Emperor procured his brother Ferdinand, Archduke of Auſtria and King of Hungary and Bohemia, to be elected King of the Romans; and the Turks threatning to invade Hungary, the Emperor thought fit to grant liberty of conſcience to the Proteſtants, who joining their forces with the Catholicks, formed a numerous well diſciplined army, which obliged the infidels to retire from the confines of Chriſtendom.

The two or three following years nothing remarkable happened, unleſs a conference between the Pope and the Emperor at Bologna, in order to extirpate hereſy; and an expedition of the Emperor's to the coaſt of Barbary, where he reſtored 1535. the depoſed King Muleasse to the crown of Tunis. From Africa the Emperor went to Naples and Rome, and being highly provoked at the conduct of Francis the French King, who had in- 1536. vaded Italy in his abſence, he ſent him a challenge, which was not accepted. He afterwards paſſed the Alps, and laid ſiege to Marſeilles, but was obliged to return to Italy without taking the town.

From Italy the Emperor went to Spain, where nothing remarkable happened, unleſs the death of the Empreſs, till the year 1540, when there being 1540. a rebellion at Ghent in Flanders, the Emperor ventured to paſs thro' France, the territories of his old enemy King Francis, to ſuppreſs it; in which, the writers of thoſe times obſerve, he run a very great hazard, it having been debated in the privy council of that kingdom, whether they ſhould not make him priſoner, and oblige him at leaſt to reſtore to France, what he had extorted from King Francis when he was priſoner at Madrid; but it ſeems it was carried in the negative. The ſame year the order of the Jeſuits was firſt confirmed by Pope Paul, having been inſtituted by Ignatius Loyola, a native of Biſcay, who was a ſoldier, and wounded in the late wars of Navarre, before he erected this new ſect.

The order of the Jeſuits inſtituted.

1541.

The Emperor propoſes an accommodation between the Papiſts and Proteſtants.

The Emperor having pacified the tumultuous Flemings, went to Germany, with an intent, as it is ſaid, to endeavour an accommodation between the Papiſts and Proteſtants, for which end conferences were held between the moſt celebrated Doctors on both ſides, but to very little purpoſe. The Emperor afterwards had a conference with the Pope at Luca, on the ſubject of holding a general council to determine the diſputes that were ariſen about religion; which being deferr'd for ſome years, the Emperor in the mean time undertook an expedition againſt the Moors of Barbary, in which he was very unſucceſsful, moſt of his fleet being diſperſed or wrecked upon that coaſt, after which he returned to Spain.

1542. Such ſwarms of locuſts came over from the coaſts of Africa to Italy and Spain this year, as intercepted the light of the ſun where they came, and deſtroyed the fruits of the earth.

1543. The French King and the Turk entering into a confederacy againſt the Emperor, and Barbaroſſa, the Turkiſh Admiral, ravaging the coaſt of Naples, while the French attacked Milan, his Imperial Majeſty went thither to defend that part of his territories, and entering into an alliance with
1544. the King of England, (who made a diverſion on the ſide of Picardy, took Bologn, and ſent out parties to the very gates of Paris) the French King found himſelf under a neceſſity of accepting the peace that was offered him by the Emperor; the principal articles whereof were, that all places ſhould be reſtored that had been taken ſince the laſt truce, and that both Princes ſhould unite their forces againſt Turks and Hereticks.

1545. Council of Trent opened.

The year following the council of Trent was opened, and great endeavours were uſed to induce the Proteſtants to ſubmit to the deciſions of that council; but the Proteſtants inſiſted that this was to refer their differences to their enemies, and thought it reaſonable that their Divines ſhould be admitted to offer their arguments, and defend their
1546. doctrines. A Diet thereupon was held at Ratiſbon, and conferences ſet on foot between the proteſtant and popiſh divines, which tended only to render
1547. the breach ſtill wider, it was obſerved; and both ſides not long after had recourſe to arms, wherein the Proteſtants had the diſadvantage at firſt, being defeated in a pitched battle, and their General the Duke of Saxony made priſoner.

1548. The council of Trent breaking up without determining any thing in relation to the matters in diſpute between Papiſts and Proteſtants, a book was publiſhed by the Diet of Augſburg, allowing the marriage of prieſts, the communion in both kinds, and ſome other conceſſions by the Catholicks, which was called the Interim, being to remain in force till the council ſhould meet again and determine theſe matters. The Pope the ſame year publiſhed a bull, declaring that the deſcendants of Jews, Hereticks, or Moors, ſhould be incapable of holding any eccleſiaſtical preferment in Spain.

The Interim.

1550. Another war broke out between the Proteſtants and Papiſts in the year 1550, in which the Proteſtants had the advantage, and reduced the Emperor to very great ſtraits.

The Proteſtants diſtreſs the Emperor.

The council of Trent being opened again in the year 1551, the Proteſtants were admitted to ſend ſome Divines thither, where they preſented a book to the council ſtiled, The Wittemburg Confeſſion: but while their opinions were under debate, news was brought to Trent, that Maurice Duke of Saxony had poſſeſſed himſelf of Augſburg, and was near ſurprizing the Emperor at Inſpruck;
1552. whereupon the council broke up in great conſternation, and the Emperor, in order to pacify the proteſtant Princes of Germany, thought fit to releaſe the Duke of Saxony, and the Landgrave of Heſſe, whom he had made priſoners at the beginning of the war, and made ſeveral important conceſſions in their favour. This treaty obtained the name of the treaty of Paſſau.

Treaty of Paſſau.

1554. Philip Prince of Spain marries Mary Queen of England.

In the year 1554, Mary Queen of England having reſtored the popiſh religion in that kingdom, which diſguſted many of her ſubjects, in order to ſupport her ſelf on the throne, ſay the Spaniſh hiſtorians, married Prince Philip, the Emperor's eldeſt ſon, to whom his father reſigned the kingdom of Naples and dutchy of Milan, on that occaſion, and the marriage was ſolemnized at Winceſter on the 25th of July 1554.

1555. The Emperor reſigns Spain to his ſon Philip, and the Empire to his brother Ferdinand. Dies two years after.

The Emperor the following year thought fit to reſign all his Spaniſh dominions to his Son Philip, and the Empire to his brother Ferdinand; after which he took leave of his Flemiſh ſubjects, and went by ſea to Spain, retiring into the monaſtery of St. Juſt, of the order of St. Jerom, in the territory of Placentia, where he died two years after. Some aſcribe this to his contempt of the world, and an exceſs of piety, which prompted him to devote the remainder of his life to divine contemplation; while others relate, that his ill ſucceſs in the Proteſtant war, wherein he was perpetually defeated, and loſing the towns of Metz, Toul and Verdun in Lorrain to the young French King, which he endeavoured in vain to recover, ſo ſoured his ſpirits, that it occaſioned his retiring from the world in diſcontent. There are other writers who affirm, that this Prince in his latter days was in reality a Proteſtant in his heart, which induced him to grant ſuch advantageous conditions to thoſe of that communion at Paſſau. Puffendorf adds, that his will was ſo far from pleaſing the Inquiſition, that it was in danger of being burnt as heretical; and that his Confeſſor, and the reſt of the Monks of the convent who were preſent at the executing it, were ſeverely dealt with by that court.

Spain and the Empire impolitickly divided.

The dividing the Spaniſh territories from the Empire on the abdication of Charles V, proved of fatal conſequence to Spain: From that time, it is obſerved, that monarchy begun to decline. Nor was this unforeſeen by the late Emperor, who endeavoured to perſuade his brother Ferdinand to relinquiſh his expectations as King of the Romans to his ſon Philip; but Ferdinand would never be brought to approve that ſcheme. What gave the principal ſhock to the Spaniſh monarchy, however, was the inſurrection that followed in the Netherlands, which might eaſily have been ſuppreſſed in the beginning, if Philip would have given himſelf the trouble of going thither in perſon, and not ſent the Duke of Alva thither, whoſe rigid government and ſeverities reduced that people to the utmoſt deſpair, eſpecially when they underſtood that the inquiſition had condemned the Catholicks as well as the Proteſtants who had not oppoſed the malecontents, and endeavoured to prevent the defacing their churches and images. The introducing Spaniſh cuſtoms and Spaniſh troops into the Netherlands, had a great ſtroke alſo in alienating the affections of the Flemings, who on King PHILIP's entring into a war with ELIZABETH Queen of England, found themſelves ſo effectually ſupported by that Princeſs, that they were enabled to bid defiance to the haughty Spaniard. This provoked King PHILIP to equip that mighty fleet, to which he gave the name of the Invincible Armada, in order to make an entire conqueſt of England, which if he could have effected, his diſſatiſfied ſubjects of the Low Countries muſt have ſubmitted of courſe. This fleet of the Spaniards, which had been ſeveral years in getting ready for this expedition, it is ſaid, conſiſted of a hundred and fifty ſail of men of war, carrying ſixteen hundred braſs guns, and above a thouſand of iron; eight thouſand ſeamen, and twenty thouſand land-forces of veteran troops, beſides noble voluntiers and their ſervants, which were very numerous: they were armed alſo with the Pope's authority, who had excommunicated Queen ELIZABETH, and transferred her dominions to King PHILIP. This glorious fleet ſet ſail for England in the year 1558, but never reached thoſe ſhores; for firſt a ſtorm, and then the Engliſh fleet, handled them ſo rudely, that they returned home miſerably ſhattered, having loſt ſo many gentlemen of the firſt quality, that it is ſaid, not a noble family in Spain, but mourned for one relation or other. King PHILIP's courage and temper are much admired however on this occaſion; who when he received advice of the deſtruction of his fleet, calmly anſwered, I did not ſend them to fight with winds and ſeas. And as one misfortune uſually follows another, the Engliſh not long after defeated another fleet of the Spaniards near Cadiz, and having taken the city, plundered it of an immenſe treaſure before they left it.

Spaniſh Armada.

The Holy League.

Another project King PHILIP formed for enlarging his dominions, was the fomenting an inſurrection in France, where the malecontents aſſumed to themſelves the title of the Holy league. PHILIP propoſed to have excluded the family of Bourbon, under pretence of their being heretically inclined, and to have annexed that fine kingdom to the crown of Spain; in which alſo he was countenanced by the Pope, and ſome other Catholick powers, as well as in his enterprize upon England: but HENRY IV broke all his meaſures by declaring himſelf a Catholick; and while the Duke of Parma left Flanders to march to the aſſiſtance of the League in France, the diſcontented Flemings had an opportunity of eſtabliſhing themſelves. HENRY IV, to retaliate the injuries he had received from the Spaniards during the civil wars, after he had reduced moſt part of the kingdom to his obedience, attacked the Spaniſh cities which PHILIP was poſſeſſed of in the Netherlands, particularly Cambray, which he took in the year 1594; but a peace was at length concluded between the two crowns at Vervins.

Wars with the Turks, &c.

PHILIP alſo, for great part of his reign, was engaged in wars with the Infidels. They had taken Tripoli, after it had been forty years in poſſeſſion of the Spaniards: to revenge which, PHILIP aſſembled a fleet and army, which were defeated by the Turks, with a very great ſlaughter of the Chriſtans, anno 1560. On the other hand, the Turks having laid ſiege to Malta, were compelled to raiſe it by the Spaniards, anno 1566. And in the year 1571, the united fleets of Spain, Venice, and other Italian powers, commanded by Don JOHN of Auſtria, obtained that memorable victory over the Turks near Lepanto, which quite broke their naval ſtrength. But the loſs of the iſland of Rhodes is at the ſame time aſcribed to the ſluggiſh indolence of the Spaniards, who neglected to reinforce their troops in that iſland.

Victory of Lepanto.

King PHILIP in the year 1573, having reſolved to attempt the retaking of Tunis, Don JOHN of Auſtria, his natural brother, was pitched upon to command in that expedition; and had ſo good ſucceſs, that he took the town, and ordered ſeveral works to be added to the fortifications, in order to maintain that conqueſt; but the year following, the Moors laying ſiege to it before the works were perfected, made themſelves maſters of it, together with Galetta, and the whole kingdom of Tunis, to the irreparable loſs of the Spaniards. About the ſame time there happened an inſurrection by the Moors of Grenada, occaſioned by the cruelties of the Inquiſition. Theſe people being continually reinforced by the Infidels from Africk, were not ſuppreſſed under three years time, and that with a great deal of difficulty, by Don JOHN of Auſtria. The Arragonians alſo had recourſe to arms in defence of their privileges, which were invaded in the perſon of ANTONIO PEREZ, one of the King's Miniſters, who being a native of Arragon, and proſecuted illegally in Caſtile, fled to his native country for protection.

And as nothing can tend to illuſtrate the Spaniſh hiſtory during the reign of PHILIP II, more than the account Dr. GEDDES has publiſhed of thoſe two great men, Don JOHN of Auſtria, and ANTONIO PEREZ, I ſhall give an abſtract of it before I proceed further.

Don John of Auſtria, an abſtract of his hiſtory.

Don JOHN of Auſtria was the natural ſon of the Emperor CHARLES V. He was happy in a beautiful perſon, and an elevated genius, improved by a good education. He endeavoured by heroick atchievements, ſays my author, to wipe off the ſtain of his illegitimate birth, and had the happineſs to inſinuate himſelf into the affections of his brother King PHILIP, after their father's death. When the Moors of Grenada had baffled ſeveral of the King's Generals, his Majeſty pitched upon his brother Don JOHN, who was then but two and twenty years of age, to put an end to that war; and he was ſo fortunate to reduce them in a very little time. This ſucceſs induced the King to make him Generaliſſimo of the confederate fleet againſt the Turks in the year 1571, when he gained that deciſive victory at Lepanto, that rendered his name famous throughout Chriſtendom, and began to inſpire him with ambitious views; inſomuch that, when he afterwards made a conqueſt of Tunis, he did not ſcruple to diſcover his paſſion to be Sovereign of that kingdom; and notwithſtanding he received poſitive orders from court to demoliſh that city, and withdraw his forces, he proceeded to augment the fortifications; at the ſame time diſpatching an envoy to the Pope, to influence his brother ſo far as to make him King of Tunis. The Pope complied with Don JOHN, and uſed all his intereſt with the court of Spain to get him declared King of Tunis; but King PHILIP, who did not like this aſpiring temper in his brother Don JOHN, let his Holineſs know that the thing was not feazible: whereupon the project was laid aſide. The King ſuſpecting SOTO his brother's Secretary had cheriſhed, if not infuſed theſe ambitious thoughts into him, preſer'd SOTO to another poſt, under colour of advancing him; and JOHN DE ESCOVEDO, a perſon that

King PHILIP thought he could rely upon, was made Secretary to Don John in his room. But ESCOVEDO ſoon became more obſequious to his new maſter than SOTO had been, and promoted thoſe very projects, which he was placed about that ambitious young Prince to oppoſe; particularly he put him upon applying to the Pope to prevail with his brother King PHILIP to invade England, of which kingdom he had procured a promiſe from his Holineſs to make him King, when it ſhould be conquered: and this project ESCOVEDO came from Flanders to promote, in conjunction with the Pope's Nuntio there, which gave King PHILIP abundance of perplexity; but at length, under pretence that his affairs in the Netherlands were at that time in ſuch confuſion, that a deſcent upon England was impracticable, he perſuaded his brother and the Nuntio to lay aſide the thoughts of that enterprize.

Soon after this the Court of Spain diſcovered that Don John, who was at that time Governor of Flanders, had, in the name of his Catholick Majeſty, entered into an alliance with the Duke of Guiſe, the head of the Holy League in France, for the extirpation of hereſy in both kingdoms; which was ſo bold a ſtep to undertake without acquainting his Sovereign with it, that King PHILIP apprehended ESCOVEDO would in time put his young hero upon aſſuming an authority equal, if not ſuperior, to that of his own, unleſs he found ſome means to remove him from Don John's Councils. Accordingly he laid his commands upon ANTONIO PEREZ his Secretary to procure ESCOVEDO to be aſſaſſinated, as he was ſoon after in the ſtreets of Madrid by ſome bravo's or cut-throats, whom PEREZ employed. Nor did Don JOHN his maſter ſurvive him many months, ſuppoſed alſo to be poiſoned by the directions of the Court; though others relate, that the diſappointment of his ambitious projects brought on the diſtemper which carried him off the ſtage. And notwithſtanding all the artifices uſed by ANTONIO PEREZ, to avoid his being ſuſpected of the murder of ESCOVEDO, as his going to his country-houſe at the time the fact was committed, and the like; yet it was no ſooner done, but every body believed the Secretary PEREZ to have been the author of it, not upon a political account indeed, but for his having thwarted him in his amours with the Princeſs of Eboli.

The Arragonians loſe their privileges by protecting Antonio Perez.

Inſurrection in Arragon.

The King notwithſtanding he had commanded ANTONIO PEREZ to procure ESCOVEDO to be taken off, in the manner above related, as an offender whom he durſt not proſecute in the Courts of law, and had promiſed him his protection, yet to remove the odium of that action from himſelf, he ſuffered ANTONIO to be proſecuted and condemned for it, believing that it would be in vain for the Miniſter to charge his Sovereign with having authorized the fact, becauſe he had ſeized his papers, and there was no living witneſs of his having given thoſe commands. But ANTONIO PEREZ having ſecured ſome papers in a friend's hands, that plainly ſhewed he received his authority from his Majeſty, found means to eſcape into Arragon, of which province he was a native, and referred his caſe to the ſovereign Court of that kingdom; from which, if he was acquitted, there lay no appeal but to the Cortes, or Aſſembly of the States of Arragon. The King having ſounded the Arragoneſe Judges, and finding they were inclined to acquit the priſoner, ordered him to be taken out of their hands, and committed to the priſon of the Inquiſition for hereſy and witchcraft, which he had charged him with. This the Arragonians looked upon as ſuch a flagrant breach of their privileges, that they had recourſe to arms, took ANTONIO PEREZ by force out of the priſon of the Inquiſition, and ſtood upon their defence. The King hereupon declared them rebels; and having aſſembled an army of veteran troops, ſent them under the command of Don ALONSO DE VARGAS to invade the kingdom of Arragon; but the malecontents diſperſing, and ſubmiting themſelves upon the approach of the King's army, there happened no action; the gates of the capital city were ſet open to the General, the Chief Juſtice and ſome of thoſe who had been the forwardeſt to aſſert their liberties were hanged up, or otherwiſe executed, and Arragon from that time looked upon as a conquered province: the Cortes indeed here, and in Caſtile, continued to be aſſembled as anciently, to give a ſanction to the King's edicts; but there are not many inſtances where they have had the courage to oppoſe the Court ſince, in any thing that has been demanded of them. It is only to amuſe the people with a ſhadow of their ancient conſtitution, and to take off the odium from the Court, when their concurrence is required to any oppreſſive edicts. As for ANTONIO PEREZ, he had eſcaped into France from Arragon two or three days before the King's forces arrived there, and afterwards viſited England and ſome other foreign Courts; but I do not find the enemies of Spain gave him any great encouragement, or that he made any mighty diſcoveries of the intrigues of the Spaniſh Court, though he and his father had been above forty years Secretaries of State in that kingdom, and had a great ſhare in the adminiſtration there. And indeed a man that by his own confeſſion turns aſſaſſin, to ſupport the arbitrary views of a wicked Prince, ought deſervedly to be deteſted by all mankind, to be proſecuted at home with all the fury this man was, and to be treated with ſuſpicion and coldneſs in foreign Courts: he ſeems richly to have deſerved the uſage he complains of. But I refer the reader to Dr. GEDDES for a fuller account of this myſtery of iniquity; and indeed the Doctor has laid open ſuch a ſcene of ſtate-craft in the relation he has given us of this occurrence, that I cannot but recommend it to the peruſal of my countrymen.

K. Philip puts his ſon to death.

To return to the hiſtory of Spain: We find King PHILIP cauſed his ſon Prince CHARLES to be poiſoned in priſon in the year 1568. What his crime was, does not appear; but it is generally ſaid, he was engaged in a conſpiracy againſt the life of his Sovereign and Father: though others ſay, that this unfortunate Prince having made love to his mother-in-law while ſhe was ſingle, they carried on the amour after ſhe was married to his father; which provoked him to this ſeverity; and the Queen herſelf died ſoon after, not without the ſuſpicion of being poiſoned.

King of Portugal defeated and killed in Africa.

The King marrying a fourth wife had four ſons by her, of whom PHILIP, who alone ſurvived, and afterwards ſucceeded him, was born in the year 1578. The ſame year SEBASTIAN, King of Portugal, aſſembling a great fleet and army, made a deſcent on the coaſt of Africa, and was defeated in a general battle by the Infidels, in which he loſt his life; and leaving no iſſue, his uncle Cardinal HENRY was proclaimed King; and he dying in the year 1580, without children, King Philip ſeizes Portugal, and becomes ſole Monarch of Spain.

Philip King of Spain ſeized on the kingdom of Portugal, which he claimed in right of his mother Elizabeth the Empreſs; and though there were many other pretenders to that crown, Philip being the moſt powerful, eſtabliſhed himſelf in that kingdom; whereby all the provinces of Spain were now united under one head, and King Philip became maſter of the treaſures both of the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies.

Cadiz plundered.

King Philip dies.

King Philip having fitted out the Spaniſh armada, with an intent to have made a conqueſt of England, as has been mentioned already, Elizabeth, Queen of England, in return of that hoſtile attempt, eſpouſed the intereſt of Don Antonio, called the Baſtard of Portugal, whom the Portugueſe had declared their King, and ſent a conſiderable fleet to Liſbon, in order to advance him to that throne; but the Spaniſh forces being too numerous in the city, that fleet returned to England without effecting any thing. Queen Elizabeth had better ſucceſs in the year 1596, when her fleet plundered Cadiz of a prodigious treaſure, and burnt the galeons, which lay there bound for Mexico, as has been related already. King Philip died on the thirteenth of September 1598, after a reign of great action, having been engaged in almoſt perpetual wars, either in Italy, the Low-Countries, or againſt the Infidels, in which he exhauſted an immenſe treaſure; as he did alſo in his magnificent buildings, of which the palace of the Eſcurial was the chief. He was ſucceſsful in his expedition againſt Portugal, but the loſs of the ſeven United Provinces was a great blow to the Spaniſh monarchy; not ſo much for the value of thoſe territories, as the laying the foundation of a State, which became a moſt implacable enemy to Spain, and roſe to that greatneſs we ſee them at this day, chiefly by the ſpoils they acquired from the Spaniards and Portugueſe.

Philip III. 1598.

A truce between Spain and the Low Countries.

Philip III ſucceeded his father, and the year following was married to the Princeſs Margaret, daughter of Charles Archduke of Auſtria. In this reign Final was ſurprized by the Spaniards, anno 1602; and a truce for twelve years was concluded between Spain and the United Provinces, anno 1609, by which the Dutch were left at liberty to trade to the Eaſt-Indies. But the moſt remarkable event that happened during the reign of Philip III, was the expulſion of the Moriſcoes out of Spain.

The expulſion of the Moors from Spain, 1609 and 1610.

The learned writer above-cited aſcribes the baniſhing of this people entirely to the bigotry and zeal of the Spaniſh Clergy, who threatned the King with the heavieſt judgments, if he did not conſent to it. The Barons, whoſe vaſſals they were, and whoſe lands were cultivated by the Moriſcoes, made the moſt pathetick repreſentations to the throne to prevent its being put in execution; aſſuring his Majeſty, that the kingdom would be abſolutely ruined, if the Moriſcoes, who were the only huſbandmen and mechanicks in the country, were ſent away. In anſwer to which, they received the following letter from his Majeſty.

Venerable and Beloved,

The reaſons given by the Court for the expulſion of the Moors.

'YOU cannot but be ſenſible of the great endeavours that have been uſed through a long ſeries of years to convert the New Chriſtians of this kingdom, and of an edict of grace having been granted to them, and of all the other means which have been made uſe of to inſtruct them in our holy faith; as alſo of the ill ſucceſs of all thoſe endeavours, not ſo much as one of them (as is believed) having been converted thereby. On the contrary, their obſtinacy has gone on increaſing daily, with an inclination to plot the diſturbance of the peace of theſe our Kingdoms.

'Now the danger and irreparable damage, which may attend our ſuffering theſe people to remain any longer among us, having been laid before me ſome years ago, by ſeveral learned and holy men, and who exhorted me to a ſpeedy remedy, and which, they told me, I was bound in conſcience to make uſe of; aſſuring me farther, that I might, without any ſcruple of conſcience, puniſh them all with death, and the loſs of their eſtates, for the crimes whereof they were guilty, all of them being guilty of hereſy and apoſtacy, and of divine and human treaſon: nevertheleſs, notwithſtanding we might have proceeded againſt them with the rigour that their crimes do deſerve, we continuing deſirous, if it had been poſſible, to have reduced them by mild and gentle methods, did, as you know very well, order a Junta to be held at Valencia, to conſult together, to ſee whether any new ways might be found out to convert them, that ſo we might not be obliged to baniſh them out of Spain. But while we were thus labouring their converſion, we received advice by ſeveral ways of their having ſent deputies to Conſtantinople and Morocco, to invite the Turk and Muley Selem to come to their aſſiſtance, with an aſſurance of fifty thouſand men being ready to join them when they landed in Spain, who were all as true Mahometans as any in Barbary, and would all ſacrifice their lives and eſtates in their ſervice: and to encourage them to enterprize it, they told them it would be an eaſy conqueſt, Spain having but few men in it that were fit to bear arms, and yet fewer that knew any thing of martial diſcipline. They have been guilty alſo of holding a correſpondence with heretical and other Princes, who are enemies to the greatneſs of our monarchy, having offered to aſſiſt both the one and the other with their forces. Furthermore, we are certainly informed of the Turk's having concluded a peace with the Perſian, and with ſome of his rebellious ſubjects, that ſo he may be at liberty to ſend his fleet into our ſeas; and that Muley Selem alſo has quitted his kingdom, and is treating with the northern hereticks about ſhips to tranſport an army of Moors into Spain, which thoſe hereticks have promiſed to ſupply him with. Now in how great danger Spain would be if it ſhould be invaded by theſe and ſome other enemies, I leave you to judge.

'Now conſidering all that has been ſaid, and being deſirous to comply with the obligations we are under to procure the conſervation and ſecurity of our kingdoms, and of this in particular, and of all our good and faithful ſubjects therein, who are of all our other ſubjects in the greateſt danger; and that the hereſy and apoſtacy wherewith our Lord is ſo much offended may be extirpated, after having recommended this affair, and cauſed it to be recommended to God, truſting in his divine favour, in a work wherein his glory is ſo deeply concerned, we have reſolved to baniſh all the Moriſcoes out of this our kingdom, and that of Caſtile, in ſuch a manner as ‘you will be advertiſed of; and with which, as good and faithful ſubjects, I have ordered you to be acquainted, on purpoſe to make you ſenſible that it is the ſecurity of your perſons and affairs, and to prevent the dangers which do threaten you and them, and the great love I have for you, that move me to take this reſolution, the execution whereof cannot be delayed any longer, without running the hazard of ſeeing Spain ſpeedily invaded by ſo many enemies, and particularly the forementioned Infidels.

‘We do therefore earneſtly charge you, to whoſe ſecurity and repoſe the effectual and ſpeedy execution of this our purpoſe will redound ſo much, to be aſſiſtant to it, as you ſhall be directed by the Marquis DE CARAZENA, our Lieutenant and Captain-General of this kingdom. And this I expect from the zeal you have for God's ſervice and mine, and your own preſervation; and herein you will comply with the obligations of faithful and good Chriſtians and ſubjects, and will perform the moſt acceptable ſervice you can do us.

‘As to every thing relating to the execution of this our purpoſe, we do remit you to our Viceroy, who ſhall in my name direct you, and whoſe directions you ſhall execute.

From St. Laurence, the 11th
of September, 1609.

This letter was on the twenty-ſecond of the ſame month delivered by the Viceroy to the Barons, who having the ſame thoughts of the treaſons mentioned in it, as they had ſome years before, when they called them ſpeculations and chimæra's, were not at all ſatisfied with it, though the great fleet and army, that were at that time in their ports, obliged them to ſubmit to what it ordered.

And on the ſame day the band for expelling all the Moriſcoes of the kingdom was publiſhed by ſound of trumpet, in all the publick places in the city of Valencia, and in a ſhort time after in all the cities and towns of that kingdom.

The reaſons the Doctor aſſigns for the Moriſcoes continuing Mahometans, notwithſtanding all the cruelties the Inquiſition had exerciſed upon them for ſo many years, are theſe; 1. Their living in ſuch numbers together, not only whole villages, but ſome whole towns and countries having no other inhabitants; whereby they confirmed and encouraged one another in their infidelity, and were not ſo eaſily diſcovered by the Inquiſition, as where they were intermingled with Chriſtians. 2. Their underſtanding no language but the Arabick, eſpecially their women and children, which the Miſſioners ſent amongſt them were ſeldom maſters of. 3. Their living ſo near the Moors of Barbary, with whom they held a correſpondence, and might entertain hopes of regaining the ſovereignty of Spain by their aſſiſtance. 4. The pride and ſollicitude of the Spaniards to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the Moriſcoes, by calling themſelves Old Chriſtians, and the Moriſcoes New Chriſtians; and by excluding the Moriſcoes from offices and employments in Church and State, by which they preſerved the memory of their being deſcended from the Moors, which was the principal root of their perſiſting ſo obſtinately in Mahometiſm. And laſtly, The Spaniards worſhipping images, for which the Mahometans have an inſuperable averſion. There are others who aſcribe their prejudices to Chriſtianity to the cruelties exerciſed on them by the Inquiſitors; it being impoſſible for people to entertain a favourable opinion of religion, which transformed its diſciples into ſuch barbarous monſters.

The band or edict for the expulſion of the Moors from Valencia.

The ſubſtance of the band or edict for their baniſhment was as follows:

1. That all the Moriſcoes, men, women, and children, ſhould, within three days after the publication of it, begin their march towards the ports aſſigned them to embark for Barbary, where they ſhould meet with veſſels furniſhed with proviſions to tranſport them. That they might take with them ſo much of their movable goods as they were able to carry, and lay in proviſions for their voyage, beſides what were laid in by the government: and whoever did not comply with this edict, was to be put to death.

2. That any perſon might apprehend ſuch Moriſcoes as abſented themſelves; and if they reſiſted, they might be killed.

3. That if any of them ſhould burn or deſtroy their houſes, plantations, corn, or effects, they ſhould ſuffer death; which the people of the place where it was done were impowered to execute.

5. That the ſugar-works, plantations of rice, aqueducts, &c. might be preſerved, ſix families in a hundred (to be nominated by the Barons) with their wives and children, were permitted to remain behind.

7. None ſhall conceal any of the Moriſcoes, on pain of the galleys.

9. Such children as are under four years old are permitted to ſtay behind.

10. Children of ſix years old, where one of the parents is an Old Chriſtian, may ſtay with ſuch parent.

11. Thoſe were alſo permitted to remain in Spain, who had lived amongſt the Old Chriſtians a conſiderable time, and had not been at the Moriſco meetings for two years paſt, and thoſe who could produce a certificate from the pariſh prieſt of their receiving the ſacrament.

13. They were permitted to retire to any country out of the Spaniſh dominions provided they departed from their habitations at the time appointed.

Dated at Valencia, 22 Sept. 1609.

Moſt of the Moriſcoes of Valencia were exported to Barbary according to this edict; but ſome of them retired to the mountains, and ſtood upon their defence: whereupon a body of regular troops were ſent againſt them, and having defeated them with a very great ſlaughter, the reſt were exported to Africa.

The Moors of Grenada, Murcia, Arragon, Seville, and Caſtile baniſhed.

By another band or edict dated the ninth of December, 1609, the Moriſcoes of Grenada, Murcia, and Seville, were in like manner baniſhed, as thoſe of Arragon and Catalonia were by other edicts dated the twenty-ninth of May, 1610; and thoſe that were diſperſed in the two Caſtiles, Eſtremadura, and La Mancha, were expelled by another, dated the tenth of July, 1610.

Their numbers.

The Spaniards are not agreed as to the numbers of thoſe that were tranſported at theſe ſeveral embarkations; ſome make them to be a million of ſouls, thoſe who ſpeak moſt moderately, compute them at ſix hundred thouſand, who were ſet on ſhore on the coaſt of Africa in a ſtarving condition. The King indeed gave all of them leave to ſell their goods and cattle (except thoſe of Valencia) and to carry the value of ſuch effects away with them, provided it conſiſted in the produce and manufactures of Spain: but they were to take no gold, ſilver, or bills of exchange, with them, except travelling charges; ſo that this, which was at firſt looked upon as a great favour, became of very little benefit to them; the Moriſcoes, who were obliged to diſpoſe of their goods within a limited time, being obliged to ſell them to the Chriſtians for a trifle, while the Spaniards, on the other hand, held the merchandize and effects the Moors carried with them at an exceſſive price.

My author obſerves, that notwithſtanding this expulſion of the Moors to a barren coaſt, with little or nothing for them to ſubſiſt on, was one of the greateſt pieces of barbarity that ever was committed; the kingdom of Spain, and the Chriſtians who were the contrivers of it, were almoſt equally ſufferers by this expulſion: for as the riches of a country is generally aſcribed to the multitudes of people it contains, the loſs of ſo many thouſands at once, conſidering them only as common men, muſt have had a great influence upon Spain: but where the people expelled, as in this caſe, were the moſt induſtrious part of the nation, who alone applied themſelves to manufactures and huſbandry, the loſs muſt be inconceivably great. And in fact we find that the Spaniards have been ever ſince the moſt inconſiderable and beggarly people in Europe; and that for want of manufactures of their own, they loſe all the advantages that might be made of thoſe rich empires of Mexico and Peru, of which they are Sovereigns; the wealth whereof only paſſes thro' their hands to the merchants of other nations. And this muſt have been the conſequence of that barbarous act, though we ſhould not ſuppoſe the divine providence to have interpoſed, and thrown them into theſe miſerable circumſtances by way of puniſhment for their injuſtice and cruelty. Theſe are ſome of the genuine fruits of thoſe mercileſs courts of Inquiſition, which that bigotted people are taught to look upon as the great ſupport of the purity of the Chriſtian faith. It was but a very little time after, that the Court of Spain itſelf was made ſenſible how impolitick this proceeding had been; for in the ſame reign, anno 1618, the King having aſſembled an extraordinary Council to conſider of the ruinous ſtate of his dominions, and how it might be remedied, the Council, in the preamble to their repreſentation on that ſubject, ſet forth, That the depopulation, and want of hands in Spain, was greater than ever had been known in the times of his predeceſſors; ſo great, that if God did not provide a remedy, the crown of Spain was haſtening to it's final ruin and deſtruction. Nothing was more viſible than that Spain *eſta a quique de dar in terra*, is on the point of falling flat to the ground. It's houſes were in ruins every where, without any one to rebuild them, and it's towns and villages lay like deſarts.

The damage done the kingdom by this expulſion.

1609. To return to our hiſtory: The Valteline, a paſs between Italy and Germany, revolting from the Griſons, the Spaniards endeavoured to make themſelves maſters of it on one ſide, as the French did on the other; which occaſioned a war of many years continuance, ſometimes one power getting poſſeſſion of it, and ſometimes the other, till at length the country was reſtored to it's former ſtate.

In Germany the Spaniards taking part with the Catholick Princes againſt the Proteſtants, contributed to the defeating the Elector Palatine, and wreſting the crown of Bohemia from him.

1620. Philip III dies. PHILIP III died on the fifteenth of March, 1620-1, whom the Spaniards admire for his piety and virtue; while others relate that the horrors and remorſe he underwent in his dying moments, on account of the cruelties he had exerciſed on the Moriſcoes, were inexpreſſible.

Philip IV. 1621. PHILIP IV ſucceeded his father at ſixteen years of age. It is obſerved, that every Miniſter of State in this reign, at the entrance on his office, was obliged to give in a particular of his eſtate. One reaſon whereof might be, that none ſhould be admitted, whoſe circumſtances might tempt them to rob the publick; and the other, that it might be known what addition they had made to their fortunes during their adminiſtration.

The war with the Dutch revived. The truce with Holland expiring, the war with the Dutch was renewed, wherein the Spaniards were great ſufferers by ſea and land, notwithſtanding the Netherlanders were now no longer ſupported by the Engliſh, who began to look upon them as their rivals in trade.

1623. About the ſame time CHARLES Prince of Wales and the Duke of Buckingham arrived in Spain, in order to conclude a treaty of marriage between that Prince and the Infanta the Princeſs MARY: but the Spaniſh hiſtorians relate, that the match went off on the Court of England's inſiſting, that the Elector Palatine's dominions in Germany ſhould be reſtored to him.

1624. The war continuing in the Low Countries, the Marquis SPINOLA, General of the Spaniards there, took Breda from the Dutch, after a brave defence.

1628. In the year 1628, PETER HEYN, Commander of a Dutch ſquadron, ſurprized the Spaniſh plate fleet, wherein he took twelve millions of florins. The Dutch alſo made a deſcent in Brazil, and plundered the Portugueſe ſettlements there, carrying off a vaſt booty: and though they were afterwards driven out of Brazil, they made themſelves ample amends by the ſettlements they ſurprized and took in the Eaſt-Indies, which belonged to the Spaniards and Portugueſe. But the hiſtory of the Spaniſh wars with the Dutch, as well as the French, being contained in the former part of this volume, I ſhall not trouble the reader with the repetition of thoſe occurrences.

1639. The Catalans and Portugueſe revolt. The Catalonians having been oppreſſed by the Prime Miniſter OLIVAREZ, revolted from Spain, and put themſelves under the protection of France, in the year 1639, remaining ſubject to that crown for eleven or twelve year afterwards. The ſame tyrannical meaſures induced the Portugueſe to throw off the Spaniſh yoke, and advance the Duke of Braganza to the throne of Portugal, who was deſcended from their former Kings; and to add to their misfortunes, there happened a rebellion in Naples in 1647, whereby that kingdom had infallibly been wreſted out of their hands, if the French had been at leiſure to ſupport it. The kingdom of Naples for ſome time after the conqueſt of it, was governed with great moderation by the Spaniards; the taxes demanded of them were inconſiderable, and thoſe paid under the name of a donative or free gift of the States: but they had of late years been extravagantly increaſed, and in a manner forced from them by inſolent collectors and receivers. But none were

1640.

1647. Maſſaniello's inſurrection in Naples.

paid with more reluctance than thoſe impoſed on proviſions; inſomuch that when the collectors came into the markets to demand the duties laid upon fruit, herbs and fiſh, they frequently met with reſiſtance, and were ſome of them beaten and wounded; the officers calling the guards to their aſſiſtance, ſeveral of the common people were apprehended and ſeverely puniſhed. At length a bold young fiſherman, named THOMAS ANIELLO, (commonly called MASSANIELLO) having had his fiſh taken from him for refuſing the tax demanded, aſſembled the mob about him, and ſtanding on a table in the market place, ſo effectually repreſented the hardſhips and oppreſſions they lay under, that the multitude, one and all, cried out there was no bearing them, and that they would get the duties taken off, or die in the attempt; whereupon MASSANIELLO offered to be their leader, and firſt ſet fire to all the little offices where the collectors uſed to receive the exciſe: from thence he led the mob to the Viceroy, demanded that all the taxes ſhould be remitted, and the charters of their privileges granted in the reigns of King FERDINAND and CHARLES V, produced and confirmed. The Viceroy endeavoured to appeaſe the malecontents with fair words and throwing money amongſt them, but all in vain; they were increaſed in a day or two to near an hundred thouſand men, armed with ſuch weapons as they could get, when their General took upon him to ſettle the price of proviſions: after which he burnt or demoliſhed the houſes of the farmers of the revenue, plundered the palaces of the nobility, and brought out their richeſt plate and moveables, which he ſet on fire; commanding his followers not to apply any of it to their own uſe on pain of death, which he did not fail to inflict on ſuch as tranſgreſſed his orders. No Sovereign was ever more punctually obeyed than this muſhroom of a Prince, whoſe authority was ſcarce of four days ſtanding. The Viceroy finding it in vain to reſiſt the torrent with the ſmall force he had, ſhut himſelf up in one of the caſtles, and privately hired a body of banditti or cut-throats to murder MASSANIELLO, which being diſcovered, the banditti were cut in pieces, and the Viceroy's brother, who was concerned in the contrivance, dragged through the ſtreets till he was dead; after which a butcher cut off his head, and expoſed it on a pole, which put the nobility into the utmoſt conſternation. The Archbiſhop however had the courage to propoſe a treaty between the Viceroy and MASSANIELLO; and the Viceroy conſenting to remit the taxes, and produce the charters of their liberties, and to iſſue a general pardon for all that was paſt, MASSANIELLO agreed that all acts of hoſtility ſhould ceaſe, but would not lay down his arms however, till the treaty was ratified by the King of Spain. Things being thus pacified, the Viceroy, it is ſuppoſed, found means to get the uſurper poiſoned, for he immediately became delirious, giving out abſurd and contradictory orders; whereupon the mob abandoned him, and he was killed by ſome of the nobility: thus his reign ended within ten days after the inſurrection begun. Some ſay his head was only turned with his ſudden advancement, and the variety of buſineſs it brought upon him, for the diſpatch whereof he did not give himſelf time to eat or ſleep. All agree he was a wonder of a man, and managed a mob to admiration, conſidering the meanneſs of his birth and education. Notwithſtanding the people had loſt their leader, they ſtill continued in arms, and the nobility raiſing their vaſſals to oppoſe them, the nation was divided, and a kind of civil war enſued. The mob, to ſtrengthen their party, invited in the French; but they were not in a condition to afford them any great aſſiſtance, only the Duke of Guiſe was ſent to be their General. The people finding themſelves diſappointed of the reinforcements they expected from France, upon a general pardon being offered them returned to their duty, and abandoning the Duke of Guiſe, he was made priſoner by the Spaniards.

1648. Peace of Munſter.

The next conſiderable tranſaction in this reign, was the peace concluded at Munſter with the United Provinces, whereby King PHILIP acknowledged the ſovereignty and independency of the States-General, and conſented that they ſhould enjoy the places and countries they were poſſeſſed of; particularly Boiſleduc, Bergenopzoom, Maeſtricht, Breda, the Grave, Hulſt, and all ſuch places as they then held in Brabant or Flanders: That the States alſo ſhould retain all they poſſeſſed in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, Aſia, Africa and America. On the other hand, it was agreed that the Spaniards might continue their trade and navigation to the Eaſt-Indies in the ſame manner they then did, but not extend themſelves on that ſide. That each party, both in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, ſhould abſtain from the trade and navigation of ſuch places as belonged to the other. That the river Scheld, and the channels of the Sas and Scoyn, and other entrances into the ſea thereabouts, ſhould remain in the poſſeſſion of the States, who might lay what duties they pleaſed on veſſels paſſing that way, and on all goods paſſing through their country by the Rhine or Maeſe.

The Spaniards were induced to make theſe conceſſions to the Dutch by the perpetual loſſes they ſuſtained from that people by ſea and land, and their deſpair of ever reducing them under their dominion again, and that they might have their hands at liberty to proſecute the war againſt France and Portugal. The Dutch were alſo pleaſed to have their ſovereignty and independency acknowledged by the Spaniards, and the places and countries they had acquired during the war, with the Eaſt-India trade, confirmed to them: they began to be appprehenſive alſo of the growing power of France, which would have received a conſiderable addition by the conqueſt of the Spaniſh Netherlands, and brought a much more dangerous enemy upon their frontiers than the Spaniards were.

Spain ſtill continued the war againſt France and Portugal, but was unſucceſsful in both, except that from Catalonia the French were expelled, and that province was reduced under the obedience of Spain again in the years 1651 and 1652; not ſo much by the force of arms, as the aſſurances the Court of Spain gave that people of reſtoring their ancient rights and privileges, and granting them an indemnity for what was paſſed.

1652. Catalonia ſubmits to the King of Spain.

In the year 1654, that exquiſite building called the Pantheon, in the Eſcurial, was finiſhed by PHILIP IV, which had been begun by PHILIP II, whereupon the bodies of CHARLES V, and all the Princes of the Auſtrian family, were removed thither, and their deſcendants have been interred there ever ſince.

1654. The Pantheon finiſhed.

In the year 1655, CROMWELL the Protector of the Commonwealth of England, as he called himſelf, without making any declaration of war, invaded the Spaniſh iſlands in the Weſt-Indies, particularly Hiſpaniola, in which attempt he did not

Jamaica ſubdued by the Engliſh.
1658.

not ſucceed; but the fleet ſailing afterwards to Jamaica, the Engliſh ſubdued that iſland: and in 1657, Admiral BLAKE deſtroyed the Spaniſh galleons at the Canaries, notwithſtanding they lay under the protection of the forts on ſhore. The Protector the year following having entered into a confederacy with the French, they took Dunkirk from the Spaniards, which, in purſuance of articles, was put into the hands of the Engliſh.

Pyrenean treaty.
1660.

Thus the Spaniards having the worſt of it on every ſide, began to think ſeriouſly of peace, and as the French had been exhauſted by almoſt continual wars, they were not averſe to it; whereupon a treaty was ſet on foot between the two crowns in the Iſland of Pheaſants, which lies in the river Bidaſſoa, and divides France from Spain. It was negotiated by the Prime Miniſter of each kingdom in perſon, viz. Cardinal MAZARIN on the ſide of France, and Don LEWIS DE HARO on the part of Spain, and was called the Pyrenean treaty, from the neighbourhood of the place to the Pyrenean mountains. The peace was concluded on the ſeventh of November 1659 being about a month after the conferences were opened; the principal articles whereof were, that the French King ſhould marry the Infanta of Spain, that he ſhould not aſſiſt the Portugueſe, and that he ſhould relinquiſh his pretenſions to Franche Comte and Catalonia: on the other hand, Rouſſillon, and ſeveral towns the French had taken in the Netherlands, were yielded to that crown. The year following, on the ſixth of June, the Kings of France and Spain had an interview in the Iſle of Pheaſants; and on the ſeventh, the King of Spain delivered the Infanta, MARIA-THERESA of Auſtria to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty LEWIS XIV, the marriage being ſolemnized at the city of St. John de Luz on the ninth of the ſame month. Both the French King and the Infanta, on this occaſion, renounced all right that they themſelves, their heirs and ſucceſſors, had or might claim to the dominions of Spain.

Philip IV dies.

Spain being at peace with moſt of the powers of Europe, invaded Portugal, and at firſt met with ſome ſucceſs; but notwithſtanding PHILIP had now no other enemy to contend with, he was not able to reduce that petty kingdom under his dominion, ſo very low were the Spaniards ſunk at this time; nor do I meet with any other tranſactions in the remainder of this reign, that deſerve to be commemorated. PHILIP IV died on the ſeventh of September 1665, leaving his ſon CHARLES, an infant of four years of age, to ſucceed him.

1665. Charles II's acceſſion.
The French King's ſucceſs in Flanders.
1668. Peace of Aix la Chapelle.

CHARLES II being an infant, and under the tuition of his mother, the French King took advantage of his minority, and of the declining ſtate of that kingdom. He invaded the Spainſh Low-Countries, notwithſtanding he had with his Queen renounced all pretenſions to them, and made himſelf maſter of Tournay, Liſle, Douay, Oudenard, and Charleroy, threatning an entire conqueſt of that country; which ſo alarmed the Engliſh and Dutch, who were then at war, that they concluded a peace, and entered into a confederacy with Sweden, called the Triple League, for the preſervation of the Spaniſh Low-Countries; which induced the French to make peace with Spain, anno 1668, a treaty having been ſet on foot at Aix la Chapelle for that end. By this peace the French reſtored Franche Comte to the Spaniard, but retained all the towns they had taken in the Netherlands.

While the Spaniards were thus diſtreſſed by France, they found themſelves under a neceſſity of concluding a peace with Portugal, and renounced all their pretenſions of ſovereignty to that kingdom.

1672.
1678. Peace of Nimeguen

I meet with little remarkable in the hiſtory of Spain afterwards, till the year 1672, when the French invading the United Provinces, the Spaniards entered into a confederacy with that Republick and the Emperor, to prevent the loſs of them, in which war the Spaniards were the greateſt ſufferers: for notwithſtanding the French poſſeſſed themſelves of three of the United Provinces, they were obliged to relinquiſh them all again within the ſpace of two or three years; whereas the Spaniards loſt their beſt towns in Flanders, together with Franche Comte, or the county of Burgundy: and by the peace of Nimeguen, which enſued anno 1678, were obliged to yield up and relinquiſh to the French all their right in the county of Burgundy, and the towns of Conde, Valenciennes, Cambray, Ypres. St. Omer, Bouchain, Aire, Warwick, Warneton, Poperingen, Bailleul, Caſſel, Bavay, and Maubeuge.

1683. War with France again.

The Spaniards remaining in that wretched defenceleſs condition already hinted at, LEWIS XIV, under pretence that their Commiſſioners did not do him juſtice in ſettling the limits of his late conqueſts in Flanders, and becauſe his Catholick Majeſty ſtill retained the title of Duke of Burgundy, notwithſtanding he had yielded that province to France, invaded the province of Luxemburg, making himſelf maſter of the greateſt part of it, and afterwards blocked up the capital city; whereupon the Spaniards, in hopes of being aſſiſted by the Germans and Dutch, declared war againſt France in the year 1683; but as their Allies made no great haſte to their aſſiſtance and they were themſelves unprovided of forces, and every thing elſe neceſſary to oppoſe ſo potent an enemy, the French took from them Courtray and Dixmude the firſt campaign, and Luxemburg the next, when the Dutch marching to their aſſiſtance, the Grand Monarch, in his haughty ſtile, was pleaſed to grant them a truce; which ſay the French writers, was entirely owing to his moderation, for nothing could have prevented his making himſelf maſter of the Spaniſh Netherlands, if he had not voluntarily withdrawn his troops.

Battle of Fleury. 1690.

The French again attacked the Spaniſh Netherlands in the year 1688, on the King of Spain's entering into a confederacy with the Imperialiſts and the Dutch, to advance the Prince of Orange to the throne of England: and while the Prince was engaged in that expedition, the French fell upon the confederate forces in the plains of Flerus or Fleury in the year 1690, and gained a compleat victory, taking ſix thouſand of the Dutch and Flemings priſoners, and all their cannon. But King WILLIAM having ſucceſsfully depoſed his father King JAMES, and procured himſelf to be recognized King of Great Britain, prevailed with the Britiſh Parliament to come into the alliance with Spain, and the other confederated powers againſt France; the principal articles whereof were, That none of the Allies ſhould make peace with LEWIS XIV, till he had reſtored all places to the Allies, which he had taken from them ſince the peace of Munſter, and recognized King WILLIAM's title to Great Britain.

The French, notwithſtanding this formidable confederacy againſt them, remained ſuperior in the field. They took the city of Mons in the year 1691, and Namur in the year 1692, and obtained a ſignal victory over the Allies at Steinkirk.

Battle of Steinkirk. 1692.
Of Landen. 1693.

The following year 1693, the French defeated the confederates in a general battle near Landen, and took Huy and Charleroy, as they did Palamos and Gironne in Catalonia, anno 1694.

Namur taken by the Allies. 1695.

The Allies being ſuperior to the French in Flanders in the year 1695, retook the city of Namur, but loſt fourteen or fifteen thouſand men before the place. The French in the mean time made themſelves maſters of Deynſe and Dixmude, and bombarded Bruſſels, making that capital a heap of ruins.

Peace of Ryſwick 1697.

A treaty was ſet on foot between the Allies and France in the year 1697 at Ryſwick near the Hague. The French however, in order to influence their negotiations, made their utmoſt efforts on all ſides this campaign. They laid ſiege to the city of Aeth in Flanders, and took it. They marched a powerful army into Catalonia, and obliged Barcelona, the capital city of Catalonia, to ſurrender to them. And in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, Pointi, the French Admiral, took Carthagena by ſtorm, plundering the town, from whence he brought home twelve millions of crowns, as is reported. But at length a peace was concluded on the tenth of September, N. S. 1697, by which the French were obliged to reſtore Barcelona, Gironne, Roſes, and the reſt of the towns they had taken in Catalonia, to the Spaniards, as well as Luxemburg, Mons, Charleroy, Courtray, and all other places they had taken during this war in the Low Countries. As to the terms made with the reſt of the Allies, I refer the reader to the hiſtory of the United Provinces, in the former part of this volume.

As Charles the Second, King of Spain, was now in an ill ſtate of health: and had no iſſue by either of his wives, it was generally expected that upon his death the war would be renewed: for the French gave out, that notwithſtanding Anne of Auſtria, and Lewis the Thirteenth, King of France, on their marriage had renounced all claim and pretenſions to the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, as Maria-Theresa of Auſtria, and Lewis the Fourteenth, had done alſo on their marriage; yet as the Princeſſes married into France were elder than their ſiſters married into Germany, and the laws of Spain limited the ſucceſſion to the eldeſt branch, no renunciations, how ſolemn ſoever, could extinguiſh their right. But the grand Monarch, however, foreſeeing that the other powers of Europe would never ſuffer the kingdoms of France and Spain to be united under one head, propoſed to William the Third, King of England, and the States-General, to make a partition of the Spaniſh monarchy, between his ſon the Dauphin, who was deſcended from the Infanta Maria-Thereſa, and the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, and the Archduke Charles of Auſtria, who were deſcended from other female branches; and accordingly a treaty was concluded on the nineteenth of Auguſt 1698, between France, Great Britain and the States-General, whereby it was agreed,

1698. Treaty of partition.

1. That the peace of Ryſwick ſhould be confirmed.

2. That in conſideration of the ill ſtate of the King of Spain's health, and for preſerving the publick peace in caſe the ſaid Prince ſhould die without iſſue, the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, with the places then depending upon the Spaniſh monarchy, ſituated on the coaſts of Tuſcany, or the adjacent iſlands, comprehended under the name of Santo Stephano, Porto Hercole, Orbitello, Telamone, Portolongo, Piombino, the marquiſate of Final, the province of Guipuſcoa, particularly the towns of Fontarabia and St. Sebaſtian, and eſpecially the Port Paſſage, and likewiſe all places on the French ſide of the Pyrenees, or the other mountains of Navarre, Alava or Biſcay, on the ſide of the province of Guipuſcoa, with all the ſhips and galleys, and other appurtenances belonging to the ſaid galleys, ſhould be given to the Dauphin in conſideration of his right.

3. That the crown of Spain, and the other kingdoms and places, both within and without Europe, ſhould deſcend to the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, of whom his father the Elector was to be guardian and adminiſtrator till he came of Age. And

4. That the dutchy of Milan ſhould be reſerv'd and allotted to Archduke Charles, the Emperor's ſecond ſon.

This treaty was to be communicated to the Emperor and the Elector of Bavaria by the King of Great Britain and the States-General; and if they did not agree to it, then the proportion of the party not agreeing ſhould remain in ſequeſtration till things could be brought to an accommodation.

Second treaty of partition. 1699.

The Electoral Prince of Bavaria happening to die on the eighth of February 1699, France, Britain, and the States entered into another treaty, dated the fifteenth of March following, and called the Second Partition treaty, whereby the kingdom of Spain, and the dominions allotted to the Electoral Prince of Bavaria by the former treaty, were limited to the Archduke; both which treaties were entered into without the conſent of the Emperor or Spain.

Charles II dies. 1700.
Philip Duke of Anjou declared King of Spain.

The King of Spain reſented the diſmembring his dominions ſo heinouſly, that he made his will, and diſpoſed of his crown to Philip Duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the Dauphin of France, and his heirs; and in default of iſſue of the Duke of Anjou, to the Duke of Berry, &c. remainder to the Archduke Charles, &c. And on the firſt of November, N. S. anno 1700, the King of Spain died after a lingring illneſs, in the thirty ninth year of his age, and the thirty-ſixth of his reign; whereupon the Court of France immediately declared Philip Duke of Anjou King of Spain, by virtue of the late King's will, and he was proclaimed King accordingly at Madrid on the twenty-fourth of the ſame month of November, againſt which the Emperor and Pope proteſted; which Lewis XIV having very little regard to, took poſſeſſion of all the Spaniſh territories, and amongſt the reſt, of Milan, Naples, and the Netherlands; into the laſt of which the Elector of Bavaria gave him admiſſion, being then Viceroy of the Low Countries. The Engliſh and Dutch indeed preſented their memorials, requiring the French King to withdraw his troops out of the Netherlands, and allow them a ſufficient barrier, but at the ſame time acknowledged the Duke of Anjou's title to the crown of Spain; and both King William and the States wrote letters to King Philip to congratulate his acceſſion, which were purely by way of amuſement; for they were at that very time entering into an alliance with the Emperor, and making preparations to diſpute his title.

1701.
The Imperialiſts march into Italy.

In the mean time Prince Eugene, the Imperial General, marched into Italy at the head of thirty thouſand men, to diſlodge the French from ſuch part of the Spaniſh territories as the French had poſſeſſed themſelves of on that ſide; on which occaſion the Emperor publiſhed a manifeſto, wherein he endeavours to ſhew, that the French King and his poſterity were excluded from ſucceeding to the crown of Spain, by thoſe memorable renunciations of the Princeſſes ANNE and MARIA-THERESA, the firſt the daughter of PHILIP III, married to LEWIS XIII, and the other the daughter of PHILIP IV, married to LEWIS XIV; and that the pretended will of CHARLES II had been obtained by unfair practices, when he was not in his ſenſes; and if he was, that the King of Spain had no power to diſpoſe of his territories by the laws of that kingdom. That the preſent Emperor was lineally deſcended from the Emperor CHARLES V, and was the ſon of FERDINAND and the Infanta MARIA, who was next in blood to the crown of Spain, after the Princeſſes who had renounced their claim, and by conſequence had an indiſputable title to the whole Spaniſh monarchy.

Their manifeſto.

But I find the Confederates by the treaty of alliance engaged no farther in his quarrel, than that they would endeavour to conquer the Spaniſh Netherlands for a barrier to the States-General, and the dutchy of Milan, the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, and the Spaniſh towns on the coaſt of Tuſcany for the Emperor; there was not at that time any thoughts of wreſting the whole Spaniſh monarchy from the Duke of Anjou.

And the King of England, WILLIAM the Third, is cenſured for engaging thus far after he had acknowledged King PHILIP's right to the Spaniſh monarchy, and congratulated him on his acceſſion. To which it is anſwered, that King WILLIAM was provoked to take this ſtep by the French King's proclaiming the Pretender to his throne (JAMES the Third) on the death of King JAMES the Second, which happened about the ſame time. But whether King WILLIAM was not treating with the Emperor before the French King proclaimed the Chevalier, I find is made a queſtion.

To return to the Imperial army in Italy: They marched through the Venetian territories and penetrated into the dutchy of Mantua the firſt campaign, notwithſtanding they were oppoſed by a very numerous army of French and Spaniards; and the winter following poſſeſſed themſelves of all the towns in the Mantuan except the capital.

King WILLIAM dying on the eighth of March 1701-2, the Confederates were under apprehenſions that the Engliſh would not declare war againſt France and Spain; but Queen ANNE who ſucceeded him aſſuring them ſhe would make no alteration in the meaſures concerted, their hopes revived, and war was formally declared againſt France at London on the fourth of May 1702, in purſuance whereof a great body of forces were ſent to the Low Countries under the command of the Earl of Marlborough to join the Allies, who obliged the French to quit Guelderland the firſt campaign. A fleet of men of war and tranſports, with ten thouſand land-forces on board, under the command of the Duke of Ormond, were about the ſame time ſent to make a deſcent in Spain, and endeavour to reduce the city of Cadiz; in which expedition though they did not ſucceed, they deſtroyed the Spaniſh galeons, and a ſquadron of French men of war that guarded them on their return home, in the port of Vigo.

1702. England declares war againſt France and Spain.

Spaniſh galeons deſtroyed at Vigo

The Imperialiſts the ſame campaign took Landau from the French, and the Confederate army in the Low Countries made themſelves maſters of Venloe, Ruremond, Stevenſwaert and Liege.

The Duke of Bavaria declaring for France in the year 1703, joined the French army commanded by Marſhall VILLARS, and made himſelf maſter of the city of Ratiſbon, where the Diet of the Empire was aſſembled, and afterwards of the city of Augſburg. The French army under the command of Marſhall TALLARD alſo beſieged Old Briſac upon the Rhine, and took it. He afterwards made himſelf maſter of Landau, defeating the Prince of Heſſe, who was detached from the Confederate army in the Netherlands to the relief of it. The ſame Campaign General OPDAM was ſurprized by Marſhall BOUFFLERS near Eckeren in Flanders, and OPDAM being cut off from his army, the reſt of the Dutch Generals made their retreat with difficulty, there being a great ſlaughter on both ſides. On the other hand the Confederates, under the Earl of Marlborough, took Bonn, Huy and Limburg from the French.

The Emperor and the King of the Romans about this time made a reſignation of the kingdom of Spain and the dominions thereto belonging to the Emperor's ſecond ſon the Archduke CHARLES, who was thereupon acknowledged King of Spain by the Confederates, by the ſtile and title of CHARLES the Third. And the King of Portugal coming into the grand alliance, it was thought proper the new-made King ſhould reſide in Portugal, whither he was convoyed by a ſquadron of Engliſh men of war, after he had paid his compliments to the Queen of England at Windſor.

Archduke Charles declared King of Spain.

The ſame year the Duke of Savoy declaring for the Allies, Prince EUGENE detached part of the Imperial army to join him. Theſe forces were commanded by Count STAREMBERG, who after a long march of about two hundred miles in the face of the enemy, with infinite difficulty effected his deſign.

1704.

The Empire being in the utmoſt danger from the French and Bavarians on one ſide, and the Hungarian malecontents on the other, the Duke of Marlborough, with the flower of the Confederate army, was detached from the Netherlands to join the Imperialiſts on the Danube, and with their united forces they obtained that memorable victory over the French and Bavarians at Hochſtet on the thirteenth of Auguſt, N S. which preſerved the Empire from deſtruction. The cities of Augſburg and Ulm thereupon immediately ſurrendered to the Imperialiſts, and Landau was retaken the ſame campaign.

Hochſtet battle.

In the mean time an army of twelve thouſand Engliſh and Dutch forces having been ſent to Portugal under the command of Duke SCHOMBERG, the war with Spain commenced on that ſide. King CHARLES publiſhed his declaration, inviting the Spaniards to join with him againſt PHILIP the Uſurper, as he ſtiled him; and the King of Portugal declared war in form againſt France and PHILIP. But the Spaniards were ſuperior to the Confederates on the ſide of Portugal this campaign, and took ſeveral places from the Portugueſe. Duke SCHOMBERG complained to the Engliſh Court that he found neither horſes for mounting his cavalry, nor any warlike ſtores or proviſions which his Portugueſe Majeſty had agreed to furniſh. He obſerved alſo that their Generals inſiſted on taking place and having the command of the confederate troops, which occaſioned then ill ſucceſs, and therefore deſired to be recalled from thence. Whereupon the Earl of Galway, a French refugee, was ordered to command the Engliſh forces in Portugal.

The war on the ſide of Portugal.

The

Gibraltar taken.

Sea-fight near Malaga.

The Confederates receiving intelligence that the city of Barcelona was diſaffected to King Philip, the confederate fleet ſailed thither with ſome land-forces on board, and the Prince of Heſſe, with 2500 men, landed near that town; but no body appearing or making any attempt to join them, the troops were re-imbarked, and the fleet ſailed for Gibraltar, which place was taken by the Engliſh on the 24th of July. On the 24th of Auguſt the confederate fleet, under the command of Sir George Rook, engaged the French fleet, commanded by the Count de Toulouse near Malaga, and obliged them to retire; but wanting ammunition, the victory was not ſo compleat as might otherwiſe have been expected. The Admiral had ſpent a great deal of ammunition in the attack of Gibraltar, and left ſome there for its defence, which occaſioned this deficiency.

1705.

In Italy the Duke of Savoy loſt Verceil and Suſa this campaign, and the beginning of the next Nice and Villa Franca. A battle was fought near Caſſano in Italy on the 16th of Auguſt, in which abundance of men were killed on both ſides, and both ſung Te Deum for the victory.

The Emperor Leopold dies.

Barcelona taken.

Catalonia and Valencia declare for King Charles III.

The Emperor Leopold died on the fifth of May 1705, and was ſucceeded in the Empire by his ſon Joseph King of the Romans. About the ſame time the confederate fleet with a body of land-forces ſailed from England, and having taken King Charles on board at Liſbon, appeared before Barcelona on the twenty-ſecond of Auguſt; which city ſurrendered to his Majeſty on the fourth of October, the whole province of Catalonia following their example, except Roſes. And the winter following the Earl of Peterborough, who commanded the confederate forces in this expedition, reduced the whole province of Valencia, tho' it is credibly reported his army never exceeded ſix thouſand men, beſides the undiſciplined natives who declared for King Charles.

1706.

The French and Spaniards uniting their forces on the ſide of Catalonia, laid ſiege to Barcelona on the third of April 1706; King Charles defending that city in perſon, while the Earl of Peterborough commanded a flying army in Catalonia and Valencia, and haraſſed the beſiegers, tho' he was not in a condition to give them battle. The town of Barcelona held out till the eighth of May following, when the Earl of Peterborough with the confederate fleet came to it's relief. Whereupon King Philip precipitately raiſed the ſiege, without waiting to be attacked, and leaving all his cannon, ammunition, and wounded men behind him, retired into France by the way of Rouſſillon.

The Allies take poſſeſſion of Madrid.

The confederate Generals in Portugal receiving advice of King Philip's retreat, advanced into Spain, and made themſelves maſters of the capital of Madrid. Whereupon Toledo and ſeveral other places in Caſtile declared for King Charles, as did the kingdom of Arragon at the ſame time. King Charles thought fit to march firſt to Saragoſſa, the capital of Arragon, where he is reflected on for having trifled away too much time; for King Philip in the mean while re-entered Spain again with his army, and being ſuperior to the Portugueſe and Engliſh, obliged them to abandon Madrid, and to retire out of Caſtile into Valencia.

Battle of Ramillies.

Battle of Turin.

1707.

Battle of Almanza.

Toulon beſieged.

In the Low Countries the Allies obtained a ſignal victory over the French and Bavarians at Ramillies. Whereupon Bruſſels, Louvain, Mechlin, Ghent, Bruges, Oudenard, Antwerp, and moſt of the cities of Flanders and Brabant, deſired the protection of the Duke of Marlborough, and declared for King Charles III. In Italy alſo the Duke of Savoy and Prince Eugene gained a compleat victory over the French, who were beſieging Turin, obliged them to abandon Milan and the territories of the Duke of Savoy, and retire into France over the Alps. Thus far the Allies carried on the war with much conduct and bravery; and had they re-inforced their troops in Spain, which was now upon the point of ſubmitting to King Charles the Third, they had infallibly put an end to the war the next ſummer. But tho' we had ſo vaſt a ſuperiority of troops both in Flanders and Italy, none could be ſpared for that ſervice; of which the Duke of Berwick, who commanded the French and Spaniards, taking an advantage, decoyed our army to an engagement on the twenty-fifth of April near Almanza, and routed them ſo entirely, that not one ſingle company of foot made their retreat, being either cut in pieces or made priſoners; tho' the Portugueſe horſe, abandoning the Engliſh foot, run away in time with the Earl of Galway at their head, and made a ſhift to reach Catalonia. The conquerors thereupon ſatiated their revenge on the kingdoms of Arragon and Valencia and the reſt of Spain that had declared for the Allies, and made them curſe the hour that ever they were ſo credulous to confide in a people that had ſo little regard for them: for at this very time did the confederate fleet aſſiſt the Duke of Savoy and Prince Eugene in that romantick project of beſieging Toulon; and at the ſame time fifteen or twenty thouſand men were detached from the confederate army in Italy for the reduction of Naples. Whereas if the ſame fleet and one third of the forces which were employed in thoſe expeditions had been made uſe of in ſupporting our friends in Spain, that kingdom had been ſecured beyond a poſſibility of loſing it, and Naples would afterwards have ſubmitted, or been a very eaſy conqueſt.

The Engliſh ſo loſt their credit by thus abandoning the honeſt Spaniards to the rage of their enemies, that notwithſtanding their future victories in Spain, that people could never be brought to put any confidence in them, or to take their part againſt King Philip again.

Naples reduced.

Naples ſubmitted to the Imperialiſts commanded by Count Thaun without making any reſiſtance, except the city of Gaieta, which ventured to ſtand upon it's defence, and was taken by ſtorm on the 29th of September 1707 and in it the Duke of Eſcalona the Spaniſh Viceroy, and moſt of the nobility in King Philip's intereſt. But after an immenſe treaſure thrown away in forming the ſiege of Toulon, the Allies were obliged to riſe from before it without making one ſingle breach in the walls, and ſhamefully retire over the Alps again. The Duke of Savoy indeed gratified his revenge in deſtroying the vines and olives in his march, but the Allies in general were very great ſufferers by this expedition.

Admiral Shovel caſt away.

Admiral Shovel, in his return from Toulon with the confederate fleet under his command, was caſt away near the land's-end of England on the twenty-ſecond of October, with three or four other men of war, the Admiral and moſt of the men being loſt.

1708.

The Confederates having diſcovered their error when it was too late, ſent a re-inforcement of ſeven or eight thouſand men from Italy to Spain by ſea in the beginning of the year 1708, and gave the command of their troops in Catalonia to that experienced General Count Staremberg, in conjunction with Major-General STANHOPE. However, the Court of King CHARLES being taken up with ſolemnizing his marriage with the Princeſs of Wolfembuttle, there was little action on that ſide this campaign; but the confederate fleet in the Mediterranean reduced the iſlands of Sardinia and Minorca to the obedience of King CHARLES.

Sardinia and Minorca ſurrender to the Allies.

In Flanders the French ſurprized Ghent and Bruges, but were beaten by the Allies near Oudenard, who afterwards laid ſiege to Liſle. This city was defended with great obſtinacy by the French, and drawn out to a very great length. The moſt remarkable action which happened during the ſiege was between Lieutenant-General WEBB, who commanded a great convoy going to Liſle, and the French General DE LA MOTHE, near Wynendale, in which the French were defeated, tho' they were three times the number of the Allies. The city of Liſle ſurrendered on the twenty third of October, and the caſtle the ninth of December following,

Battle of Wynendale. Liſle taken.

The confederate Generals afterwards laid ſiege to Ghent which ſurrendered on the thirtieth of December. Whereupon Bruges, and the other towns the French had made themſelves maſters of at the beginning of the campaign in Flanders, ſubmitted to King CHARLES again.

Ghent and Bruges retaken by the Allies.

Tournay taken.

1709.

The French made ſome offers of peace the following winter, but the negotiations being broken off, the Confederates laid ſiege to Tournay on the twenty-ſeventh of June, which ſurrendered on the thirtieth of July, and the caſtle the third of September following. And on the eleventh of the ſame month was fought that memorable battle of Malplaquet or Blaregnies, the armies being upwards of an hundred thouſand men of a ſide, all veteran troops. The Allies were commanded by Prince EUGENE and the Duke of Marlborough, and obtained the victory, but with infinite ſlaughter of their troops; the French, who were commanded by the Marſhals VILLARS and BOUFFLERS, being intrenched up to the teeth in the woods of Sart and Janſart. Mons was afterwads beſieged and taken by the Allies.

Battle of Malplaquet or Blaregnies.

On the ſide of Portugal King PHILIP's forces obtained a victory over the Allies, and took one entire brigade of the Engliſh priſoners. But in Catalonia the Confederates being ſuperior in the field, beſieged and took the city of Balaguer. And the Imperialiſts in Italy entring the Eccleſiaſtical State, and ſeizing Comachio, obliged the Pope to acknowledge King CHARLES Sovereign of the Spaniſh dominions.

The Allies in Portugal defeated.

The following winter the French being diſtreſſed by famine, as well as the arms of the Allies, offered to recognize CHARLES the Third for King of Spain, and withdraw their forces out of that kingdom and the territories thereto belonging, to yield up Straſburg, Briſac, &c. to the Emperor, to demoliſh Dunkirk, relinquiſh Liſle, and all other places the Allies had taken in the Netherlands, and in ſhort to do every thing the Confederates demanded of them but aſſiſt with their own forces in driving King PHILIP out of Spain; and towards this they offered to contribute a ſum of money. Theſe were the beſt terms that ever were offered the Allies by France during the war, and had never been rejected if ſome people had not occaſioned the negotiations to be broke off upon private views.

Offers of peace by France.

1710. Towns taken in Flanders.

The campaign of 1710 was favourable to the Allies in Flanders, where they took the towns of Mortagne, Douay, Bethune, Aire and St. Venant: And in Catalonia King PHILIP's horſe received a defeat on the twenty-ſeventh of July near Almenara. On the 20th of Auguſt a general battle was fought between King CHARLES and King PHILIP near Saragoſſa, in which the victory fell to King CHARLES, who entered Saragoſſa in triumph the ſame evening; and having ſtaid there a few days to refreſh his troops, marched to Madrid, of which he took poſſeſſion again the twenty-firſt of September. From hence he diſpatched a Courier to the confederate Generals in Portugal to join him, but the Portugueſe would not be perſuaded to march thither a ſecond time. Whereupon King PHILIP being reinforced by the troops of France, and returning towards Madrid, King CHARLES marched back with a thouſand horſe into Catalonia, leaving the confederate army to follow him: but General STANHOPE unhappily ſeparating from Count STAREMBERG in their return to Arragon, was ſurprized in the town of Brihuega by King PHILIP's army, and made priſoner, with moſt of the Britiſh troops. King PHILIP afterwards attacked Count STAREMBERG at Villa Vicioſa, but was repulſed, and that General continued his march to Catalonia, tho' he was forced to abandon all the places in Arragon to the enemy, not having forces ſufficient to gariſon them. The French alſo took the town of Gironne in Catalonia ſoon after; and this put an end to the unfortunate campaign of 1710, which the Allies begun with all the glory and ſucceſs imaginable.

Battle of Saragoſſa.

The Engliſh ſurprized at Brihuega.

Battle of Villa Vicioſa.

The French finding all propoſals of peace that had been made by them rejected by the Dutch and the Duke of Marlborough in Holland, applied themſelves directly to the Queen of England this winter; who obſerving nothing unreaſonable in their demands began to liſten to them, eſpecially when ſhe ſaw that the whole weight of the war lay upon her own ſubjects. Both the Imperialiſts and the Dutch had long refuſed to furniſh their quota's of men or money towards the war, which they had been often put in mind of to no purpoſe. They had found out the way of making ſome leading men in the Britiſh miniſtry eaſy, who took care that the deficiencies of the Allies ſhould be made good at the expence of their own nation; and as long as Britain was thus made the dupe, and conquered countries for the Allies at her own coſt, it was not to be expected they ſhould ever be weary of the war. It is no wonder therefore when the Queen was made ſenſible how much her people had been abuſed by their impoſitions, and began to entertain pacifick thoughts, that theſe people, with ſuch of the Britiſh miniſtry as were in their pay or gainers by the continuance of the war, ſhould raiſe that mighty clamour we find they did, and prevailed with her, contrary to her own judgment, to continue the war till another campaign, in which the Duke of Marlborough only entered the French lines and took the little town of Bouchain.

Offers of peace made to the Queen of Great Britain.

1711.

In the mean time the Emperor JOSEPH died on the 20th of April 1711, and CHARLES III King of Spain, having ſome aſſurance of being elected in his brother's room, was convoyed by the Britiſh fleet from Barcelona to Italy, and while he was at Milan received advice of his being choſen Emperor on the 12th of October. Whereupon he applied himſelf to all the Confederates to prevent their entring into negotiations of peace with the French. The Queen of Great Britain, however, proceeded to

The Emperor Joſeph dies, and Charles King of Spain is elected Emperor.

Ceſſation of Arms between Britain and France. 1712.

The Allies defeated at Denain.

to appoint Utrecht for the place of treaty, whither ſhe invited all the powers in the confederacy to ſend their Ambaſſadors and Plenipotentiaries; and the conferences were accordingly opened on the 29th of January 1711-12; but the miniſters of the Allies laid ſo many obſtacles in the way, that very little progreſs was made that winter. The Queen of Great Britain was ſo indulgent to them, that ſhe conſented her General the Duke of Ormond ſhould take the field the next campaign, and aſſiſt in the ſiege of Queſnoy; but finding at length they were not to be moved from their determination of continuing the war, ſhe ordered her Plenipotentiaries to let them know that ſhe had agreed to a ceſſation of arms with the French, and ordered the Duke of Ormond, with the Britiſh troops, to ſeparate himſelf from the confederate army. The Generals of the Allies hereupon, imagining themſelves ſtill a match for the French, proceeded to beſiege Landrecy; but while they lay before this place, the Earl of Albemarle being encamped with thirteen battalions and thirty ſquadrons at Denain, to ſecure the communication of their grand army (which had inveſted Landrecy) with Marchiennes, where their principal magazine was, Marſhal VILLARS fell upon him, and having entirely routed that body, took the Earl priſoner, with vaſt quantities of ammunition and proviſions; and about a week after he made himſelf maſter of Marchiennes, with all their ſtores of war. The French afterwards retook Douay, Queſnoy, Bouchain, &c. Whereupon the Dutch, finding the Confederates were in no condition to reſiſt the French after the Engliſh forces were withdrawn, thought fit to come into the plan of peace that had been agreed to by the Queen of Great Britain. But before the concluſion of the general peace, a treaty of barrier was ſigned on the 30th of January 1712-13, by which it was agreed that the Dutch ſhould gariſon the following towns and forts in the Netherlands; viz. Furnes, Fort Knock, Ypres, Menin, Tournay. Mons, Charleroy, Namur, the caſtle of Ghent, the forts Le Perle, Philip and Damme, and fort St. Donat; the fortifications of which places, with the gariſons therein, to be maintained by the revenues ariſing from ſuch places and the countries about them. A treaty for the evacuation of Catalonia, Majorca and Ivica by the Imperialiſts was concluded alſo on the 13th of March following, and another for the neutrality of Italy.

1713. Treaty of peace between the Allies and France.

On the 31ſt of March, O. S. and the 11th of April, N. S. 1713, the reſpective treaties of peace between Great Britain, Pruſſia, Portugal, the States-General and Savoy on the one part, and the French King on the other, were executed at Utrecht. And on the 6th of March, N. S. 1713-14, a treaty of peace was concluded between the Emperor and France at Raſtadt. For the particulars of all which treaties, I refer the reader to the beginning of this volume.

The Catalans refuſing the terms of peace which the Queen of Great Britain had procured for them, formed an independent ſtate, and took poſſeſſion of Barcelona on the Germans evacuating that province (viz. on the ninth of July 1713) and held it till the latter end of the year 1714; when the Duke of Berwick inveſting it with an army of French and Spaniſh troops, they ſurrendered on condition of having their lives ſpared and the city ſaved from plunder, after they had held out a ſiege of two months, and ſeen their town almoſt demoliſhed by the bombs.

Treaty between G. Britain and Spain.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and Spain, King PHILIP for himſelf, his heirs and ſucceſſors, yielded to the crown of Great Britain the full and entire property of the town and caſtle of Gibraltar, together with the port, fortifications and forts thereto belonging, without any communication by land with the country round about; ſaving the liberty to purchaſe, for ready money in the neighbouring territories of Spain, proviſions and other neceſſaries for the uſe of the gariſon, and for the inhabitants and ſhips that might lie in the harbour. And in like manner his Catholick Majeſty yielded and confirmed to the crown of Great Britain the iſland of Minorca, with Port Mahon and all other places upon it; the Roman Catholicks to have the free exerciſe of their religion in both.

By the treaty between Spain and Savoy, the iſland of Sicily was yielded and confirmed to the King of Sicily. As to the iſland of Sardinia, the kingdom of Naples, Milan, and the reſt of the Spaniſh territories in Italy and the Netherlands, theſe were left in the poſſeſſion of the Emperor, as Spain and the Spaniſh dominions in America were in the hands of King PHILIP, without ſtipulating any thing concerning them; each party ſeeming determined to revive his pretenſions to ſuch of the Spaniſh territories as were in the poſſeſſion of the other, whenever a favourable opportunity ſhould offer.

Queen of Spain's death and iſſue.

The Queen of Spain died on the fourteenth of February, N. S. 1714 by whom the King had four ſons, viz. LEWIS-PHILIP, Prince of Spain, born the 25th of Auguſt 1707; Don PHILIP, infante of Spain, who died within a few days after his birth; the infante Don PHILIP, born the 7th of June 1712; and the infante Don FERDINAND, born the 23d of September 1713. The Queen their mother was the daughter of AMADEUS Duke of Savoy (now King of Sardinia) and ANNE-MARY of Valois, daughter to PHILIP Duke of Orleans and HENRIETTA, daughter of CHARLES I. King of England.

1714. The King marries the Princeſs of Parma, heireſs of Tuſcany, &c.

The Queen of Spain had not been dead many weeks before the King made propoſals of marriage to the Lady ELIZABETH, heireſs to the Duke of Parma, to whom he was married by proxy on the 16th of September, 1714. This Lady, in default of male iſſue of the preſent Duke, will not only inherit Parma, but the duchies of Placentia, Buſſeto, and the Val de Toro, bounded by the duchy of Milan on the north, by the duchy of Modena on the ſouth, and by the Apennine mountains, which ſeparate it from the territories of Genoa, towards the weſt. And in default of male iſſue of the preſent Grand Duke of Tuſcany, ſhe alſo lays claim to that duchy. All which territories will form a noble ſtate, and if the Spaniards were poſſeſſed of it, might give them an opportunity of recovering Naples, and the reſt of the Italian territories, which were diſmembered from Spain by the treaty of Utrecht. And with this view, it is ſaid, the King of Spain married the Princeſs of Parma; and the Italian Princes alſo are ſuppoſed to have promoted it, becauſe thereby they might introduce another power to balance that of the Emperor, who would otherwiſe have them all at his command, and perhaps in time make Italy a province of the Empire.

1715. Majorca reduced by K. Philip.

To return to Spain: The Imperialiſts not having evacuated Majorca, on pretence that the Spaniards had broke the treaty made for the evacuation of Catalonia, particularly in impriſoning and oppreſſing the Catalans, contrary to their engagements, the French and Spaniards embarked fourteen or fifteen thouſand men on the tenth of June at Barcelona, and making a deſcent on the iſland of Majorca four or five days afterwards, they ſummoned the Imperial Governor, the Marquis de Rubi, to ſurrender; who agreed, according to his orders from the Imperial Court, to evacuate the iſland, on condition the natives ſhould be well uſed, and the Imperial troops tranſported to Naples; whereby King Philip became poſſeſſed of all the Spaniſh provinces and iſlands, except Minorca and Gibraltar which had been yielded to Britain by the peace of Utrecht.

The Turks conquer the Morea.

The Turks this year invaded the Morea, which was ſo ill defended by the Venetians, that they made an entire conqueſt of it in one campaign.

1716.

This unexpected ſucceſs of the Turks induced the Imperialiſts to enter into an alliance with the Venetians for their mutual defence; and a war ſoon after commencing between the Imperialiſts and the Porte, this encouraged the King of Spain, it is ſaid, to make preparations for recovering the provinces belonging to Spain in Italy, which the Emperor was poſſeſſed of. There are ſome that go ſo far as to ſay, that his Catholick Majeſty and the Grand Signior were engaged in a confederacy to attack the Emperor at the ſame time; but no ſuch treaty appearing, every one is at liberty to judge as he pleaſes. Certain it is that the Emperor and Great Britain entered into an alliance this year for the defence of their reſpective territories, as apprehenſive that ſome of them would ſuddenly be attacked. The Emperor ſeemed to be in pain for his Italian dominions in caſe of a rupture with the Turks; and the Court of England ſuſpected, that the King of Spain might be in the intereſt of the Pretender.

Don Carlos born.

In the mean time the Queen of Spain was delivered of a Prince on the twentieth of January, 1715-16, afterwards called Don Carlos, which increaſed her Majeſty's influence on the councils of Spain, that was thought too great already.

1717. King of Spain reduces Sardinia.

The Spaniards were taken up this year in increaſing their navy, augmenting and diſciplining their troops, and fortifying Barcelona, and other ſtrong towns on the ſide of France. They confiſcated alſo the eſtates of all ſuch noblemen and gentlemen as were retired into the Emperor's territories: from whence it was eaſy to diſcern, that a rupture was not far off. Accordingly we find, that the ſummer following, the forces of King Philip, to the number of ten or twelve thouſand men, commanded by the Marquis de Lede, made a deſcent on the iſland of Sardinia, which had been yielded to the Emperor by the peace of Utrecht; and having beſieged and taken the capital city of Cagliari, the reſt of the iſland ſubmitted to them.

The King of Spain endeavoured to juſtify this act of hoſtility by the Emperor's infractions of the treaties for the evacuation of Catalonia and Majorca. He ſays the Imperialiſts, inſtead of delivering up Barcelona to his Troops, put the rebel Catalans in poſſeſſion of it, and did not withdraw their forces from Majorca till long after the time agreed on: that injurious declarations had been publiſhed againſt the King at Vienna, and that the Inquiſitor-general of Spain had been ſeized in the territories of Milan.

To this the Imperialiſts anſwered, That it was not in their power to deliver up Barcelona, that being poſſeſſed by the Catalans at the time of the treaty; and the evauation of Majorca was only deferred in order to procure ſatisfaction to the Catalans, who had been treated in a barbarous manner, contrary to what had been ſtipulated on their behalf at the treaty of Utrecht; and that as to the ſeizing the Inquiſitor of Spain in the Milaneſe, that was done after the war commenced, and he could expect nothing leſs on his coming into his Imperial Majeſty's territories without a paſs.

1718. The Spaniards invade Sicily.

The Quadruple Alliance.

The Spaniards obliged to evacuate Sicily and Sardinia, and accede to the Quadruple Alliance.

Which of the parties were moſt in the right, I ſhall not take upon me to determine; but the Spaniards, notwithſtanding the repeated inſtances of the Miniſters of France, Great Britain, and the States-General, to forbear any further acts of hoſtility, invaded Sicily the year following, and made himſelf maſter of the capital city of Palermo, and the beſt part of the iſland, which had been yielded to the Duke of Savoy by the treaty of Utrecht. Whereupon the powers above-mentioned having entered into a treaty, commonly called the Quadruple Alliance, in order to compel the Spaniard to relinquiſh his late conqueſts, the Emperor ſent a numerous army into Italy, and the King of Great Britain a ſquadron of men of war into the Mediterranean; whereby King Philip was obliged to quit both Sicily and Sardinia and ſubmit to the terms preſcribed by the treaty laſt-mentioned; whereby Sicily was given to the Emperor and Sardinia to the King of Sicily; King Philip was obliged to renounce all his right to the Spaniſh territories in the Emperor's poſſeſſion; and the Emperor, on the contrary, acknowledged King Philip's Title to Spain and the Indies; and as to the duchies of Tuſcany and Parma, it was agreed, that Don Carlos, the Queen of Spain's eldeſt ſon, ſhould inherit them on the death of the preſent poſſeſſors, provided that no forces ſhould be admitted into thoſe duchies for the ſecurity of the ſaid ſucceſſion but Swiſs, or other neutral troops, to be paid by the contracting Powers. As to the particulars of this war, I refer the reader to the hiſtory of Germany, the hiſtory of Italy, and the hiſtory of France, in the former part of this volume. I ſhall only add a word or two in relation to Cardinal Alberoni, then Prime Miniſter of Spain, who is charged with having been the author of all this miſchief.

Some account of Cardinal Alberoni's conduct, ſaid to be the author of the war.

When the Princeſs of Parma was married to the King of Spain, ſhe brought this Italian Prieſt, her favourite, to that kingdom with her, who ſoon found means to diſplace ſuch Miniſters as refuſed to be influenced by him, and introduced his own creatures in their room; and what rendered him exceeding popular among the Spaniards, was his repreſenting to them how eaſy it would be for them to recover the Italian provinces, which had been diſmembered from that monarchy by the treaty of Utrecht. He ſeems to have laid this ſcheme ſoon after the death of Lewis le Grand, which happened in the year 1715, when France was plunged into ſuch inextricable difficulties, on account of her immenſe debts contracted by the late war, that ſhe could not be ſuppoſed in a condition to oppoſe the meaſures he had projected; nay, he ſeems to have had a view of bringing the kingdom of France itſelf under the dominion of King Philip, if Lewis the Fifteenth, who was then an infant, and in a very bad ſtate of health, had happened to die; and was actually forming a party in France for that end, which became very numerous; and in the mean time he prevailed with King Philip to take the title of Regent of France in oppoſition to the Duke of Orleans. He ſaw alſo the Emperor engaged with the Turk, and conſequently not in a condition to defend his Italian dominions; and as to Britain, he ſeems to depend pretty much upon the malecontents making ſuch a diverſion there, that they would not be at liberty to interpoſe in the quarrel. Whether he really expected that the Britiſh malecontents would be ſupported by Sweden, and Muſcovy, as that court affected to give out, is uncertain; I have not yet ſeen any foundation for thoſe ſurmiſes: But as to the Dutch, as well as Engliſh, he might well ſuppoſe they would not be forward to enter into a war with Spain, on account of the advantages they had in point of trade, while they remained in peace with that kingdom.

In this ſituation of affairs, ALBERONI, for whom the court of Spain procured a Cardinal's cap, applied himſelf to augment the royal navy, as well as their land forces, and was ſo ſucceſsful in that attempt, that, to the ſurprize of all Europe, we ſaw them on a ſudden maſters of a very formidable fleet and army, with which they invaded and conquered Sardinia, before any of the neighbouring Powers had an opportunity of interpoſing to prevent it. But contrary to the Cardinal's expectations, the Duke of Orleans having ſo modelled the French army, as to ſecure that vaſt militia in his intereſt, and thereby prevented King PHILIP's party in that kingdom from ſhewing their heads; the Engliſh malecontents alſo being ſuppreſſed and unſupported by any of the northern Powers, and the Imperialiſts having gained two ſignal victories over the Turks, and compelled them to accept of peace, and at the ſame time all theſe formidable Powers entered into a confederacy againſt him; I ſay, the ſcene being thus altered, all the Cardinal's hopeful projects fell to the ground, and King PHILIP was compelled to ſacrifice his Miniſter, in order to obtain a peace of the confederated Powers on terms by no means acceptable to that court. I ſhould have remembered, that Cardinal ALBERONI, as a laſt effort in order to diſtreſs the Britiſh Miniſtry, invited the Pretender into Spain, where he paid him the honours due to a Crowned Head in the year 1719; but the Chevalier returned to Italy again within a few months, in order to conſummate his marriage with the Princeſs SOBIESKI, having done the court of Spain very little ſervice by that voyage. The Cardinal alſo made a feeble attempt upon Scotland, whither he ſent a detachment of three hundred Spaniards to join the malecontents there; but they were all taken priſoners ſoon after they landed. And thus the Cardinal's projects being defeated on every ſide, he was baniſhed to Italy, where the court of Rome ſeemed to frown on him for a time, no leſs than that of Spain, in complaiſance to the victorious Emperor, whoſe diſpleaſure they dreaded, having ſhewn ſome partiality to the Spaniards during the Sicilian war.

1719.

Cardinal Alberoni baniſhed.

K. Philip's 2d ſon dies.

Another born.

On the 29th of December this year died Don PHILIP, the King of Spain's ſecond ſon, aged ſeven years and ſix months: to balance which loſs the Queen was delivered of another Prince on the 15th of March following, baptized alſo by the name of PHILIP.

1720. Congreſs of Cambray.

In the year 1720, the Powers engaged in the late war agreed to ſend their Plenipotentiaries to Cambray, to accommodate the differences that ſtill remained undecided between the Spaniards and Imperialiſts, and between the Spaniards and the King of Sardinia; at which congreſs the Britiſh and French Miniſters were to act the part of mediators.

The Spaniards expedition to Africa.

In the mean time the Spaniards made a deſcent on the coaſt of Africa near Ceuta, under pretence of driving the Moors from thence, and enlarging their territories on that ſide; but the principal deſign ſeems to be to keep up a body of troops, and induce the court of Rome to continue the grant of the tenths of the Clergy to K. PHILIP, which this war with the Infidels gave him a pretence to. For we find the Spaniards only intrenched themſelves at a little diſtance from Ceuta, where they three times repulſed the Infidels; and theſe actions were magnified as mighty victories, tho' they never afterwards endeavoured to penetrate into the country, but gave out, that their enemies were too well diſciplined and too numerous, to attempt any thing more with ſo ſmall a force; and thereupon returned to Spain in the year 1721, after they had made ſome additional fortifications to Ceuta.

1721.

Marriages between France and Spain.

This year a contract of marriage was made between his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty LEWIS XV, and the Infanta of Spain, an infant of four years of age; and another between LEWIS Prince of the Aſturias, and Madamoiſelle DE MONTPENSIER, fourth daughter to the Duke of Orleans; the two Princeſſes being exchanged on the frontiers of both kingdoms by Commiſſioners nominated for that purpoſe. A third marriage was contracted the following year between Don CARLOS, eldeſt ſon of King PHILIP, by his preſent Queen, and Madamoiſelle DE BEAUJOLOIS, another of the Duke of Orleans's daughters; but the firſt and the laſt marriages were never conſummated, and of the other between the Prince of the Aſturias and Madamoiſelle DE MONTPENSIER, there was no iſſue.

1722.

1723. The Pope proteſts againſt the diſpoſing of Parma, &c. to Don Carlos.

The court of Rome expreſſed great uneaſineſs at this time on the diſpoſition that had been made of the reverſion of the duchies of Parma and Placentia by the Quadruple Alliance, which they alledged were fiefs of the Holy See, and not of the Empire: and expecting that ſettlement would be confirmed by the congreſs at Cambray, his Holineſs ordered a proteſt to be made on that ſubject: wherein he ſays, "Can Chriſtian Princes flatter "themſelves with the hopes of concluding a laſt"ing peace, when the depriving the Holy See "and the Vicar of Chriſt of their undeniable "rights is made the foundation of it? Can "they promiſe themſelves long to enjoy what "they violently ſeize, againſt all manner of juſ"tice, and invade the indiſputable right of an "uninterrupted poſſeſſion, which has been ac"knowledged for ſeveral ages by all the nations "of Europe?" Then his Miniſter proteſts, That no body hath or had a right to ſettle or diſpoſe of the duchies of Parma or Placentia, to the prejudice of the ſovereignty and rights of the Roman church; and conſequently, that all treaties, conventions, agreements and diſpoſitions, with their confirmations and ratifications, already made or to be made, either at Cambray or Ratiſbon, or in any other congreſs whatever, concerning the inveſtiture, infeoffment or conceſſion of the ſaid duchies, are and will be for ever null and void, and diſowns and rejects the ſame in the moſt authentick manner.

A deluge at Madrid.

As Spain is almoſt every where incumbered with high mountains, and in ſpring and autumn there falls from them ſuch deluges of water as are fatal to ſome great town or other every year, their cities being uſually built on the banks of rivers at the foot of the mountains, the relation of a flood that ſwept away ſome of the principal Grandees of the Court of Spain, may not be impertinent in this place.

It ſeems the Duke and Dutcheſs of Mirandola had an aſſembly every night at their houſe in Madrid, conſiſting of perſons of the firſt quality, to which all the foreign Miniſters at that court uſually reſorted. The houſe where the aſſembly was held ſtood low, having a large garden behind it upon a riſing ground; beyond the garden there was an eminence ſtill higher. The aſſembly being met on the fifth of September, (which as it happened was much thinner than uſual) a violent ſtorm of thunder and lightning began about nine in the evening, at which the Dutcheſs of Mirandola being frighted, left the company, and went into the chapel to prayers, which was three rooms from the aſſembly, but upon the ſame ground-floor. About ten a-clock, a torrent of water came tumbling down from the riſing grounds, which broke down the town-wall, and afterwards that of the garden which was near it, and in an inſtant burſt open the window-ſhutters of the ground-apartment, overturned all the tables and lights, and filled the rooms with water. The Dutcheſs of Mirandola and her maids were immediately drowned. The men ran out into the court-yard before the houſe, which they found covered with water: and Prince Pio endeavouring to ſave himſelf in the ſtreet, was carried away by the torrent, and his body found the day after two leagues from Madrid. Don Tiberio Caraffa got upon the top of a coach, which overturning by the force of the ſtream, was thrown againſt another, by which he received a blow on his head, and was immediatly drowned. The Prince of Cellamere placed himſelf upon another coach, which likewiſe overturned, but he had the good fortune to get upon the wheel, where he remained till aſſiſtance came; but he was grievouſly bruiſed, and had ſwallowed a great quantity of water and ſand. The Duke of Liria, ſon to the Duke of Berwick, was in great danger; but being very tall, and obſerving by a flaſh of lightning a window over his head, he jumped up, and caught hold of the iron-bars before it, by which he held till the people in the upper apartment let down cords and drew him up. The Venetian Ambaſſador, not being able to get out of the aſſembly-room, where the water was ten foot high, ſupported himſelf two hours upon two chairs, which ſwam till the water abated, ſo that he could get out of the door. The Pope's Nuncio and the Duke of Atri had left the company two hours before the accident happened. Moſt of the reſt of the Quality were ſaved, but in ſuch a fright that they ſcarce knew how: and the relation does not inform us what became of the ſervants and inferior people, who did not probably fare much better than their Lords.

Oſtend Company eſtabliſhed.

This year the King granted a patent for eſtabliſhing an Eaſt-India company at Oſtend; which the Britiſh, French and Dutch Miniſters proteſted againſt to no purpoſe. Nor did this project ſeem acceptable to Spain at this time, though afterwads that court came into it, and made it ſtill more beneficial to the Flemings.

On the ſecond of December, N. S. died Philip Duke of Orleans, Regent of France, of an apoplectick fit at Verſailles; which occaſioned great alterations in the courts both of France and Spain. About the ſame time the Imperial, French and Spaniſh Courts agreed upon the act of inveſtiture of Don Carlos into the duchies of Tuſcany and Parma, the delay whereof had prevented the opening the congreſs of Cambray to this time. The King of Spain ſeems to have waited with ſome impatience for this event, which was no ſooner accompliſhed, but he took a reſolution of reſigning his crown to his eldeſt ſon Lewis Prince of Aſturias; which he did by the following act of renunciation.

K. Philip abdicates the Spaniſh throne.

‘Having theſe four years conſidered maturely and with due reflection the miſeries of this life, through the infirmities, wars and troubles, with which God has been pleaſed to viſit me during the twenty-three years of my reign; and having likewiſe conſidered, that my eldeſt ſon Don Lewis, ſworn Prince of Spain, is of ſufficient age, is married, and has capacity, judgment, and the qualities for ruling and governing juſtly and happily this monarchy, I have determined abſolutely to quit the poſſeſſion and adminiſtration of it, renouncing the ſame with all it's dominions, kingdoms, and lordſhips, in favour of the ſaid Prince Don Lewis my eldeſt ſon, and to retire with the Queen, in whom I have found a ready diſpoſition and voluntary inclination to accompany me to this palace and ſeat of St. Ildefonſo, here to ſerve God diſengaged from all other cares, to meditate on death, and to ſeek my ſalvation.

‘This I communicate to the Council for their information, to be notified to the proper perſons, that my reſolution may be made known to all.”

Dated at St. Ildefonſo the
15th of January, 1724.

A circular letter was likewiſe ſent by his Majeſty's direction to the perſons whom before his renunciation he thought fit to eſtabliſh in the chief offices of the court and government. That letter is as follows:

‘The King having reſolved to retire, and to withdraw himſelf abſolutely from the government of this monarchy, by renouncing the crown, with all it's dominions, kingdoms and lordſhips, in favour of his eldeſt ſon Don Lewis, ſworn Prince of Spain; his Majeſty commands me to acquaint you, that his will is you continue to ſerve the ſaid Prince in the employment you now poſſeſs.”

Grimaldo.

The Council of Caſtile hereupon declared, that King Lewis might immediately take the government upon him without aſſembling the Cortes, having been already ſworn and acknowledged Prince of Spain.

1724. Congreſs of Cambray opened.

On the twenty-ſixth of January, N. S. the congreſs at Cambray was opened, when the Miniſters of Great Britain and France were admitted Mediators between the Emperor and Spain. But very little buſineſs was tranſacted at this congreſs; the Plenipotentiaries ſeemed to employ their time in viſiting one another, or other matters of ceremony.

K. Lewis dies, and K. Philip re-aſſumes the government.

In the mean time Lewis King of Spain, who was advanced to the throne of that kingdom on the 16th of Jan. laſt, by the reſignation of his father, died of the ſmall-pox on the 30th of Auguſt, N. S. 1724, being juſt entered into the 18th year of his age: whereupon the Council of Caſtile petitioned King Philip to re-aſſume the government, to which, after having conſulted an aſſembly of Divines, he returned the following anſwer in writing:

‘I have ſeriouſly conſidered every thing that the Council does repreſent to me in this ſupplication, as well as in the former dated the fourth inſtant. Although I was firmly determined never to leave my retirement upon any account whatſoever,

ſoever, yet willing to condeſcend to the earneſt inſtances made to me by the Council in theſe two ſupplications, to reſume and take upon me the charge of the government of this monarchy, as it's natural Sovereign and proprietor, and yielding to their farther repreſenting to me, that I am bound in juſtice and conſcience to do it; I have reſolved, out of the great value and eſteem I have for the advice of the Council, and in conſideration of the zeal and conſtant affection, which is ſo conſpicuous in the members of it, to ſacrifice myſelf to the general welfare of this monarchy, and the greater advantage of the ſubjects thereof; the more ſtill, conſidering the obligation which the council finds I am under as their natural Prince and Sovereign: reſerving however to myſelf, a power to leave the goverment of this monarchy to the Prince my eldeſt ſon, when he comes to due age and capacity, provided always there be not at that time too great inconveniences that may hinder it. I agree likewiſe to the calling as ſoon as poſſible the Cortes, to recognize the infant Don FERDINAND as Prince.’

1725.

King PHILIP having reſumed the government, applied himſelf more than ever to affairs of ſtate; made an eſtimate of the debts of the nation, which appeared to be much leſs than thoſe of any of the other Powers engaged in the late war. Spain had ſuffered pretty much by the ravages of the ſoldiers, it is true, in that war, but had not mortgaged her revenues for ages to come, as ſome other States had done. This Prince proceeded to make an eſtimate of the charges of his government, in order to apply the ſeveral branches of the revenue to their reſpective expences in ſuch a manner, that the money raiſed for one ſervice, ſhould not be diverted to another: and the troops, which were ordered to be paid monthly, at that time are ſaid to conſiſt of twelve battalions of guards, eighty-eight battalions of foot, four troops of life-guards, twenty regiments of horſe, and ten of dragoons; and orders were given for building of ſhips in the ſeveral harbours of Spain, and re-eſtabliſhing their navy. But they had the miſfortune to loſe that accompliſhed General the Marquis de Lede this year, who had eſtabliſhed his fame by thoſe three expeditions to Sardinia, Sicily and Africa, in which he commanded in chief. But King PHILIP met with another misfortune this year, which was a much greater trial of his patience, as well as the Queen's; for the preſent adminiſtration in France, apprehending they ſhould be all in confuſion again, if their young King, whoſe health was very precarious, ſhould happen to die without iſſue, they determined to ſend back the Infanta, to whom he had been contracted about three years, and find another Princeſs for him that was capable of having children, for the Infanta was not at this time above ſeven years of age; to excuſe which proceeding, a letter was ſent to the court of Spain, in the name of LEWIS XV, importing, that his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty was under the greateſt concern upon his ſeparation from the Infanta, but that a King being born for his ſubjects rather than himſelf, he could not refuſe yielding to the ſtrong ſollicitations of all his States, to marry ſome Princeſs by whom he might have iſſue, and thereby prevent the troubles and revolutions which might happen in the kingdom, if he ſhould die before the Infanta was marriageable.

Marquis de Lede dies.

The French ſend back the Infanta.

The King and Queen of Spain, notwithſtanding theſe apologies, were provoked to the laſt degree, and not only ſent back Madamoiſelle DE BEAUJOLOIS, daughter to the late Duke of Orleans, who had been contracted to Don CARLOS, with the Dowager Queen of Spain her ſiſter, but immediately broke off the treaty of Cambray, and entered into a confederacy with the Emperor, which was afterwards called the Vienna Alliance; whereby they confirmed the Quadruple Alliance, and the reciprocal renunciations of each party to the Spaniſh territories in the poſſeſſion of the other. The Emperor alſo confirmed the eventual inveſtiture of Tuſcany and Parma to Don CARLOS. They guaranteed each other's dominions reciprocally; and the Spaniards engaged to allow greater advantages in trade to the Imperialiſts than to any other nation, particularly to their Oſtend company. Whereupon the French inſinuated, that there were ſtill ſome further ſecret articles much more prejudicial to the trade of Britain than thoſe that appeared; whereby they prevailed with the Britiſh Miniſtry to enter into an alliance with them, commonly called, the Hanover Alliance, in oppoſition to that of Vienna. This conduct of Britain in adhering to the French, after they had given ſo mortal an affront to the court of Spain, ſo provoked the Spaniards, that they ſeemed determined never to be reconciled to us; whether we are at war or peace, our merchants are equally ſufferers.

The Vienna Alliance.

The Hanover Alliance.

By the Hanover treaty, the contracting parties guaranteed each other's dominions, and particularly their reſpective rights and privileges in relation to trade; which article ſtrikes chiefly at the Oſtend company. And it was further agreed, that if any of the parties ſhould be attacked or diſturbed in their trade, that then the other contracting power ſhould furniſh the following ſuccours, viz. France eight thouſand foot, and four thouſand horſe, Britain eight thouſand foot and four thouſand horſe; as to Pruſſia, I do not mention that Prince's ſhare, tho' he was a party, becauſe he afterwards entered into a treaty with the Emperor in oppoſition to this. On the contrary, the Dutch were afterwards induced to accede to the treaty of Hanover, in order to put a ſtop to the trade of the Auſtrian Netherlands to the Eaſt-Indies.

The French King having ſeparated or divorced himſelf from the Infanta of Spain, in the manner above related, immediately made his addreſſes to the Princeſs MARY LEZINSKI, daughter of King STANISLAUS, and was married to her by his proxy, the young Duke of Orleans, at Straſburg, on the 15th of Auguſt, 1725; and afterwards in perſon at Fontainbleau on the 5th of September following.

The French King marries the daughter of King Staniſlaus

About this time the Allies of Hanover were alarmed, or pretended to be ſo, at the intimate correſpondence between the Courts of Spain and Ruſſia; and ſome Ruſſian ſhips ſailing to Cadiz with the merchandize of their own country, the Dutch gave out they would put a ſtop to this commerce, as well as to that of Oſtend with the Eaſt-Indies. Theſe LORDS OF THE OCEAN, as they called themſelves, pretended to monopolize the trade of the Baltick no leſs than that of the Indian Seas, and prohibit the nations of the north carrying abroad their own product and manufactures: in which piece of inſolence they ſeemed to expect that Britain ſhould ſupport them.

In the mean time the Duke de Riperda prime Miniſter of Spain, (a native of the United Provinces) who is ſuppoſed to have been the contriver of the Vienna alliance, fell into diſgrace for diſcovering the ſecrets of the Spaniſh Court (as was ſurmiſed) to the Miniſters of Britain and Holland; and what gave a colour to this ſuggeſtion, was, Riperda's being carried by the Miniſter of the States-General at Madrid to the houſe of Mr. STANHOPE the Britiſh Miniſter there, where he endeavoured to take refuge, and thereby ſkreen himſelf from the reſentment of King PHILIP; though his pretence for retiring thither, was, to avoid the inſolence of the mob. The Spaniſh Court however took the Duke de Riperda by force out of Mr. STANHOPE's houſe, and ſent him priſoner to the caſtle of Segovia; which produced ſeveral memorials and repreſentations to the Court of Spain, Mr. STANHOPE inſiſting that it was a violation of the privileges of Ambaſſadors. The Spaniſh Court maintained, on the other hand, that no Ambaſſador could protect a criminal againſt his Prince: and retorted upon Mr. STANHOPE, the hoſtilities (as they ſtiled them) that were committed by the Britiſh ſquadrons, one of which, under the command of Sir JOHN JENNINGS, had alarmed the coaſt of Spain, and the other blocked up their galeons in the harbour of Porto-Bello in America.

D. Wharton's contempt of the Britiſh Court.

About the ſame time the Duke of Ormond, the Duke of Wharton, and the reſt of the diſaffected Britiſh nobility, reſorted to the Spaniſh Court, expecting there would be a ſudden rupture between the two kingdoms: and a meſſenger from the Court of England delivering a letter from King GEORGE under the privy ſeal to the Duke of Wharton, as he was paſſing through the ſtreets of Madrid in his coach, requiring that nobleman to return to England, on pain of forfeiture of his eſtate, the Duke threw the letter out of the coach into the ſtreet without opening it, in contempt of his Britiſh Majeſty.

1726. Queen of Spain delivered of a daughter.

On the 11th of June this year, the Queen of Spain was delivered of another Princeſs, baptized by the name of MARIA-ANTONIA.

Gibraltar blocked up by the Spaniards.

The Spaniards being determined to ſhew the utmoſt reſentment againſt Britain for the many affronts they pretended to have received, ordered their troops to aſſemble in Andaluſia, and block up Gibraltar, in December 1726. Their firſt deſign, it is ſaid, was to raiſe forts and batteries at the bottom of the bay, whereby they propoſed to prevent any ſhipping coming up to the town, and render the place uſeleſs to the Engliſh: but this being found impracticable, they inveſted Gibraltar, and began to beſiege it in form, on the twenty-ſecond of February following. It was expected that the French and Dutch ſhould have furniſhed their quota of troops on this occaſion, and have made ſome diverſion in favour of Britain, as they had ſtipulated to do by the treaty of Hanover, when the territories of any of the contracting powers ſhould happen to be attacked. But our good Allies ſent us no manner of aſſiſtance either by ſea or land; they left us to defend Gibraltar with our own ſhips and forces: nor did they furniſh one ſhip towards the expedition to Porto-Bello, where we loſt almoſt an entire ſquadron without fighting.

Either the Allies of Hanover apprehended we had no title to Gibraltar, or they were glad to ſee us engaged alone in the Spaniſh war, that they might enjoy the trade to that kingdom by themſelves in the mean time; for our merchants effects in Spain were immediately ſeized, while thoſe of the French and Dutch remained untouched. The Spaniards however meeting with greater difficulties in the ſiege of Gibraltar than they expected, and not being able to bring home the treaſure in the galeons, while the Britiſh ſquadron remained at Porto-Bello, were induced to conſent to a treaty of pacification, concluded at Paris on the laſt of May, 1727, between the Allies of Vienna, and thoſe of Hanover, and thereupon the ſiege of Gibraltar was ſoon after raiſed.

1727. The ſiege raiſed.

Treaty of pacification.

By this treaty the Emperor conſented that the privileges granted to the Oſtend-Company, and all commerce from the Auſtrian Netherlands to the Indies ſhould be ſuſpended for ſeven years. That the treaties of Utrecht, the Quadruple Alliance, &c. ſhould be in force; and if any difficulties aroſe concerning the interpretation of them, they ſhould be determined by a future congreſs.

Particularly that the Engliſh, French, and Dutch ſhould be reſtored to their rights in trade, according to what was ſtipulated with each of them by treaties antecedent to the year 1725.

Endeavours were to be uſed to pacify the troubles in the north.

And immediately after the ſigning of theſe articles, all hoſtilities were to ceaſe; and with reſpect to Spain, within eight days after his Catholick Majeſty ſhould have received theſe articles.

All ſhips ſent from Oſtend to India before this time, were to be at liberty to return home with their cargoes: as were the galeons on the other ſide, and the Engliſh to recall their ſquadrons from America and the coaſts of Spain.

This ceſſation of hoſtilities to laſt as long as the ſuſpenſion of the Oſtend trade, viz. for ſeven years; in which time the reſpective rights of the parties were to be diſcuſſed.

Within the ſpace of a month after the ſigning theſe articles, it was agreed, a congreſs ſhould be formed at Aix la Chapelle, where the rights and pretenſions of the reſpective powers were to be examined.

Soon after, viz. on the tenth of June, 1727, King GEORGE, one of the principal parties concerned, died in Germany on the road to Hanover.

Still the blockade of Gibraltar was continued, the King of Spain pretending that this was no act of hoſtility. He alſo made a difficulty in reſtoring the ſhip Prince Frederick, and other effects of the South-Sea Company, ſo that we had ſcarce any trade with Spain the year following.

Treaty of pacification explained.

At length an act was ſigned for the explanation of the ſaid preliminary articles, on the ſixth of March, 1727-8, whereby his Britiſh Majeſty agreed to ſend orders to his Admirals to withdraw from the ſeas of the Indies and Spain; and conſents that the matter relating to the counterband goods relating to the ſhip Prince Frederick, ſhould be debated in the future congreſs; and that therein it ſhould be decided, whether the prizes taken at ſea by both parties ſhould be reſtored, and that his Britiſh Majeſty ſhould be bound by what ſhould be agreed on there.

His Catholick Majeſty, on the other hand, agreed to raiſe the blockade of Gibraltar; to reſtore the ſhip Prince Frederick and her cargo, and to reſtore the commerce of the Engliſh in the Indies according to the Aſſiento treaty, and the ſecond and third articles of the preliminaries: To cauſe the effects of the flotilla to be diſtributed forthwith among the proprietors; and the galeons, when returned, as in times of peace. And his

Catholick Majeſty alſo obliged himſelf to abide by the deciſions of the future congreſs.

Queen of Spain delivered of a ſon.

Double marriages between Spain and Portugal.

In the mean time the Queen of Spain was delivered of another Prince, born the twenty-fifth of July, 1727, and baptized by the name of Lewis-Anthony-James; and on the twenty-fifth of December following, a contract of marriage was ſigned between Don Joseph Prince of Brazil, and the Infanta Donna Maria-Anna-Victoria, (who had before been contracted to Lewis XV, King of France;) and within leſs than a month afterwards, another marriage was ſolemnized between Don Ferdinand Prince of the Aſturias, and the Infanta Maria of Portugal; whereby the alliances between the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal were cemented by the ſtrongeſt ties imaginable.

Congreſs of Soiſſons.

1728.

The congreſs, which by the preliminary articles was firſt agreed to be held at Aix la Chapelle, was afterwards, at the inſtances of the French Court, appointed to be held at Cambray; and this being apprehended too far for Cardinal Fleury, the Prime Miniſter of France, to travel, he prevailed with the Plenipotentiaries to aſſemble at Soiſſons, which was alſo complied with, and the congreſs was accordingly opened there on the fourteenth of June, 1728; and that cunning Jeſuit being determined to manage thoſe negotiations in perſon, and yet not daring to truſt his Prince in the hands of any other Miniſters during his abſence, prevailed with his Maſter to come with the Court to Compiegne, within an hour or two's driving of Soiſſons, between which places he was perpetually going and coming; the fatigue whereof not being very agreeable to the old man, after he had heard them wrangle about a month, and gained a ſufficient aſcendant of them, he made the Miniſters follow him from thence to Paris, and afterwards to Fontainbleau, and in ſhort to every place whither the Court of France removed; ſo exceeding forward were they to refer their differences to the deciſion of a French Jeſuit.

Treaty of Seville. 1729.

1730.

But nothing of conſequence being reſolved on at theſe conferences, and the Engliſh merchants murmuring, that their trade with Spain had been in a precarious condition for ſo many years, it was found neceſſary to clap up a peace with that Court on any terms almoſt; and to allure the Queen of Spain, who governed the councils on that ſide, to enter into their meaſures, an offer was made her of introducing a body of Spaniſh troops immediately into Italy, to ſecure the eventual ſucceſſion of her ſon Don Carlos to the dutchies of Tuſcany and Parma; which that Princeſs approving of, a treaty of peace was concluded, to which the French and Dutch, as well as the Engliſh, were parties. And this obtained the name of the treaty of Seville, it having being concluded there by the Miniſters of Great Britain and Spain. But the Emperor was highly incenſed at that part of it, which concerned the introducing Spaniſh forces into Italy, and ſeemed inclined to hazard every thing rather than ſuffer it. The year 1729, and part of 1730, having now paſſed in propoſing expedients to compromiſe this difference; and the laſt ſummer the Spaniards took up tranſports, in order to land a body of troops in Italy; but finding their Allies not in a readineſs to ſupport them, they thought fit to diſembark their forces, diſmiſs their ſhips, and wait the ſucceſs of the negotiations on this head. In the mean time, if we are rightly informed, the Spaniards in America continue to take the merchant-ſhips of Britain, as in a time of war, and in other reſpects have not behaved themſelves as a nation in perfect friendſhip with us. I ſhall conclude the hiſtory of Spain with obſerving, that the Duke of Riperda, who was the ſubject of ſo many memorials between the Miniſters of Spain and England, made his eſcape out of the caſtle of Segovia on the thirteenth of September, 1728, and has ſince viſited moſt of the Courts of Europe. He was very lately in Great Britain, where it is not doubted but the miniſtry knew how to make a proper uſe of him.

I proceed in the next place to enquire how Spain has requited Great Britain for thoſe important ſervices: viz. the ſettling Don Carlos in Italy, and the opportunity ſhe gave the Spaniards of making thoſe valuable conqueſts abovementioned, by ſtanding neuter, while the Emperor was left ſingly to maintain the war againſt Spain, France, and Sardinia, and, in the end, compelled to part with one part of his hereditary dominions to ſave the reſt, though his allies had guaranteed to him the enjoyment of the whole.

And it appears the Spaniards were exceeding civil to us all the while we were engaged in perſuading the Emperor to admit Don Carlos, with his Spaniards, into Italy, and convoying him thither. They promiſed reſtitution for all their depredations, and aſſigned commiſſaries to inquire into all the captures that had been made, and actually ſent orders to their American governors to do us juſtice. Nay, it is reported, they condemned and confiſcated one of their guarda coſta's, towards making ſatisfaction to ſome merchants, whoſe ſhips they had plundered: but they had no ſooner obtained their ends, and fixed Don Carlos in Italy, than they renewed their hoſtilities, took great numbers of Britiſh ſhips, as well in the Mediterranean, as America; and when complaints, and undeniable proofs were made of theſe outrages, no reſtitution could be obtained, but we were put off with dilatory promiſes from year to year, that the facts ſhould be enquired into, and in the mean time continued their depredations to that degree, that a Britiſh ſhip could not ſail with any ſafety, to and from our American plantations without a convoy; they had alſo the aſſurance to lay claim to Port-Royal, and the ſouth part of Carolina, in which Georgia is comprehended; and actually made preparations to drive us from thence, as well as from the bays of Campeachy and Hunduras; notwithſtanding the Britiſh nation has been long in the poſſeſſion of thoſe countries, and they have been confirmed to us by ſeveral treaties.

If it be ſufficient for the Spaniards, to ſupport their claim to all Florida, and among the reſt, to South Carolina, to ſay, they were once in poſſeſſion of half a dozen places on that extenſive continent; the French, by the ſame rule, ought to relinquiſh Louiſiana, which lies in the heart of that country: they ought alſo to quit that valuable iſland of Hiſpaniola, the beſt plantation for ſugar they have; for the Spaniards were long poſſeſſed of that whole iſland. But will France yield up their acquiſitions on the continent, or iſlands, to the Spaniards, becauſe they firſt diſcovered or poſſeſſed them? No; they will certainly inſiſt on their poſſeſſion, ſince the Spaniards thought fit to abandon them for better. The Spaniards, indeed, would have excluded every European nation from America at firſt, under pretence of their being the firſt diſcoverers; and actually made a ſeizure of all ſhips, murdering their crews, if they preſumed to appear in thoſe ſeas: but it being found that the Spaniards could not plant or cultivate a fortieth part of that vaſt continent, and that the natives were far from giving them a permiſſion to ſettle there, and uſurp the dominion of the country, every other European people thought themſelves at liberty to traffick with that new world, and to ſettle colonies there by the permiſſion of the natives, without aſking leave of the Spaniards; and no power in Europe, but that of Britain, will ſuffer it's ſubjects to be inſulted and plundered in that part of the world, under pretence that the Spaniards are univerſal monarchs of it. The Spaniards never had any ſettlements in Carolina, or in the bays of Campeachy or Hunduras: or, if they had any, they had quitted them; and ſurely, it is as lawful for the Engliſh, as any other people, to plant and cultivate a country they found deſerted, and void of inhabitants; and here were none, except ſome Indians, who made no other uſe of the country, than to hunt in it; and we had the conſent of thoſe Indians to ſettle colonies there. Let the Spaniards, who uſe ſuch freedoms with the ſubjects of Great Britain, practiſe upon thoſe of France in like manner (and the French have a much weaker title to what they poſſeſs in America than the Engliſh have) and we ſhall ſoon ſee whether their grand monarch will be pleaſed to wait the event of a negotiation of ſeven or eight years ſtanding, and will not immediately make repriſals on the aggreſſors, where his ſubjects are unjuſtly and violently attacked and diſturbed in their trade and navigation. I am apt to think the Spaniards durſt not inſult even the diſpirited Engliſh, in the manner they have done of late, if they had not ſome aſſurance of being ſupported by the French. It is poſſible the French may unite with the Spaniards, to diſpoſſeſs us of ſome of our plantations in America, in order to ſucceed us there: but can the Spaniards expect ever to enjoy their own American dominions in quiet, after they have aſſiſted the French to drive the Engliſh from thence? would not their gold and ſilver mines be in a great deal of danger, if the French were as powerful in that part of the world as they are in this, and there were no Britiſh colonies there to interpoſe for their preſervation? But if the Spaniards are ſo inſenſible of their danger from that quarter, as to unite with their and our common enemies, I hope the Engliſh will take ſuch precautions for the ſecurity of their colonies, as to bid defiance to both nations. But to proceed in the hiſtory of Spain:

This court had raiſed a very formidable army, with a deſign of taking poſſeſſion of Tuſcany by force, in caſe the Emperor oppoſed their introducing gariſons into the fortified towns of that dutchy, in order to ſecure the reverſion to Don CARLOS, after the death of the then Duke; and it is not improbable they had then a view of recovering Naples, and the reſt of the Spaniſh territories in Italy; but the Emperor conſenting to the admiſſion of ſix thouſand Spaniards into Tuſcany, they had afterwards no pretence to invade the Italian provinces the Emperor was poſſeſſed of: however, they did not intirely lay aſide the deſign of recovering Naples and Sicily, but kept up their army, and even augmented it, that they might be in a condition to invade Italy the firſt favourable opportunity; and, in the mean time, that their troops might not want employment, and be unfit for action, they determined to attempt the recovery of Oran on the coaſt of Barbary, which the Algerines took from them in the year 1708, after the Spaniards had been near two hundred years in poſſeſſion of that fortreſs.

To recover which, the Spaniards embarked 30,000 men on board their fleet, with a ſuitable quantity of warlike ſtores of all kinds, for a ſiege; and ſetting ſail from the road of Alicant, on the 24th of June 1732, arrived on the 28th at Cape Ferro, two miles from the city of Oran, where they landed their army without oppoſition, but the next day were attacked by a body of 20,000 Moors. The fight was long and ſharp: the main part of the Moors attack was born by the Spaniſh left-wing, who, after an engagement of above four hours, vigorouſly ſuſtained, repulſed the Moors with great loſs, and drove them from the tops of the mountains with ſo much haſte and fear, that the alarm reaching Oran, ſtruck ſuch a panick terror there, that the bey, or governor, and gariſon, abandoned the place with the utmoſt precipitation, and the Spaniards entered the next day, being the firſt of July.

The adjacent fort of Mazalquivir, which might have held out a month had it been defended, was alſo ſurrendered to the Spaniards without firing a gun. This rapid ſucceſs ſtruck a terror into all the neighbouring towns, and even into Algiers itſelf; but the progreſs of the Spaniards was ſoon interrupted, partly by the violent heats of the country, which brought a great ſickneſs and mortality among the ſoldiers, and partly by the want of freſh water, which is very ſcarce on that coaſt, ſo that they could not make any diſtant marches. Beſides this, the Moors having recovered their fright, took heart again, and began to entertain the Spaniards with very ſharp ſkirmiſhes, in which the Moors were often ſucceſsful; their light horſe being good ſoldiers, though their foot are but indifferent; and once by an ambuſcade they ſurprized a conſiderable body of Spaniſh troops, of whom they killed 300, and among the reſt the duke de St. Blaſs, a grandee of Spain. However, the Spaniards leaving ſtrong gariſons in Oran and Mazalquivir, under the command of the marquis of Santa Cruz, the fleet returned with the reſt of their army to Spain, which the Turks and Moors had no ſooner intelligence of, but they aſſembled their army again, and with their uſual fury, attacked the forts and outworks which covered Oran, and particularly that of Santa Cruz, whither the governor ſending a reinforcement, and a ſupply of ammunition and proviſions, the Turks attacked the convoy, and an engagement enſued, in which the Spaniards loſt abundance of men, but threw the intended relief into the fort. On the other hand, the Turks and Moors proceeded to open their trenches before Oran, and to beſiege the town in form: whereupon the marquis of Santa Cruz, the governor, made ſeveral ſucceſsful ſallies, in which he levelled their works, and nailed up their cannon; but in one of them had the misfortune to be wounded and made a priſoner: however the infidels, by the frequent ſallies of the gariſon, were at length compelled to raiſe the ſiege, and the Spaniards ſtill remain in poſſeſſion of that city, and the forts about it.

The following year, 1733, happened the long-expected death of AUGUSTUS II. King of Poland; and the Emperor eſpouſing the intereſt of the Elector of Saxony, ſon of the late King, againſt King STANISLAUS, the Spaniards, French, and Sardinians, entered into a confederacy againſt his Imperial Majeſty, and made this a pretence for invading his dominions in Italy and Germany, and at length drove the Imperialiſts entirely out of Milan, Naples, and Sicily, while the Engliſh and Dutch, who had guaranteed thoſe territories to the Emperor, ſtood looking on, without affording them any aſſiſtance; and his Imperial Majeſty was at length compelled to ſacrifice the Kingdoms of Naples and Sicily to the Spaniards, to ſave the reſt of his dominions, as has been already related in the hiſtory of Italy: but I omitted there to obſerve, that Spain and her allies, apprehending the Pope to be in the intereſt of the Imperialiſts, under pretence that ſome of the ſubjects of Spain and Naples had been inſulted by the populace at Rome, they marched their army up to the very gates of that city, and refuſed to retire till they had extorted 40,000 crowns from his Holineſs; and the Genoeſe, and Piſans, upon ſlighter pretences, were ſerved much in the ſame manner by the inſulting Spaniard.

Before the war was well ended in Italy, a difference happened between Spain and Portugal, which was very near producing another. A country farmer, who lived in a village about a mile from Madrid, and uſed to ſerve the ſtables of M. DE BELMONTE, the Portugueſe Miniſter at that court, with ſtraw and barley, having killed a man, was brought priſoner to Madrid by the officers of the village, attended by ſix ſoldiers, on Sunday the 20th of February 1734-5, being the laſt day of the carnival, when multitudes of people were aſſembled in the ſtreets, as uſual at that time: the criminal paſſing by the gate of M. DE BELMONTE, which was not far from one of the King's palaces, called the Buen Retiro, the ſervants of this miniſter ſeeing their old friend the farmer manacled, and tied upon an aſs, without enquiring what was the occaſion of it, reſcued the priſoner, and carried him into their maſter's houſe, where he was kept two days, and then aſſiſted by the family, to make his eſcape to a place of ſecurity, as the Spaniards relate. On the other hand, M. DE BELMONTE affirmed, that he was no ſooner acquainted with the matter, but he turned off the ſervants who were concerned in it, and ordered the criminal to be put out of his houſe, and immediately ſent word to the governor of Caſtile, by whoſe warrant the criminal was apprehended, to excuſe the outrage, and let him know he had turned off the ſervants that were concerned in it. However, the government taking no notice of M. BELMONTE's apology, two days after ſent a detachment of ſoldiers to his houſe, apprehended all his ſervants, and carried them to priſon; of which the miniſter of Portugal gave the following account to all the foreign miniſters reſiding at Madrid, viz.

“On the twenty ſecond of February, a great number of ſoldiers, of thoſe called los banquillos, headed by three officers, forced themſelves into my houſe, with their bayonets fixed to their pieces, and ſeized ſome of my domeſticks that were under the portico and upon the great ſtair-caſe: they afterwards entered my antichamber, and had already taken one of my pages, when I went myſelf and demanded of them, what orders they had to commit ſuch an outrage againſt my houſe; One of them returned for anſwer, that they had an order from the King to ſeize all my ſervants in general, without any exception, but eſpecially thoſe wearing my livery, and to conduct them to the publick priſons; and moreover, to ſearch every where for thoſe of my ſervants that did not appear. I aſked that officer if he had this order in writing; He anſwered me in the negative; but that his officer, who had a verbal order, had given him the ſame in like manner, and that they were come to execute it. I then replied, that as I had no other arms at hand than the immunity of my character, which I ſaw ſo cruelly and outrageouſly violated, I ſhould take no other ſtep than to retire, to avoid being an eye-witneſs of ſo unheard-of a proceeding.

“The ſoldiers took nineteen of my domeſticks, as well of the livery as others, handcuffed them two and two, and conducted them through the moſt publick ſtreets of Madrid, and in the ſame livery, to priſon.

“This, gentlemen, is a faithful recital of that fact, ſo violent and unheard-of before, which entirely deſtroys the laws of nations, and breaks thro' all that is ſacred amongſt the moſt barbarous nations, who inſpired by reaſon and nature, preſerve the immunity of publick miniſters.

In anſwer to this manifeſto, the following letter was ſent by the Spaniſh court, to all the foreign miniſters reſiding at Madrid, and communicated by them to their reſpective courts.

SIR,

“Though the extraordinary circumſtances, which attended the enterprize made the twentieth inſtant, by the miniſter of Portugal and his domeſticks, are ſo well known, that they juſtify the reſolution the King took the twenty-ſecond, to cauſe the guilty domeſticks to be arreſted in whatever place they could be found; yet as the ſame was executed in the hotel of that miniſter, his Majeſty has commanded me to communicate to your excellency, the motives which obliged him to take that reſolution, to the end, that only your excellency may be convinced of the indiſpenſable neceſſity he was under, conſidering the temerity of that miniſter, to have recourſe to ſuch violent methods; but alſo be aſſured, that the King and his miniſters obſerve with the utmoſt exactneſs, the regards which are owing to the character of the miniſters of ſovereign powers, who reſide at this court.

“The publick attack committed by that miniſter's domeſticks upon the ſoldiers and officers of juſtice, who were conducting thro' the gate of Alcala a priſoner, guilty of a very atrocious murder, and the ſeizing and carrying off the ſaid priſoner, out of the hands of the officers of juſtice, ſo near the palace of Buen Retiro, make it appear, that they not only aſſume to themſelves a publick protection of criminals, to the prejudice of the authority and ſovereignty of the King; but at the ſame time, one may ſee a manifeſt violation of the royal reſidence, which has been hitherto regarded as a place ſacred, as well by the natives of the country as foreigners, and ſo worthy of reſpect, that the leaſt violation committed within it's territory was worthy of death. The precaution taken to place a perſon at the gate of the city, to watch the arrival of the priſoner,

ſoner, which makes it ſuſpected the enterprize was a premeditated deſign, and was the cauſe, without doubt, that the arrival of the ſaid criminal was inſtantly known in the houſe of the miniſter, excludes all pretences, which incidents, or any other occaſion, might have furniſhed. The manner in which the priſoner was conducted from the gate of the palace, with a view to excite a tumult by dint of cries, that deſerved puniſhment in the midſt of a concourſe of ſo many people in a publick walk, expoſed the King's ſovereignty, and diſhonoured his right in the publick ſtreets. The liberty granted to the criminal, whoſe irons were taken off after his coming into the miniſter's houſe, and who was afterwards expoſed in the windows, to the view of the ſpectators, makes it evidently appear, how much the authority of thoſe was deſpiſed who cauſed him to be taken.

“ Theſe circumſtances did not permit decency, nor the ſovereign authority to diſſemble, or to leave unpuniſhed an attempt of this nature, much leſs, that an affair ſo publick ſhould paſs over without a publick ſatisfaction. Nevertheleſs, the puniſhment was deferred till the third day, though the guilty had not given his Majeſty the leaſt tokens of their repentance; and though it is pretended, that a letter was written to the governor of the council of Caſtile, which was but an indirect way to acquaint the King of the affair, it being well known, that the dangerous indiſpoſition of the ſaid governor, hindered him from receiving and anſwering letters. But if attention ſhould be given to that letter, what fault might not that miniſter be accuſed of? He owns therein he gave liberty to the criminal, approving thereby the conduct of his domeſticks; and ſays, that he did it immediately after he was brought to his houſe, and was acquainted with the affair: it is, however, well known, that the miniſter was then walking in his garden, that the criminal ſtaid above thirty hours in his houſe, and was afterwards conducted, with much precaution, to a place of ſafety. He ſays he had turned away his footmen, and they were all found at his houſe; ſo that all he alledges for his juſtification, proves on the contrary his fault, forgetting thereby the reſpect which is owing to a monarch in his own court, and which every ſovereign will maintain without the leaſt infraction. Wherefore his Majeſty perſuades himſelf, that your excellency will eaſily comprehend, that the preſent caſe cannot be compared to any of thoſe, wherein fugitives may for ſome time enjoy an aſylum, in the houſes of characterized miniſters; nor to thoſe wherein liberty, with regard to perſon or place, may take effect. Dated at the Pardo, Feb. 28, 1733.

“ Signed

Don Joseph Patinho.

Upon this miſunderſtanding between the two courts, the troops of both kingdoms were ordered to march towards the frontiers; and it happened very fortunately for the Portugueſe, that the greateſt part of the Spaniſh army was ſtill in Italy; for had they been in Spain, they might have marched up to the gates of Liſbon, before any foreign power could have interpoſed to have prevented it; the fortified towns on the frontiers of Portugal being generally out of repair, and their militia in a very wretched condition.

His Portugueze Majeſty, therefore, immediately diſpatched Don ANTONIO D'ALVEZEDO to the court of Great Britian, to deſire their aſſiſtance; whereupon ſir JOHN NORRIS was commanded immediately to ſail for the river of Liſbon, with a ſtrong ſquadron of men of war, and arrived there on the 9th of June 1735, and was received by the Portugueſe with tranſports of joy, they being ſenſible, that nothing leſs could have protected them from Spaniſh vengeance. His Portugueze Majeſty, on the arrival of the fleet, ordered them a weekly allowance of an hundred oxen, four hundred ſheep, four hundred geeſe, as many turkeys, one thouſand hens, one thouſand baſkets of greens, fifty arroves of ſweetmeats, one hundred thouſand lemons and oranges, and fourſcore pipes of wine. The King of Portugal was ſenſible, that the inſtruments of ſo ſignal a ſervice, deſerved at leaſt to be well entertained: and if he was not at any other expence towards leſſening the charge of the fifty thouſand pounds per month, which that fleet ſtood the nation in; yet this is much more than ever we received from any other power in the like circumſtances. When we ſent over a body of troops to the aſſiſtance of the Dutch, in the beginning of Queen ANNE's war, the French being upon their frontiers, and about to penetrate into the heart of their country, as they themſelves repreſented, we did it generouſly, without demanding any part of the charges. The like conduct we obſerved towards the Emperor and the empire, when they were upon the brink of ruin. I do not find, that any of theſe good allies contributed a ſhilling towards the ſubſiſtence of the forces employed in their deliverance. We did all this like the charitable man in the goſpel, hoping for nothing again, though we run ourſelves over head and ears in debt to ſave them. On the contrary, when the Dutch brought over our Great Deliverer, King WILLIAM, they demanded ſix hundred thouſand pounds for that ſervice, and were honeſtly paid it. I won't pretend to ſay, that none of our officers or miniſters ever received a gratuity, for the important ſervices we have done our allies. It would tempt a man to think, there had been ſomething of this kind, in the reign of Queen ANNE, or we could never have conſented to have taken ſo unequal a ſhare in that war, and in a manner, borne the whole burthen of it, till we had exhauſted all our treaſure, and run fifty millions in debt; while thoſe who were more nearly concerned in the event of the war, did little or nothing towards the ſupport of it. If this was the effect of ſuffering our miniſters to become penſioners to foreign princes, ſurely nothing can be more deſtructive to a nation. Can it be expected, that miniſters in pay of foreign powers, ſhould be faithful to their country?

But one of the moſt notorious pieces of ingratitude this nation ever was ſenſible of, was that of the Queen of Spain's; who, notwithſtanding we convoyed her ſon, Don CARLOS, to Tuſcany, and gave him an opportunity of making a conqueſt of Italy, to the ruin of our good ally the Emperor, has ever ſince treated the ſubjects of Britain as her enemies, and openly

penly makes war upon them in every part of the world, where ſhe apprehends her people ſuperior to us: though it ſeems, we employed both our ſea and land forces in introducing Don Carlos into Italy, at our own charges, and were not furniſhed even with refreſhments, while our fleet lay in the Spaniſh harbours, without paying extravagantly for them.

There are two or three expeditions to the Baltick, that ought not to be forgotten in this place, when our powerful fleets ſaved both the Danes and Swedes, from the ravages of the Ruſſians, and yet neither of thoſe powers paid any thing towards the charges their deliverers were at, or ever made any ſuch acknowledgment for theſe important ſervices, unleſs their receiving penſions for troops we never uſed, and putting us to the charge of raiſing them, are to be looked upon as obligations. It is no wonder we ſtill groan under the burthen of heavy taxes, after theſe numerous expeditions, at our own expence, to ſerve our neighbours. Can we expect to run round the world perpetually in ſearch of adventures, without being liable to the like misfortunes as our great predeceſſor in chivalry was ſubject to?

To return to Portugal. Some time before the Britiſh fleet ſet ſail thither, Mr. Keen, the Britiſh envoy, communicated to the court of Spain, the deſign of his Majeſty to ſend a fleet thither; aſſuring him that the King his maſter had no other deſign in it, but to protect the trade of his ſubjects, and his allies; and particularly to ſecure the return of the Braſil fleet to Liſbon, on board of which the Engliſh nation had a very large intereſt.

To which the court of Spain anſwered, that there could be no manner of occaſion for this armament: his Catholick Majeſty having already accepted the mediation of his nephew, the King of France. which ſecured Portugal from all acts of hoſtility on the part of Spain. On the contrary, nothing could have been more prejudicial to the trade of Europe, than the ſending the Britiſh fleet to Liſbon. For while this was doing, all hands were employed at Cadiz in fitting out the flota for New Spain. Every one knew, that the cargo ſhe carries thither is a depoſit, to which all the nations in Europe eagerly ſtrive to contribute, and to have a ſhare in, that they may partake of the great profits produced by the return of the capitals employed in it; and one of the greateſt motives to that confidence which people have to put their fortunes in that ſort of commerce, is the good underſtanding, which they ſee between the courts of Spain and Great Britain: perſuaded that they have nothing to fear for their effects, but winds and tempeſts, and other accidents of the ſea, they have the leſs uneaſineſs and reſerve in giving into a trade, whoſe great advantages they are ſo well acquainted with. The advantages they draw from it have a proportionable influence over all the other branches of trade in general, and things remaining in this condition, cauſe a happy circulation of wealth in Spain; and among all thoſe nations where commerce flouriſhes; but it is with the body politick, as it is with the human body; as ſoon as the circulation is ſtopped in any conſiderable part, it immediately languiſhes, and becomes all over diſtempered.

The flota from Cadiz was equipping as uſual; every body was preparing rich merchandize to put on board it, which they had purchaſed, either by bills of exchange for ready money, or upon credit: all on a ſudden they hear of a naval armament making in England, to go and cover the ſea all along the coaſt of Portugal, at this news the merchants tremble; confidence vaniſhes; every one thinks of ſecuring his effects, and no man will riſque his capital on board the galleons, which may be attacked either going to New Spain, or coming back: people had rather keep their goods in their warehouſes, and run the riſque of their periſhing there; they had rather renounce the hopes of a return that would enrich them, than hazard an event that would ruin them without reſource: this fear is communicative, and by a contagious emotion, a branch of trade, which is the ſoul of all the trade in Europe, loſes its own proper vigor; and, in proportion as it languiſhes itſelf, it draws all the ſubordinate branches into the ſame condition. Let us add, that thoſe who furniſh goods to be ſent to New Spain, have borrowed large ſums, and employed them according to the beſt of their judgment; the goods are already bought, but they do not go; they cannot then make the reimburſements to which they ſtand engaged. Circumſtances, in which the merchants have no part, reduce them to glaring bankruptcies; by their fall they occaſion that of ſeveral other merchants, not only of Spain, but alſo of France, England, Holland, Italy, &c. who are unfortunately ſtruck by the rebound.

And what effect will that naval force produce in the maritime provinces of Spain? With what eye will the Spaniards behold entering into thoſe ports, which the preſent ſtate of peace keeps open to the Britiſh nation, a fleet, friends, as you pleaſe to call them, but armed nevertheleſs with all the accoutrements and appearances of an enemy? The Spaniards will ſee the Engliſh ſhips freely enter their ports, while their own merchantmen will hardly dare venture out upon the ſmalleſt trip, for fear of ſome unforeſeen inſult. In what condition will then the maritime commerce of Spain be, and that of other nations which trade with her?

It will be ſaid, perhaps, that the deſign of the fleet was to ſupport a peace, which they would maintain between two crowns, animated againſt one another. To which it is eaſy to anſwer, that if the court of Great Britain acted upon that motive, nothing was leſs neceſſary than all that parade of a fleet, which is a pure loſs to their nation. It is even eaſy to demonſtrate, that that fleet does more harm than good to the pacifick negotiations.

To re-eſtabliſh the harmony between the two nations, Portugal had no need of any other expedient than that of reſuming the ſentiments of moderation and juſtice: that would have ſatisfied ſuch a King as Philip V. But the Britiſh fleet has very much changed the face of affairs: the King of Portugal finding ſo conſiderable a ſupport, enlarges his pretenſions. If he demands thoſe reparations to be made him, which he himſelf owes to the majeſty of a great King, who has been offended in the ſight of two capital cities, where ſhall we be? what muſt we expect?——That the peace will be farther off than before; and that of a diſtemper which of itſelf ſeemed to point out its own cure, the fleet has made an incurable diſeaſe, whoſe conſequences will be more to be dreaded than the evil itſelf.

In anſwer to theſe repreſentations, Mr. Keene, the Britiſh miniſter, informed the court of Spain, that he was ordered, by the King of Great Britain, his maſter, to repeat the aſſurances already made, and declared, that the protection of the trade of his Majeſty's ſubjects, and thoſe of his allies, was the ſole cauſe of ſending that fleet to Liſbon; that his admiral had expreſs orders, neither to aſſiſt or encourage the King of Portugal to attack any power whatever, or undertake any thing againſt them; and his Catholick Majeſty might be aſſured, that provided the King's ſubjects are not moleſted in their trade in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, and in Europe, and that nothing is undertaking againſt the coaſts and trade of Portugal, his Majeſty's fleet, as long as it ſtays in thoſe ſeas, will never give his Catholick Majeſty, or his ſubjects, the leaſt cauſe of ſuſpicion or uneaſineſs.

The differences between the courts of Spain and Portugal being ſome time afterwards amicably adjuſted, the Britiſh fleet returned to England, without committing any acts of hoſtility; but the Spaniards have not ceaſed to revenge the diſappointment they met with on the Britiſh merchants from that day to this, whenever they have had an opportunity.

Such has been our ſituation in regard to Spain for ſeveral years, that each nation has at different times felt the effects of war, without a declaration of war publiſhed on either ſide.

Spaniſh war. 1739. Merret paid for the Iſabella man of war reſtored to Spain.

A petition was preſented to the houſe of Commons on the 5th of March 1738-9, by Solomon Merret and Thomas Claphamson in behalf of themſelves and others concerned in the ſhip St. Iſabella: Setting forth, that a Britiſh ſquadron of ſhips of war, commanded by Sir George Byng, afterwards Viſcount Torrington, did in the year 1718 take ſeveral ſhips of war in the Mediterranean, belonging to the King of Spain, and carried them to Port Mahon, where they were condemned and put up to ſale by the Agents for the Captors: And that the ſaid ſhip Iſabella, being one of them, was, after ſhe had lain two years in the ſaid port, purchaſed by the petitioners for 16000 pieces of eight; beſides which, they were at a great charge in repairing the ſaid ſhip, and making her fit for ſervice: and that matters being accommodated between the two crowns of Great Britain and Spain, in the year 1721, the ſaid ſhip was brought down to Cadiz, in order to trade, or to be ſold; but Monſieur Patino, the Spaniſh Intendant of the marine, claimed the ſaid ſhip, under pretence of an agreement between the two crowns, that all the ſhips of war taken from the Spaniards in the year 1718 ſhould be reſtored; and that thereupon the petitioners, by the directions of one of his Britiſh Majeſty's ſecretaries of ſtate, abandoned the ſaid ſhip, and the Spaniards took poſſeſſion of her. And they further ſet forth, that they were ſufferers by this means upwards of ten thouſand pounds; and therefore prayed the houſe would take their caſe into conſideration, and grant them ſuch relief as they ſaw fit.

The parliament hereupon granted his Majeſty 5000l. for making ſatisfaction to Solomon Merret, and the reſt of the owners of the ſaid Spaniſh man of war, called the Santa Iſabella; which had been delivered to the Spaniards purſuant to a treaty between the two crowns. It has been remarked hereupon, that this ſeizure of the ſhip Iſabella, under pretence of the treaty made between the two crowns in the year 1721, was very unjuſt; becauſe only thoſe ſhips which had not been diſpoſed of, were to be reſtored by that treaty in the condition they were in. And as to thoſe that had been diſpoſed of, the price which the purchaſers paid for them only was to be reſtored to the Spaniards: they had no right to the ſhip, therefore by the ſaid treaty, they could have demanded only the money ſhe was ſold for; and that they ought to have demanded of the Britiſh Miniſtry, and not of thoſe who purchaſed the ſhip.

From this proceeding of the Britiſh parliament upon Merret's petition, it appears that the Spaniards could never forget or forgive the deſtruction of their fleet by Admiral Byng, on the coaſts of Sicily in the year 1718; and that the Britiſh Miniſtry were ſo far convinced of their error in that enterprize, that they paid for every ſhip they deſtroyed or took, though many of them rotted in our harbours, and the captors made nothing of them; and ſtill the Spaniards appear to have been unſatisfied; the diſgrace they received then probably was one of their ſtrongeſt inducements for breaking with us in the year 1739; however, I ſhall proceed to give an abſtract of the avowed reaſons both of Great Britain and Spain, for entring into this war, after the convention made between the two crowns for accommodating all their differences at the Pardo in Spain, on the 14th of January 1739, N. S. but firſt it will be neceſſary to take a view of the principal articles of that convention.

All the Spaniſh ſhips paid for which were taken or deſtroyed 1718.

Articles of the convention.

In the preamble thereof it is recited, that whereas differences had ariſen of late years between the two crowns of Great Britain and Spain, on account of viſiting, ſearching, and taking of veſſels, the ſeizing of effects, the regulating of limits on the frontiers, and other grievances alledged on each ſide, as well in the Weſt-Indies as elſewhere: The Kings of Great Britain and Spain had given their Plenipotentiaries full powers to adjuſt them, &c.

1. And it was agreed, that within ſix weeks after ſigning the convention, Plenipotentiaries ſhould meet finally to regulate the reſpective pretenſions of the two crowns, as well with relation to the trade and navigation in America, and Europe, the limits of Florida and Carolina, as concerning other points, which likewiſe remained to be adjuſted; the whole according to the treaties of 1667, 1670, 1713, 1715, 1721, 1728, and 1729. including that of the Aſſiento of Negroes, and the convention of 1716, the ſaid final treaty to be finiſhed within eight months.

2. During the time of the treaty, all things ſhould remain in the ſtate they were in Florida and Carolina, without increaſing the fortifications or taking any new poſts.

3. It is agreed, that Spain ſhall pay to his Britannick Majeſty the ſum of 95000 l. for a balance which has been admitted to be due to the crown and ſubjects of Great Britain, after deduction made of the demands of the crown and ſubjects of Spain; to the end that the abovemenioned ſum of 95000 l. together with the amount of what had been acknowledged on the part of Great Britain to be due to Spain, on her demands, may be employed by his Britannick Majeſty, for the ſatisfaction and payment of the demands of his ſubjects upon the crown of Spain; [*the ſum due to Spain was acknowledged to be 60000 l. which the parliament voted: moſt of it ſaid to be for a further ſatisfaction*

to the Spaniards for the deſtruction of their fleet in 1718.] provided that this reciprocal diſcharge ſhall not be pretended to extend or relate to the accounts and differences which ſubſiſt between the crown of Spain and the Aſſiento company; or to any private contracts between the two crowns or their ſubjects.

4. If the ſhip Woolball, or the value thereof, or any other Britiſh ſhips included in this valuation, have been reſtored or paid already by orders from Spain, ſuch ſums ſhall be deducted out of the 95000l. but the payment of the 95000 l. ſhall not be delayed on that account.

5. The Ratifications to be ſigned at London within ſix weeks or ſooner.

Done at the Pardo 14 January 1739.

B. Keene Sebastian de la Quadra.
(L. S.) (L. S.)

Firſt ſeparate article.

That Benjamin Keene, Eſq; and Abraham Castres, conſul in Spain, ſhall be the Plenipotentiaries on the part of Great Britain, and Don Joseph de la Quintana, and Don Stephen Joseph de Abana on the part of Spain, in the intended definitive treaty: and the aforeſaid ſum of 95000 l. is ſtipulated to be paid at London within four months after the exchange of the ratifications.

Second ſeparate article.

The ſhip Succeſs, taken 14 April 1738, coming out of Antigua by a Spaniſh garda coſta, is not comprehended in this convention; but the reſtitution thereof is to be decided by the ſaid Plenipotentiaries: The taking of the Santa Thereſa, ſeized at Dublin anno 1735, is alſo to be referred to the ſaid Plenipotentiaries. And it is further declared, that the 3d article of this convention does not extend to any ſhips or effects taken ſince the tenth of December 1737: or to any that may afterwards be taken. But juſtice ſhall be done therein according to former treaties.

The convention laid before the houſe of Peers.

This treaty of convention being read in the houſe of Lords, the Lord Carteret deſired to be informed if all the papers relating to the convention had been laid before the houſe: to which the Duke of Newcaſtle anſwered, that a declaration relating to the South-ſea company had been ſigned by the Spaniſh Miniſter, and delivered to his Britiſh Majeſty's Miniſters at Madrid; a copy whereof was afterwards laid before the houſe, being of the following tenor.

A proteſt by Spain on ſigning the convention.

That his Catholic Majeſty reſerved to himſelf in it's full force, the right of ſuſpending the Aſſiento of Negroes, in caſe the South-ſea company did not ſubject herſelf to pay within a ſhort term the ſixty eight thouſand pounds, which ſhe confeſſed to be due on the duty of Negroes; and on the profits of the ſhip Caroline: and that under the validity and force of this proteſt, the ſigning of the convention may be proceeded upon, and in no other manner. Pardo, 10 January, 1739.

Addreſs of the Lords approving the convention.

The Lords preſented an addreſs to his Majeſty hereupon, acknowledging his great prudence in bringing the demands of his ſubjects, for their paſt loſſes, which had been ſo long depending, to a final adjuſtment by the ſaid convention, and procuring an expreſs ſtipulation for a ſpeedy payment, and laying a foundation for accompliſhing the great and deſirable ends of obtaining future ſecurity, and preſerving peace between the two nations.

Proteſt againſt the addreſs.

Againſt preſenting this addreſs a proteſt was entered in the houſe of Lords, for the following reaſons, among others.

1. That it carried with it an approbation of the convention, and might induce his Majeſty to believe it was agreeable to the ſenſe and expectation of the nation.

3. That it did not ſufficiently aſſert our rights, but ſeemed to permit the viſiting and ſearching our ſhips near their coaſts, which rendered our whole American trade precarious.

6. Becauſe the reparation pretended to be made our merchants, for the loſſes they had ſuſtained, was inſufficient, the dark accounts of this tranſaction having not been fully explained, or any ſatisfactory reaſon given why our merchants demands, ſtated in an account ſigned June 14, 1738, by Mr. Stert, one of the commiſſaries, at 343,277 l. ſhould be ſo greatly reduced.

7. Becauſe Great Britain, as they apprehended, was to allow 60000 l. to the King of Spain, *chiefly on account of the ſhips taken near Sicily*, anno 1718, though it appeared by the inſtructions given to the King's commiſſaries, at the treaty of Seville, that the articles of the treaty of Madrid, concluded anno 1721, upon which that claim of the Spaniards was founded, had been fully executed on the part of Great Britain.

8. Becauſe the referring the limits of Florida and Carolina to the Plenipotentiaries ſeemed to call in queſtion our right to poſſeſſions, which we had long enjoyed, and which the nation had lately purchaſed of the proprietors under the two grants of King Charles II, and a part thereof called Georgia, had been erected into a colony, for the eſtabliſhment and improvement whereof, conſiderable ſums had been granted by the publick, notwithſtanding which it had been ſtipulated by this convention, that no fortification ſhould be encreaſed there for 8 months, at the expiration whereof, if a peace ſhould not be made, it would be expoſed, together with other colonies, to the violence and invaſions of the Spaniards.

9. Becauſe the Britiſh Miniſters acceptance of the declaration, January 10, 1738-9, ſaid to be agreed with reciprocal accord, had allowed the King of Spain a liberty to ſuſpend the Aſſiento of Negroes, if the South-ſea company did not ſubject herſelf to pay 68000 l. pretended to be owing on the duties of Negroes and profits of the ſhip Carolina, though that ſum was never otherwiſe acknowleged due than as part of a plan of accommodation, wherein a much larger ſum was admitted to be due to the company, whereby the King of Spain may look upon that great company as put out of his Majeſty's protection, and left to the mercy of the King of Spain.

10. Becauſe no ſatisfaction has been obtained by the convention for the cruelties and barbarities exerciſed on the Britiſh ſailors, or the many inſults offered to the Britiſh flag.

The commons in the mean time voted 20000 l. for eſtabliſhing and improving the colony of Georgia.

They alſo reſolved, that the ſum of 60000 l. being the ſum acknowledged to be due to Spain by the convention, be applied, together with the further ſum of 95000 l. to be advanced by the crown of Spain, towards making ſatisfaction to his Majeſty's injured ſubjects, for the damages they had ſuſtained by the depredations of the Spaniards.

War with Spain reſolved on.

Thus it appears from the convention, that Spain was to pay at London, on or before the 24th of May, the ſum of 95000 l. ſterling, for a balance, which had been admitted as due to the crown and ſubjects of Great Britain, after the deduction made of the demands of the crown and ſubjects of Spain; and as Spain neglected to make this payment on the day appointed, his Majeſty reſolved to make uſe of force, and upon the 15th of June an order was iſſued privately for making repriſals upon the Spaniards in the Weſt-Indies, with which his Majeſty's ſhip the Shoreham ſailed from the Downs the 19th; and about the ſame time it is preſumed the like orders were ſent to Admiral HADDOCK, then lying at Gibraltar, with the ſquadron under his command; for about the middle of July he began to cruize off of the bay of Cadiz, for intercepting ſuch Spaniſh ſhips as ſhould fall in his way.

Orders for repriſals publiſhed.

Theſe orders for repriſals were kept private till the 10th of July; but upon that day, the following general order for repriſals was publiſhed in the London Gazette, viz.

Whereas many and repeated depredations have been committed, and many unjuſt ſeizures have been made in the Weſt-Indies and elſewhere, by Spaniſh garda coſtas and ſhips acting under the commiſſions of the King of Spain, or his governors, contrary to the law of nations, and in violation of the treaties ſubſiſting between the crown of Great Britain and Spain, whereby his Majeſty's trading ſubjects have not only ſuſtained great loſſes, but have alſo ſuffered in their perſons by the cruelties and barbarities which have been exerciſed by the ſaid Spaniſh garda coſtas: and whereas his Majeſty has cauſed repeated inſtances and repreſentations to be made, from time to time, at the court of Spain, in order to obtain redreſs and ſatisfaction for ſuch injurious treatment and unjuſt practices, and to prevent the like violences for the future: and whereas a convention for making reparation to his Majeſty's ſubjects for their loſſes by the ſaid depredations and ſeizures, was concluded between his Majeſty and the King of Spain, on the 14th day of January laſt, N. S. by which convention it was ſtipulated, that a certain ſum of money ſhould be paid at London within a term in the ſaid convention ſpecified, as a balance admitted to be due on the part of Spain to the crown and ſubjects of Great Britain, which term did expire on the 25th of May laſt; and the pay ment of the ſaid ſtipulated ſum, as agreed by the abovementioned convention, has not been made, by which means the ſaid convention has been violated and broke on the part of the crown of Spain, and his Majeſty's ſubjects remain without any reparation or ſatisfaction for their many, great, and grievous loſſes; his Majeſty hath therefore taken this injurious proceeding of the crown of Spain into his ſerious conſideration, and his Majeſty having determined to take ſuch meaſures as are neceſſary for vindicating the honour of his crown, and for procuring reparation and ſatisfaction to his injured ſubjects, is pleaſed by and with the advice of his privy-council to order, and it is hereby ordered, that general repriſals be granted againſt the ſhips, goods, and ſubjects of the King of Spain, ſo that as well his Majeſty's fleet and ſhips, as alſo all other ſhips and veſſels that ſhall be commiſſioned by letters of marque or general repriſals, or otherwiſe by his Majeſty's commiſſioners for executing the office of Lord high Admiral of Great Britain, ſhall and may lawfully ſeize all ſhips, veſſels, and goods, belonging to the King of Spain or his ſubjects, or others inhabiting within any the territories of the King of Spain, and bring the ſame to judgment in any of the courts of admiralty within his Majeſty's dominions.

Deſign laid for intercepting the Aſſogues ſhips.

On the 9th of July EDWARD VERNON Eſq; an old captain in the navy, who had for ſeveral years been laid aſide, was reſtored by his Majeſty to his rank, and at once promoted to be Vice-Admiral of the blue ſquadron. On the 17th he ſet out for Portſmouth, and endeavoured to ſail on the 20th, but was obliged by contrary winds to come to an anchor near St. Hellen's, from whence he ſailed, with nine men of war and a ſloop, under his command, on the 23d early in the morning, but was obliged by contrary winds to put back. However he ſailed again that afternoon, but the wind ſtill continuing contrary, he got no farther than Portland road, where he was obliged to come to an anchor on the 27th; and could not ſail from thence till the 31ſt in the morning. It was thought at firſt that he was bound directly to the Weſt-Indies; but it afterwards appeared, that he had orders to cruize upon the coaſts of Spain, in order to intercept the Aſſogues ſhips. On the 21ſt of June Sir CHALONER OGLE, ſoon after made Rear-Admiral of the blue, ſet out for Portſmouth, and on the 30th he ſailed from thence with three men of war under his command; but having met with contrary winds and a violent ſtorm in the channel, by which his ſhips had received ſome damage, he was obliged to put into Plimouth, on the 13th of July, to refit, and ſailed again on the 21ſt. Theſe ſhips were likewiſe ſent to cruize upon the Spaniſh coaſts, with orders to make repriſals: and were ſeen cruiſing off Cape Finiſterre on the 25th. Thus we find all imaginable care was taken for intercepting the Aſſogues ſhips in their return from the Weſt-Indies to Old Spain; but theſe ſhips having, by an advice boat ſent from Old Spain, received orders to ſteer north about, and to get into the firſt Spaniſh port they could ſafely come at in the bay of Biſcay, arrived ſafe in the port of St. Andero on the 2d of Auguſt; and as ſoon as we had an account of their eſcape, Admiral VERNON, with ſix of the men of war under his command, ſailed to the Weſt-Indies, and Sir CHALONER OGLE, with the three men of war under his command, and three of thoſe that came out with Admiral VERNON, ſailed to reinforce Admiral HADDOCK before Cadiz.

The men of war under Admiral HADDOCK's command kept cruiſing off Cadiz, and between that and Gibraltar, they took ſeveral ſmall ſhips belonging to the enemy, and on the 23d of September a rich Spaniſh ſhip called the St. Joſeph, bound from the Caraccas to Cadiz, and belonging to the Guipuſcoan company, fell into their hands.

This ſhip was ſoon after her being taken ſent home, under convoy of the Cheſter man of war, and arrived ſafe at Spithead the 28th of October. She was a ſhip of 800 tons burthen, had 36 guns mounted, and ports for 60; but as ſhe was deeply loaded, and found herſelf encompaſſed by our ſquadron, ſhe made no reſiſtance.

This prize was computed to be worth near 150,000l. they alſo took another rich Caracca ſhip of 250 tons: on the other hand, the Spaniards ſeized five Britiſh merchant ſhips in Malaga, and ſeveral more in other ports of Spain, and fitting out abundance of privateers, they ſoon took above a hundred prizes. For as ſoon as the Court of Spain underſtood orders were iſſued for making repriſals on them, they immediately gave orders for making repriſals on the ſubjects of Great Britain, and ſeizing all the ſhips and effects of the Britiſh ſubjects that were to be found in the dominions of Spain.

In the mean time both the French and Dutch complained that the Britiſh men of war had no right to viſit their ſhips under pretence of ſearching for warlike ſtores and other contraband goods, as there was no war declared between Great Britain and Spain; whereupon his Britiſh Majeſty cauſed a declaration of war to be publiſhed on the 23d of October of the following tenor (viz.)

George R.

Declaration of war by Great Britain.

Whereas many unjuſt ſeizures have been made and depredations carried on for ſeveral years in the Weſt-Indies by Spaniſh guarda coſtas and other ſhips acting under the commiſſion of the King of Spain, or his Governors, contrary to treaties ſubſiſting between us and the Crown of Spain, and to the law of nations, to the great prejudice of the lawful trade and commerce of our ſubjects, and great cruelties and barbarities have been exerciſed on the perſons of divers of our ſubjects, whoſe veſſels have been ſo ſeized, and the Britiſh colours have been inſulted in the moſt ignominious manner: and whereas we have cauſed frequent complaints to be made to the King of Spain of theſe violent and unjuſt proceedings, but no ſatisfaction or redreſs has been given for the ſame, notwithſtanding the many promiſes made and cedula's iſſued, ſigned by the ſaid King, or by his order for that purpoſe: and whereas the evils abovementioned have been principally occaſioned by an unwarrantable claim and pretenſion ſet up on the part of Spain, that the garda coſtas and other ſhips authoriſed by the King of Spain may ſtop, detain and ſearch the ſhips and veſſels of our ſubjects navigating in the American ſeas contrary to the liberty of navigation, to which our ſubjects have not only an equal right with thoſe of the King of Spain by the law of nations, but which is moreover expreſsly acknowleged and declared to belong to them by the moſt ſolemn treaties, and particularly by that concluded anno 1670: and whereas the ſaid groundleſs claim and pretenſion, and the unjuſt practice of ſtopping, detaining and ſearching ſhips and veſſels navigating in the ſeas of America is not only of the moſt dangerous and deſtructive conſequence to the lawful commerce of our ſubjects, but alſo tends to interrupt and obſtruct the free intercourſe and correſpondence between our dominions in Europe, and our colonies and plantations in America; and by means thereof to deprive us and our ſubjects of the benefit of thoſe colonies and plantations, a conſideration of the higheſt importance to us and our kingdoms, and a practice which muſt affect in it's conſequence all other princes and ſtates in Europe, poſſeſſed of ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies, or whoſe ſubjects carry on any trade thither. And whereas beſides the notorious grounds of complaint abovementioned, many other infractions have been made on the part of Spain, of the ſeveral treaties and conventions ſubſiſting between us and that crown, and particularly of that concluded anno 1667, as well by the exorbitant duties and impoſitions laid upon the trade and commerce of our ſubjects, as by the breach of ancient and eſtabliſhed privileges, ſtipulated for them by the ſaid treaties, for the redreſs of which grievances the ſtrongeſt inſtances have from time to time been made by our ſeveral Miniſters reſiding in Spain without effect: and whereas a convention for making reparation to our ſubjects for the loſſes ſuſtained by them on account of the unjuſt ſeizures and depredations committed by the Spaniards in America, and in order to prevent for the future all grievances and cauſes of complaint, and to remove abſolutely every thing which might give occaſion thereto, was concluded between us and the King of Spain, on the 14th of January laſt, by which it was ſtipulated, that a certain ſum of money ſhould be paid in London, within a term therein ſpecified, as a balance admitted to be due on the part of Spain to the crown and ſubjects of Great Britain, which term expired on the 25th of May laſt, and the payment of the ſaid ſum was not made, according to the ſtipulation for that purpoſe, by which means the convention abovementioned was manifeſtly violated and broken by the King of Spain, and our ſubjects remained without any ſatisfaction or reparation for the many grievous loſſes ſuſtained by them, and the methods agreed upon by the ſaid convention, in order to the obtaining future ſecurity for the trade and navigation of our ſubjects, are contrary to good faith fruſtrated and defeated; in conſequence of which we found ourſelves obliged, for vindicating the honour of our crown, and for procuring reparation and ſatisfaction for our injured ſubjects, to order that general repriſals ſhould be granted againſt the ſaid King of Spain, his vaſſals and ſubjects, their ſhips, goods and effects: And whereas the Court of Spain has been induced to colour the open violation of the convention aforeſaid by reaſons and pretenſions void of all foundation, and publiſhed an order for the ſeizing the ſhips, goods and effects of our ſubjects, and cauſed ſeizures to be actually made of the goods and effects of our ſubjects reſiding in his dominions, and ordered our ſaid ſubjects to depart the Spaniſh dominions within a ſhort time limited, contrary to the expreſs ſtipulations of treaties, even in caſe of war actually declared: We therefore relying on the help of Almighty God do declare war againſt the ſaid King of Spain, &c.

Dated at Kenſington 19 October 1739.
13 George II.

A manifeſto by the King of Spain.

The King of Spain, in anſwer to the charge of depredation, breach of faith, &c. with which he had been charged by Great Britain, publiſhed a manifeſto, and afterwards a declaration of war, wherein he endeavoured to retort the charge, and ſhew that Great Britain was the aggreſſor: he obſerves, that notwithſtanding the South Sea company had refuſed to give him ſecurity for the ſum of 68000 l. which was acknowledged to be due to him, he had given orders to Don Thomas Geraldino, his plenipotentiary at the Britiſh Court, to pay the whole ſum of 95000 l. agreed on at the ſigning the convention; that as ſoon as the convention was ratified, he ordered his ſquadron to be diſarmed, and ſent his orders to Florida for a ceſſation of hoſtilities, and that all things ſhould remain in their preſent ſtate, as had been ſtipulated by the convention: whereas England had acted a contrary part, had recalled admiral Haddock's ſquadron from Port Mahon, and ſtationed them at Gibraltar in the middle of the Spaniſh coaſts, and had neglected to ſend orders to Carolina for the ceſſation of hoſtilities, and putting a ſtop to the fortifications on that ſide: That the Britiſh King ſupported the tranſactions of the South Sea company; whereas before the convention they were regarded only as a contract made with a private perſon.

That theſe proceedings occaſioned his notifying to Mr. Keene, the Britiſh Plenipotentiary, how much the continuance of admiral Haddock's ſquadron at Gibraltar would hinder the effect of the convention; notwithſtanding which, orders were

were given to admiral HADDOCK to cruiſe between the Capes of St. Vincent and St. Mary, to ſurpriſe the Aſſogues ſhips, and that orders were given for making repriſals in a moſt indecent ſtile, which had been put in execution in ſeveral places; and that his patience being thus provoked, he had determined to make repriſals alſo, by ſeizing the goods and effects of the Britiſh King and his ſubjects in the dominions of Spain. Signed,

I the King.

The King of Spain's reaſons for not paying the 95000 l. ſtipulated by the convention.

The King of Spain's reaſons for not paying the 95000 l

The convention is a contract where the engagements are reciprocal, conſequently, when either party fails in the execution of them the other is thereby diſengaged; from whence it follows, that the Britiſh court having firſt failed and contravened moſt of the articles, gave room to Spain to refuſe executing her part.

The keeping a ſquadron on the coaſt of Spain.

1. That the court of Great Britain having given orders to the Engliſh ſquadron to quit the coaſt of Spain, and afterwards countermanded thoſe orders, Spain ſuſpected that the clamours of the populace, and the party oppoſite to the Britiſh miniſtry, had prevailed with the court to recede from its engagements: for the keeping a ſquadron in the center of the coaſts of Spain, could be deſigned for no other purpoſe than to interrupt the trade, and could be looked upon in no other light than a continual hoſtility.

The ſending forces to America.

2. That the court of Great Britain ſent no orders to Carolina to diſcontinue the new fortifications there, as was ſtipulated by the convention, and that three men of war were ſent on frivolous pretenſions to reinforce the Engliſh ſquadron at Jamaica, beſides troops and warlike ſtores.

The South Sea company not paying 68000 l.

3. The third contravention was founded on that agreement, that his Catholick Majeſty ſhould have the entire right of ſuſpending the Aſſiento of negroes in caſe the company did not ſubmit to pay within a ſhort time the 68000 l. which was confeſſed to be due, the Engliſh Plenipotentiary having inſiſted that the effects taken in the Indies from the South Sea company by way of repriſals in 1718 and 1727, ſhould be reſtored before the 68000 l. was paid, which was the balance of a ſettled account, and would put it upon an equal foot with a ſum not ſtated or ſettled, and which was agreed by the ſecond ſeparate article to be debated in ſeparate negotiations.

The King of Spain denied the liberty of ſuſpending the Aſſiento.

4. The Engliſh Plenipotentiaries would have it declared, that the King of Spain had no power to ſuſpend the Aſſiento contract, as being a national treaty; whereas the contrary was expreſsly ſpecified in the aboveſaid declaration, on the validity of which depended the validity of the convention; and yet every body muſt be ſenſible that the Engliſh Miniſtry, inſtead of obliging the company to pay the King the 68000 l. were ſeeking to elude the payment of it, thereby undermining the very foundation on which the convention was built.

The reſtitution of a ſhip inſiſted on.

5. The Engliſh had inſiſted on the reſtitution of a ſhip taken ſince the convention was ſigned, though all matters ſubſequent to the convention were left to the diſcuſſion of the Plenipotentiaries.

The delay of ſending inſtructions to the Plenipotentiaries.

6. The Engliſh Plenipotentiaries were not furniſhed with inſtructions within eight months, which ſhould have been ſent within ſix.

The inſiſting on a free navigation.

7. That the Engliſh Plenipotentiaries inſiſted on a liberty of navigation in all the American ſeas, which was a direct infraction of the firſt article of the convention, wherein it is ſtipulated, that the reſpective pretenſions of the two crowns, with regard to trade and navigation in America, ſhould be ſettled in the conferences according to the treaties therein ſpecified: that England has no right of free navigation but to and from its own colonies, for it is declared by the eighth article of the treaty of Utrecht, Anno 1713, that the navigation of the Engliſh in America ſhall continue on the ſame foot that it was in the reign of CHARLES II, and during that reign all ſtrangers by the fundamental laws of the kingdom were excluded, from trading with, or entering into the Spaniſh Weſt Indies; and by the ſame article Queen ANNE obliged herſelf not only to obſerve, but to guarantee thoſe fundamental laws; the Queen alſo obliged herſelf to guarantee the limits as they ſtood at that time, and where any encroachments had been made to reſtore and ſettle them upon the ancient footing: In former treaties with every nation all that had been ſtipulated was a free navigation to their colonies, *and not to all the other ſeas* that were within the King of Spain's juriſdiction, diſtinguiſhed by the character of the Spaniſh Indies, whereunto all entrance and trade are prohibited, foreign nations having no colonies that require paſſing near thoſe ſeas; and the claiming a right of free navigation to or near them, can be with no other view *than to encreaſe the illicit unwarrantable trade which the Engliſh have for a long time, and do ſtill carry on, a trade that is already become ſo conſiderable as to yield annually ſeveral millions, as they themſelves confeſs*; a trade prejudicial to that of other nations, and greatly hurtful and injurious to his Catholick Majeſty's revenues and government.

And why ſhould the Engliſh be ſurpriſed at this demand, when they, even in the midſt of Europe, aſſume to themſelves the ſupreme dominion of the ocean, though it be common to all ſovereigns whoſe dominions it waſhes? there they inſiſt that all nations ſhall ſtrike to their colours, and attribute to themſelves the ſole right of fiſhing in them, making other nations pay for the liberty of fiſhing there: how can they, who form ſuch groundleſs pretenſions in the ſeas of Europe, exclaim againſt the Spaniards, who poſſeſs all the coaſts in thoſe ſeas in America for taking juſt precautions againſt a ſmuggling and unlawful trade, carried on in the Spaniſh dominions?

In the 15th article of the treaty of 1670, it is ſaid, *That each of the contracting parties ſhall have and retain the lordſhip of the ſeas, ſtraits and freſh waters in America, which belong to them*; conſequently all the ſeas are not free, there are ſome which the ſovereigns ought to enjoy excluſively of all others; concluding that the only view England has is to maintain by her arms the unjuſt uſurpation of the territories ſhe has invaded (in Florida) in breach of the treaty of Utrecht, and to maintain herſelf in the clandeſtine trade ſhe carries on to the prejudice of the lawful trade of the allies of Spain: whereas that crown has no other views than to defend its honour, and maintain the intereſt of it's dominions, and thoſe of its allies, by ſtrictly obſerving treaties: offending or inſulting no nation, but ſeeing with concern the blow given to the publick repoſe by England's breach of the peace.

The King of Spain's declaration of war.

A declaration of war ſucceeded this manifeſto dated 28th November 1739; wherein the King of Spain does not only authoriſe his ſubjects to commit all manner of hoſtilities againſt the King of Great Britain and his ſubjects, but orders their effects in his dominions to be ſeized, and commands all the natives of Britain to remove out of his territories immediately.

And to diſtreſs Great Britain the more, he ordered, that all goods and manufactures whatever of that nation ſhould be ſeized and confiſcated, though imported by his own ſubjects, or any neutral nation.

Another manifeſto of the King of Spain.

The King of Spain's declaration of war was attended with another manifeſto, wherein he recriminates and charges the ſubjects of Britain with ſeveral acts of depredation and cruelty committed in America, particularly that in the year 1716 and 1717 the captains CUTHBERT and ARCHER, commanders of the ſhips Pompey and Fortune, being authorized by the Britiſh King, went to the coaſt of Florida in ſearch of the wreck of ſome Spaniſh Galeons which were loſt there, and joining with other Engliſhmen from Jamaica, drove away the Spaniards, who were endeavouring to ſave thoſe effects, and landing ſix hundred men afterwards, killed thirty Spaniards, of one hundred and twenty that were left there, to guard the treaſure they had already recovered out of the ſea, and robbed them of four hundred thouſand pieces of eight [4 s. 6 d.] and in their return to Jamaica the Engliſh took two Spaniſh veſſels loaden with cacao, cochineal and treaſure, amounting to the value of thirty thouſand pieces of eight.

That in the year 1722 the Engliſh took a ſhip of Porto Rico, which had a commiſſion from the governor of that iſland, and carried her to Jamaica, and without pretending any other crime than that he was a guarda coſta, hanged up forty three of the ſhip's crew, alledging for a pretence, that the governor of Porto Rico was as bad as the guarda coſta.

That an Engliſh captain, who was uſed to carry on a clandeſtine trade on the coaſts of Spaniſh America, having enticed on board his ſhip two Spaniſh gentlemen of diſtinction, imagining he ſhould get more by making them priſoners than by trade, in order to force them to ranſom themſelves, left them without nouriſhment; and when he found he was not like to obtain his ends by ſtarving them, he cut off the ears and noſe of one of them, and holding a dagger to his breaſt, forced him to eat them.

That before the war was declared in 1727, an Engliſhman belonging to one of the Aſſiento ſhips at the Havanna, incited the negroes there to make an inſurrection, plunder the place, and maſſacre the inhabitants. That the Engliſh had taken ſeveral Spaniards priſoners, and ſold them for ſlaves in diſtant countries, where it was difficult to relieve or redeem them: that in the year 1725 they were ſo infatuated as to carry eight of theſe unhappy wretches to Madeira, where the Spaniſh conſul giving notice of their misfortunes, the Spaniſh ambaſſador at Liſbon ſolicited their diſcharge.

If ſuch inſtances of cruelty and injuſtice could be alledged by the Engliſh, then might they juſtify their declaration of war; but the prizes that were taken from them that carried on an unlawful trade, which the Engliſh themſelves confeſſed, acknowledging that the gain of it amounted to ſix millions per ann. and the repelling by force thoſe that endeavoured to protect ſuch fraudulent attempts, could never juſtify the clamours that had been raiſed: England her ſelf ought rather to have put a ſtop to theſe enterpriſes, as ſhe was obliged by the ſeventh article of the treaty of Utrecht to guarantee the fundamental laws of Spain, which prohibited foreigners to enter and trade in the ſeas and territories of Spaniſh America. Are the Spaniards by any treaty obliged to leave their coaſts defenceleſs, and ſuffer ſuch ſwarms of Engliſh ſhips to enter their harbours, and carry off the produce of their mines without oppoſition? Have the Spaniards ever inſulted the Britiſh colonies, or robbed them of their produce and effects? Wherever the guarda coſtas have taken any Britiſh ſhips, they have been reſtored, if full proof has not been made of their carrying on a clandeſtine trade with the Spaniſh dominions; from whence it follows, that the hoſtilities in America have been occaſioned by the licentious enterpriſes of the Engliſh, and not from any offence given by the Spaniards.

As to that complaint in the Britiſh declaration of war, the laying high duties upon Britiſh merchandiſe, the Engliſh and all other nations practiſe the like, therefore this can be no juſt pretence for the Engliſh to declare war.

That as to the infringement of treaties, ſo much complained of by the Engliſh, they themſelves have been moſt guilty in this reſpect, for they obliged themſelves by the 15th article of the treaty of Utrecht, to ſuffer the Biſcayners and other ſubjects of Spain to fiſh for cod at Newfoundland; and by the ſecond article of the treaty of 1721, they promiſed to give orders accordingly; but the Spaniards have been deprived of that fiſhery, which ſo juſtly belongs to them ever ſince: alſo by the 10th article of the treaty of Utrecht, England obliged herſelf not to grant refuge to any armed Mooriſh veſſels in Gibraltar, which have notwithſtanding been protected there: and though by the ſame article that place was yielded to England without any territorial juriſdiction, or communication with the adjacent country, they have pretended that the territory as far as their guns can reach ought to be comprehended; and though it was agreed in the year 1728 to abandon the diſputed places on both ſides, the Engliſh have ſince poſſeſſed themſelves thereof; but this is not the only falſe proceeding in reſpect to this place: the late King of England, GEORGE I, by a letter dated $\frac{1}{12}$ of June 1721, offered the King of Spain the reſtitution thereof, the tranſlation of which letter follows,

"Sir and Brother,

"I have heard with extreme ſatisfaction, by "the means of my ambaſſador at your court, "that your Majeſty is come to the reſolution at "laſt to remove the obſtacles which for ſome "time have delayed the entire eſtabliſhment of "our friendſhip; and ſince by the confidence which "your Majeſty declares you have in me, I can "depend upon the treaties which have been diſputed between us, as being now re-eſtabliſhed, "and that conſequently the neceſſary inſtruments "for the trade of my ſubjects have been ſettled, I ſhall no longer delay aſſuring your "Majeſty of my readineſs to give ſatisfaction as "to what concerns the reſtitution of Gibraltar, "giving you my promiſe, that I will make uſe "of the firſt favourable opportunity to regulate "this article in concert with my parliament."

That the eighth article of the treaty of Utrecht has alſo been eluded concerning the limits in

America, which were agreed to be ſettled by the governors of Florida and Carolina in the year 1721 and 1724; but when the governor of Florida ſent an officer and twenty-five men to Carolina with a copy of that agreement, they were ſtripped of their arms and forced to endure a moſt rigorous impriſonment: that in the year 1735 Don THOMAS GERALDINO, the Spaniſh Miniſter at London, was aſſured that Mr. OGLETHORPE had orders to ſettle the limits; but on the contrary he carried over an order to people thoſe places which were uninhabited, and proceeded to commit ſeveral hoſtile acts, marched up within ſight of Fort St. Auguſtine, the Britiſh King having taken upon him to diſpoſe of all the lands in Georgia that were not before occupied by the Engliſh, which was directly oppoſite to the ſeventh article of the treaty of 1670, which excludes them from all that they did not at that time poſſeſs.

Nor was their right to cut logwood better founded, being ſupported by force, not by reaſon, to that exceſs as to ruin the unfortunate people of Baculler in three ſeveral ſieges, becauſe they defended the King of Spain's rights, and proved an obſtacle to thoſe attempts.

The manifeſto concludes, that the King of Spain had ordered repriſals, becauſe they were before ordered by England; and that Spain had declared war, becauſe England had declared war before; ſo that the King of Spain was no way anſwerable for the blood and devaſtations which the fury of war occaſioned, though he did not doubt but the King of England had been driven into theſe meaſures by the unreaſonable clamours of his ſubjects.

The juſtice of the war examined.

Before I proceed to relate the progreſs of the war, it may be proper to examine the juſtice of it; for as one ſide is always in the wrong, it very often happens, that neither have much right to boaſt of. In the preſent caſe the Spaniards charge the ſubjects of Britain with carrying on an unlawful clandeſtine trade with their American colonies, and Britain complains her ſhips are taken and plundered, that never were concerned in any ſuch trade: the Spaniards again complain, that the ſubjects of Britain invade their country, cut logwood in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, and maintain their uſurpations there by force of arms: the ſubjects of Britain inſiſt, that the countries where they cut logwood are not inhabited or cultivated by the Spaniards, or any other people, and conſequently they have a right to enjoy the fruits of their labours; that the Spaniards are guilty of great injuſtice therefore, when they ſeize or deſtroy thoſe ſhips that are loaden with logwood: that the Engliſh do carry on a clandeſtine trade with the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, and have done ſo theſe hundred years, muſt be admitted; but then it muſt be acknowledged, that the crown of England never *authoriſed* its ſubjects to carry on ſuch a trade, but on the contrary have ſeveral times ſtrictly prohibited it, and I do not remember an inſtance of the Britiſh government's protecting any Britiſh ſhips that have been taken in the fact.

The Spaniards, it is true, find it impoſſible to cover a coaſt of ſo many thouſand miles extent from being viſited by foreigners, and the Engliſh, Dutch and French do and will trade with their American ſubjects, as long as there is ſomething to be got by it, whatever hazards they run, eſpecially ſince the ſubjects of Spain in America, even their Governors and Magiſtrates, are as ready to receive the goods that are brought them in this clandeſtine way, as foreigners are to receive their money (for ſuch goods are generally paid for in pieces of eight) and poſſibly Great Britain gains as much treaſure by this traffick as by any branch of trade, which is the principal reaſon, probably, that the government of England ſometimes connives at it, if they do not protect it: for if the laws of England made it as criminal to carry on a clandeſtine trade with the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, as it is to run goods and carry on a ſmuggling trade in Europe, this would very much reſtrain that practice, at leaſt it might ſatisfy the Spaniards, and induce them to relinquiſh their pretended right of viſiting our ſhips in their voyages to and from our plantations. I doubt therefore Great Britain is in the wrong in not laying more effectual reſtraints on that ſmuggling trade, their ſubjects carry on with the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies; and the Spaniards are no leſs in the wrong in viſiting and ſearching the ſhips of Great Britain on the high ſeas, ſailing to and from their own plantations: it is true it would be very hard upon the Engliſh if the French and Dutch ſhould be ſuffered to carry on this illicit trade in the Weſt-Indies (as they certainly do) while the Engliſh are excluded from it, and therefore it is preſumed that both the French and Dutch will be excluded from it as well as the Engliſh in the next treaty of peace.

But though this clandeſtine practice of running in goods upon the Spaniards in their American plantations might be reſtrained by the reſpective powers whoſe ſubjects carry it on, and though this would ſatisfy the Spaniards and induce them to relinquiſh their pretenſions of viſiting the ſhips of foreigners in their voyages to and from their reſpective colonies; there ſtill remains a very perplexed affair to be adjuſted, which I deſpair almoſt of ever ſeeing regulated to the ſatisfaction of both parties, whatever terms either of them may *by force* be obliged to ſubmit to, to avoid greater evils, and that is the right of cutting logwood and making ſettlements on the continent or iſlands of America, not in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards, either in ſuch countries as they have never poſſeſſed, or have forſaken for richer ſettlements.

The Spaniards on their firſt diſcovery of America did imagine that they were intituled to that entire continent, with the ſeas and iſlands bordering upon it; and that all other nations were excluded from ſettling in any part of America, or trading with the natives; and accordingly they deſtroyed or made prizes of all ſhips they met with in thoſe ſeas for many years, put to death or made ſlaves of the ſubjects of all nations that navigated ſuch veſſels, and robbed and plundered them of their goods as long as they durſt; that is as long as they were ſuperior to other powers at ſea.

But when the Engliſh, French and Dutch began to encreaſe their naval force, and to extend their traffick, they made bold to viſit the American coaſts, ſent colonies thither, and trafficked with the natives without aſking the Spaniards leave; and where they met with oppoſition, repelled force by force, till the reſpective powers entered into treaties, whereby it was mutually agreed, that each ſhould enjoy what they were poſſeſſed of, with freedom of navigation, to and from their reſpective colonies: but ſtill the Engliſh, French and Dutch pretended to plant ſuch countries as were not occupied, or had been abandoned by the Spaniards, particularly the Engliſh extended their territories in Florida and Canada, to which they gave the name of Carolina, New England, &c. The French poſſeſſed other parts of it, to which they gave the names of New France and Louiſiane; and the Dutch New Netherlands and Surinam. Theſe nations alſo planted ſeveral of the Caribbee Iſlands, and the French ſettled on the northſide of Hiſpaniola, which had been abandoned by the Spaniards; and the Engliſh finding the bay of Campeachy and Honduras, where the logwood grows, unoccupied by any, ſettled there, and annually cut great quantities of logwood; upon this the Spaniards revived their pretenſions of being proprietors of all America, whether uſed or cultivated by them or not, except ſuch parts of it as were in the poſſeſſion of other nations when the former treaties were concluded; they inſiſted that no European nations had a right to enlarge their plantations in America, or extend their commerce in the new world but themſelves, and thereupon attacked our logwood cutters and drove them from the bay of Campeachy;——took their ſhips and effects, and murdered the people on board frequently; whereupon the Britiſh logwood cutters removed to the bay of Honduras, and fixed themſelves in a part of the country almoſt inacceſſible, where they defy all the power of Spain to expel them; but the Spaniſh guarda coſta's frequently meet with their ſhips loaden with logwood at ſea, make prizes of them or ſink them. We are endeavouring alſo to make ſettlements among the Moſqueta Indians, and in other places not under the dominion of the Spaniards, apprehending we have a right to plant any countries not ſubject to the Spaniards; and if they rob and murder our people engaged in ſuch enterprizes, the Engliſh have all the reaſon in the world to demand ſatisfaction for ſuch outrages, and may very juſtly enter into a war for the ſecurity and protection of their ſettlements and traffick; and I cannot ſee how this quarrel can ever be ended if the Spaniards inſiſt on a right of deſtroying our ſettlements, and of plundering and murdering our people, who are employed in planting colonies in lands that are unoccupied and uninhabited by them.

No private man, or body of men or nation, whoſe ſubjects ſhall diſcover a country of a vaſt extent, ſuch as America is (perhaps eight or ten thouſand miles in length) can by virtue of ſuch diſcovery and planting a ſmall part of it, entitle themſelves to the whole, ſo as to exclude all other nations from it; they can entitle themſelves to no more than they can uſe, admitting there were no inhabitants; but when there are, as the caſe was in America, and many nations remain unſubdued by the Spaniards to this day, ſurely any other nation is at liberty to traffick with ſuch independent Indians, make alliances, and purchaſe lands of them, and erect towns and fortreſſes on ſuch lands for their ſecurity, the Indians being the only true proprietors of the ſoil; the Spaniards are but invaders and uſurpers wherever they have ſettled, and have no other right than what they gained by the deſtruction and extirpation of the natives.

It is true, as there have been ſeveral treaties between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, wherein it hath been ſtipulated not to diſturb or moleſt each other in ſuch acquiſitions as either party was poſſeſſed of in America at the concluſion of ſuch treaties, ſo far each party has limited their pretenſions, and ought not to break through thoſe agreements; but this cannot affect their making acquiſitions in any other parts of the country, not then poſſeſſed by either party, or ſince abandoned by either: and this ſeems to have been the opinion of the Spaniards themſelves, or they would never have ſuffered the French to have ſeized on the north ſide of Hiſpaniola, or on the beſt part of Florida, to which they have given the names of Louiſiane and New France, when the Spaniards had not totally abandoned either, but ſtill remain poſſeſſed of ſome part of theſe countries, particularly of the capital city and diſtrict of Domingo in Hiſpaniola, and of St. Auguſtin in Florida. If it be lawful for the French to take poſſeſſion of theſe places, which the Spaniards have abandoned for better, or were not able to occupy, it is ſurely as lawful for the Engliſh to plant and occupy other parts of America not uſed or poſſeſſed by Spain, with the conſent, and indeed by the invitation of the natives, who deſire our people to protect them againſt the invaſions and uſurpations of the Spaniards, whoſe avarice and ambition know no bounds.

Had Great Britain therefore offered to reſtrain that clandeſtine ſmuggling trade her ſubjects carry on in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, the war muſt have appeared juſt on her part; for as to the cutting of logwood in places unpoſſeſſed by the Spaniards, or making ſettlements either upon the continent or iſlands unſubdued or deſerted by them, this could give them no pretence to quarrel with us, any more than our deſtroying the Spaniſh fleet on the coaſt of Sicily in the year 1718; for how imprudent ſoever it was to enter into a war with Spain at that time, as we had engaged to defend Sicily, and guaranteed it to the Duke of Savoy, whom we had advanced to that throne, the defeating a fleet which aſſiſted in the invaſion of Sicily was but in purſuance of engagements the Spaniards were appriſed we had entered into: but admitting that enterprize was unwarrantable, we had made them ample amends for their loſſes; we paid them for every ſhip we deſtroyed or took, and ſtill they made a further demand on us for the damage done, which Great Britain agreed to ſatisfy by the late treaty of convention; add to this that England convoyed Don Carlos to Italy, and gave him an opportunity of mounting the throne of the two Sicilies and of driving the Imperialiſts out of Italy almoſt, which was ſurely more than an equivalent for what the Spaniſh fleet ſuffered in the year 1718.

The infractions of the Aſſiento contract, the many ſeizures of the South-Sea company's effects, and the frequent interruption of their trade, by which they loſt the value of ſome millions, was certainly a juſt cauſe for our declaring war againſt Spain, eſpecially when that Court inſiſted on being paid 68000 l. by that company, as the foundation of the treaty of convention, whether there was in reality ſo great a ſum due from Spain to the company.

There remains another article to be enquired into, mentioned in the King of Spain's manifeſto, and that is the not reſtoring Gibraltar as had been promiſed by King George I. and it does indeed appear that the late King George had in a manner agreed to deliver up Gibraltar in order to preſerve a good correſpondence with Spain, by his letter abovementioned, believing that the nation would not have oppoſed it; but he plainly intimates in that letter, that he would have the concurrence of the Britiſh parliament before he made an abſolute ceſſion of it: and therefore when he found the Britiſh parliament averſe to the parting with Gibraltar, he ſeems to have been at full liberty to alter his mind, and the not reſtoring it therefore could not give the Spaniards any juſt occaſion to quarrel with us; it is true the King of England by his prerogative may make peace or war, and conſequently may limit the terms on which it ſhall be concluded, without conſulting his parliament; but this no wiſe Prince will do, where any of the Britiſh territories are to be yielded up to any foreign power as a condition of ſuch a peace.

There is a moſt barbarous fact mentioned in the King of Spain's manifeſto, ſaid to have been committed by the ſubjects of Great Britain, which I was amazed at when I read it, and that is the cutting off a Spaniſh gentleman's noſe and ears, they had enticed on board their ſhip, and compelling him to eat them; but upon enquiring into that matter, I find the people charged with this barbarity were pirates of all nations, whoſe cruelty ought no more to be aſcribed to the Engliſh than to any other people.

And as to that inſtance of fiſhing up a wreck upon the coaſt of Florida, attacking and killing ſeveral Spaniards who guarded part of the treaſure on ſhore that had been recovered, and afterwards plundering ſome Spaniſh ſhips in their paſſage to Jamaica in the years 1716 and 1717, the Engliſh concerned in theſe outrages were proclaimed pirates by the court of England, and ordered to be proſecuted as ſuch, for having exceeded their commiſſion, and their eſtates were confiſcated to make the Spaniards ſatisfaction; ſo far were they from being authoriſed to commit ſuch outrages by the Britiſh government: and after all it appears, that the Spaniards attacked the Engliſh, and not the Engliſh the Spaniards, both on ſhore and at ſea, which very much alters the caſe.

Thus having enquired into the juſtice of the war, I proceed to obſerve the progreſs of it.

Three Engliſh gentlemen cruelly murdered by the Spaniards at Honduras.

The Spaniards having for ſeveral years inſiſted on their right to oppoſe the Britiſh ſubjects cutting of logwood in the bay of Honduras, and having taken or deſtroyed many Britiſh ſhips and ſloops in that bay as intimated already; in the month of April 1739 one of their guarda coſtas took in that bay a ſhip belonging to Boſton in New England, commanded by captain COBB; and alſo a ſloop of Bermudas, commanded by captain BURGES. At the ſame time they took a ſloop belonging to New England, commanded by captain COLLIS, with two of the owners, Mr. JOSEPH WILLIAMS, and Mr. WILLIAM BARBOUR on board; and what was moſt cruel and provoking, they murdered the captain and the two owners in cold blood, after they had taken the ſloop.

They encourage the Carolina negroes to deſert.

About the ſame time, or rather in the month of March preceding, they publiſhed a proclamation at St. Auguſtine, giving freedom to all white ſervants and Negro or Indian ſlaves, belonging to Carolina, Puriſburg or Georgia, that would go over to them, and allotted them a piece of land near that fort to ſettle and make plantations, which was a method of proceeding never practiſed by any nation in the world that pretended to be in peace and friendſhip with another. But this they did not ſatisfy themſelves with, for in the month of June, a number of them came and attacked the houſe of captain MACPHERSON, on the confines of Georgia next to St. Auguſtine, where they killed ſome of the ſervants, and would probably have murdered the captain and his whole family; but the neighbourhood being alarmed, and coming to his aſſiſtance the aſſaſſins took to their heels, as ſoon as they found they were like to meet with an enemy equal to them in number.

Orders for repriſals arrive in the Weſt-Indies.

Theſe and many ſuch like practices made the people in all our plantations long for a war with the Spaniards, and therefore the orders for repriſals were received in every place with great joy. I have before given an account that theſe orders were dated the 15th of June, and diſpatched to the Weſt Indies by the Shoreham man of war, which ſailed from the Downs the 19th of the ſame month. Upon the 5th of Auguſt ſhe arrived at Jamaica, having in her paſſage thither touched at the Leeward iſlands, and ſent the orders for repriſals to the Governor of thoſe iſlands, and to the Governor of Barbadoes.

Commodore BROWNE's expedition

Theſe orders were publiſhed at every place as ſoon as they arrived, and as ſoon as commodore BROWNE received them at Jamaica, he prepared for putting to ſea with five of the men of war under his command. Accordingly he ſet ſail on the 14th, and having approached very near ſome of the forts at the Havanna, they fired upon him, which compliment he returned, but neither did any harm to the other. He then made a cruize through the gulph of Mexico towards Porto Bello, and returned to Jamaica, without making an attempt upon any of the Spaniſh ſettlements at land, ſuppoſing himſelf not warranted, it is preſumed, by his orders to do ſo. Soon after he ſailed from Jamaica, he ſent the Sheerneſs man of war, captain STAPLETON to Carthagena, to obſerve the ſituation of the Spaniſh fleet at that place, who approaching very near to the mouth of that harbour, and making an appearance like a merchant ſhip with French colours, DON BLASS, the Spaniſh admiral there, ſent his lieutenant and pinnace out to conduct him into the harbour; but as ſoon as he came on board, he and the boat's crew were made priſoners, and afterwards carried into Jamaica. By the immediate publication of the orders for repriſals, and by theſe warlike appearances, the Spaniards, at all their ſettlements in that part of the world, were made ſenſible of the rupture between the two nations.

Admiral VERNON arrives and ſends three ſhips againſt La Guara.

On the 29th of September admiral VERNON, with the ſhips under his command, arrived at Antigua, and on the 23d of October at Jamaica, where he took upon himſelf the command of all his Majeſty's ſhips in thoſe parts, and having heard at Antigua, that there were ſeveral rich Spaniſh ſhips at La Guara, a port and little town upon the Caracca coaſt, he in his paſſage to Jamaica, diſpatched captain WATERHOUSE with three men of war, to endeavour to take that place, and bring the ſhips off. Accordingly they ſailed thither, and diſcovered that there were ſeventeen ſail of ſhips in the harbour, which was defended by three forts. They ſteered up almoſt cloſe to the forts, and battered them and the town for a conſiderable time, by which means they beat down a great part of their fortifications, churches, and houſes, and would have landed, in order to have attacked the forts ſword in hand, which moſt of the lieutenants and ſailors were extremely eager for doing; but as one of the ſhips was pretty much damaged by the fire from the forts, and as the wind began to blow very hard, the Commodore thought it too dangerous an undertaking, and therefore would not allow his brave ſailors to expoſe themſelves to ſo much danger; ſo that after having done a great deal of damage to the forts and town, they were obliged to leave the place and return to Jamaica.

Account of the taking of Porto Bello.

The next expedition was conducted by Vice-admiral VERNON himſelf, who ſailed from Jamaica on the fifth of November, with his Majeſty's ſhips the Burford, Hampton-Court, Princeſs Louiſa, Worceſter, Strafford, Norwich, and Sheerneſs, the laſt of which he ordered to cruize off Carthagena. On the 20th of November in the evening he came in ſight of Porto Bello, having been delayed in his paſſage by contrary winds. There being but little wind that evening, though a very great ſwell, he anchored for that night ſix leagues off the ſhore, being apprehenſive of driving to the eaſtward of the harbour.

On the 21ſt in the morning, the Admiral plied to windward in line of battle, having given the proper orders for the attack; but the wind proving eaſterly, he was obliged to confine his attack to the Iron fort only, cloſe to which the ſquadron was piloted by captain RENTONE.

Commodore BROWNE, in the Hampton-Court, who led the attack, executed his part as became an officer of experience and reſolution; and being well followed by captain HERBERT in the Norwich, and captain MAYNE in the Worceſter, the admiral perceived that ſome of the Spaniards fled from ſeveral parts of the fort; upon which he made the ſignal for the boats in which the ſoldiers were, to make the beſt of their way in order to their landing, whilſt he was coming up to the fort to batter it. The Admiral luffing up as near to the fort as he could, the fire of his ſmall arms commanded the enemy's lower batteries, and had a good effect in driving them from thoſe batteries, from which they could do moſt harm; and by this means the men were alſo ſecured at landing: and this (as the enemy afterwards confeſſed) was the principal occaſion of their deſerting the lower batteries, the ſmall ſhot from the former ſhips not having reached them, though their cannon had beat down ſome of the upper part of the fort. As the boats came near the Admiral's ſhip, he called to them to go directly on ſhore under the walls of the fort, though there was no breach made; but this anſwered as was expected, by throwing the enemy into a general conſternation, the officers and men who had ſtood to the lower battery flying to the upper part of the fort, where they held up a white ſignal for capitulating. The Admiral anſwered with a white flag, but it was ſome time before he could ſtop his own men, and thoſe on board the Strafford, captain TREVOR, which followed him, from firing.

In the mean time the ſeamen had climbed up to the walls of the lower battery, and ſtruck the colours, and then drew the ſoldiers up after them, to whom the Spaniards, who had retired to the upper part of the fort, ſoon after ſurrendered at diſcretion. Their number was only five officers, and 35 men, out of about 300, the reſt being either killed or wounded, or having made their eſcape.

The ſhips that went before the Admiral were fallen to leeward, ſo as to be out of ſight of the Gloria caſtle; but the Admiral's ſhip lying open to the ſaid caſtle, they kept firing one of their longeſt guns at him till night, but not being within point blank, their ſhot either fell ſhort, or went over him; only one ſhot went through the head of his foretopmaſt, juſt above the rigging, ſo that it did no harm.

The Admiral finding they continued their firing, tried ſome of his lower tier at them; which being new guns, anſwered beyond expectation, carrying over the Gloria caſtle into the town; none of the ſhot falling ſhort, and one of them going through the governor's houſe, and ſome through other houſes in the town.

This ſucceſsful beginning was attended with a very inconſiderable loſs, there being only three men killed and five wounded on board the Admiral's ſhip; the like number were killed and wounded on board the Worceſter, and one man had both his legs ſhot off on board the Hampton Court. The other ſhips had none killed or wounded, and only two ſoldiers were ſhot going aſhore, one of which died ſoon after of his wounds.

The next morning being the 22d, the Admiral went on board Commodore BROWNE, to call the captains to conſult together, and give out the neceſſary orders for warping the ſhips up the next night, in order to attack the Gloria caſtle the night following, as it would not have been practicable to attempt in the day time: but in this he was prevented, by the enemy's putting up a white flag at the Gloria caſtle, and ſending a boat with a flag of truce to the Admiral, with the Governor's adjutant, and a lieutenant of a man of war, who brought the conditions ſigned on which they deſired to capitulate. In anſwer to which the Admiral immediately drew up the terms on which he would admit them to capitulation, and diſpatched them back again, allowing them only a few hours to take their reſolution; and within the time limited they accepted the conditions offered them. And before night, on Thurſday the ſaid 22d of November, the Admiral ſent captain NEWTON, who commanded the detachment of ſoldiers from Jamaica, with about 120 of the ſaid ſoldiers, who took immediate poſſeſſion of Gloria caſtle and St. Jeronimo fort, being the remaining fortreſſes that guarded the harbour of Porto Bello, the Gloria caſtle lying juſt below the town, and St. Jeronimo fort juſt above it.

Articles of capitulation granted by EDWARD VERNON, Eſq; Vice-admiral of the Blue, and commander in chief of his Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Weſt Indies, and Commodore BROWNE to Don FRANCISCO MARTINES DE RETEZ, governor of Porto Bello, and Don FRANCISCO DE ABAROA commandant of the guarda coſtas at the ſame place, the 22d of November 1739, O. S.

Article 1. That the gariſon be allowed to march out as deſired, upon condition the King of Great Britain's troops be put into poſſeſſion of the Glory caſtle before four o' clock this evening, and the gariſon to march out by ten o'clock to morrow morning.

That the inhabitants may either remove or remain, under a promiſe of ſecurity for themſelves and their effects.

2. That the Spaniſh ſoldiers may have a guard if they think it neceſſary.

3. That they may carry off two canons mounted, with ten charges of powder for each, and their match lighted.

4. The gates of the Glory caſtle muſt abſolutely be in poſſeſſion of the King our maſter's troops by four o'clock, and the Spaniſh gariſon ſhall remain in all ſafety for their perſons and effects, till the appointed time for their marching out, and to carry with them the proviſions and ammunition neceſſary for their ſafety.

5. That the ſhips, with their apparel and arms, be abſolutely delivered up to the uſe of his Britannic Majeſty, but that all the officers, ſoldiers, and crew, ſhall have three days allowed them to retire with all their perſonal effects, only one officer being admitted on board each ſhip and veſſel, to take poſſeſſion for the King our maſter, and to ſee this article ſtrictly complied with.

6. That provided the articles abovementioned are ſtrictly complied with, and that poſſeſſion be given of the caſtle of St. Jeronimo, in the ſame manner as is ſtipulated for the caſtle Gloria, then the clergy, the churches, and town, ſhall be protected and preſerved in all their immunities and properties.

And that all priſoners already taken ſhall be ſet at liberty before our leaving the port.

Given under our hands on board his Majeſty's ſhip Burford, in Porto Bello harbour, this 22d day of November 1739, O. S.

Edward Vernon.
Charles Browne.

There were in the harbour two Spaniſh men of war of twenty guns each, and a ſnow; the crews of which ſhips ſeeing the regular and bold attack which was made on the Iron fort, and deſpairing of being able to defend themſelves, fell to plundering the town in the night on the 21ſt, and committed great outrages on the inhabitants.

The Admiral took on board his ſhips from the ſeveral fortreſſes, forty pieces of braſs cannon, and ten braſs field pieces, four braſs mortars, and eighteen braſs patereroes; and rendered unſerviceable above eighty iron cannon, by knocking off the trunnions, and ſpiking them up: he alſo took on board all their ſhot and ammunition, except 122 barrels of their powder, which he expended in ſpringing mines, by which all the fortifications of the forts were blown up, and entirely demoliſhed, and the harbour left open and defenceleſs.

Ten thouſand dollars that were arrived and deſigned for paying the King of Spain's troops at Porto Bello, falling into the Admiral's hands, he diſtributed them among his Majeſty's forces for their encouragement.

The Admiral was joined at Porto Bello on the 27th of November, by his Majeſty's ſhip the Diamond, captain Knowles, and on the 29th by the Windſor, captain Berkeley, and the Angleſea captain Reddish: he having left orders at the Leeward iſlands for the ſaid ſhips to follow him.

The principal engineer in the mining work was, captain Knowles of the Diamond, aſſiſted by captain Boscawen (who deſired he might ſerve in this expedition as a voluntier, his ſhip the Shoreham not being fit for the ſea) and by Mr. Barnes, purſer of the Worceſter, who having been an officer in the army was very uſeful on this occaſion. Commodore Browne had the chief direction of what was neceſſary to be done at Gloria caſtle and St. Jeronimo fort; and captain Watson, captain of the Admiral's ſhip, took care of the execution of all that was to be done at the Iron fort, which was built on a rock; the walls of the lower battery which conſiſted of twenty two guns, were nine foot thick, and of a hard ſtone, cemented with ſuch a fine mortar, that it was a long work to make any impreſſion in it to come to mine at all.

The lower battery at Gloria caſtle conſiſted of two regular baſtions, and a curtain between them, mounted with twenty two guns, beſides a line of eight guns, that pointed to the mouth of the harbour; and all the other guns they had on the mooriſh part of both caſtles, beſides their battery on St. Jeronimo, rendered the entrance of the harbour very difficult and dangerous.

In conſideration of the ſervices performed by captain Rentone (who acted as a pilot in this expedition) the Admiral thought fit to appoint him commander of the Spaniſh ſnow taken in the harbour of Porto Bello; and to ſend his diſpatches by him to England in the ſaid ſnow; and the two twenty gun ſhips, which were Spaniſh guarda coſtas, were by the Admiral's order fitted up, and taken along with him.

On the 6th of December the Admiral was joined at Porto Bello by his Majeſty's ſhip the Sheerneſs, captain Stapleton, which he ſent to cruize off Carthagena, and which had taken two veſſels, with ſupplies of ammunition, ſtore and proviſions that were going to Carthagena. On the 17th in the evening captain Stapleton having taken in water, was ſent by the Admiral to cruize on his former ſtation.

During the Admiral's ſtay at Porto Bello, he ſent a letter to the preſident of Panama, demanding the releaſement of the factors and ſervants of the South-Sea Company, who were confined at that place, in conſequence of which, the preſident of Panama ſent an officer with Mr. Humphreys, and doctor Wright, factors, and alſo with the ſervants of the South-Sea Company, who were delivered to the Admiral at Porto Bello.

The governor and inhabitants of Porto Bello expreſſed the greateſt ſenſe of the humanity and generoſity with which they were treated by the Admiral, and his Majeſty's ſquadron under his command.

On the 13th of December, Vice-Admiral Vernon, with the ſquadron, ſailed from Porto Bello for Jamaica; and being off Carthagena, on the 28th of December, ſent away captain Rentone in the Spaniſh ſnow for England.

Admiral Vernon's behaviour towards the fellow that cut off captain Jenkins's ear.

To this I ſhall add, that among thoſe who ſurrendered, and met with ſuch generous treatment at this place, there was the very man, who ſome years ago cut off captain Jenkins's ear, and otherwiſe moſt inhumanly uſed him. The fellow had made himſelf rich by the depredations he had for ſo many years been ſuffered to make upon the ſubjects of Great Britain, and was therefore become a chief man, and one of the governor's counſellors at Porto Bello; which if our Admiral had known, he would certainly have excepted one man at leaſt out of the capitulation; and probably if the fellow had thought that a diſcovery could be made who he was, he would not have truſted to the capitulation, but would have taken care to ſheer off before the town was ſurrendered. But providence, it ſeems, took care to make him fully ſenſible of the honour and generoſity of that nation which he had uſed ſo cruelly; for among our ſailors who went aſhore, there were ſome that knew him, who acquainting the Admiral with it, ordered the fellow to be brought to his preſence, which we may believe raiſed not a few terrors in a guilty breaſt. The fellow appeared with all that confuſion and horror which are the conſtant attendants of cruelty, when it finds itſelf diſcovered, and in danger of being brought to juſtice; but the Admiral only upbraided him in a manner proper for making him ſenſible of his inhumanity; and then told him, Sir, as I have given my honour that the perſons of all thoſe who have ſurrendered ſhall be ſafe, you are ſecure for this time; but if I ever meet with you again, you muſt expect that treatment you juſtly deſerve; for a generous enemy ſhall always meet with generous treatment from me; but ſuch barbarity as you have been guilty of, I can never forget or forgive.

A treaty with the rebellious Negroes at Jamaica.

During the year 1739, a peace was concluded between the government of Jamaica and the rebellious Negroes; they had for many years poſſeſſed the mountainous part of that iſland, from whence they came down and plundered the neighbouring plantations; which has very much hindered the improvement and planting of that iſland. Theſe renegadoes had formed themſelves into a ſociety under proper laws, ſome of which ſeemed to have been contrived with great policy and wiſdom, ſo that they were become a diſtinct nation by themſelves; and though various methods had been tried to extirpate them, yet what by the acceſſion of new runaways, and what by the common means of generation, they ſeemed rather to increaſe than otherwiſe. In order to defend the country planters againſt theſe inteſtine enemies, and to aſſiſt in extirpating them if poſſible, eight independent companies had a few years before been eſtabliſhed in that iſland; but as there are ſeveral parts of it very inacceſſible, it was found that it would be a very difficult and expenſive taſk to reduce them by force, and therefore his excellency EDWARD TRELAWNEY, Eſq; the preſent governor of that iſland, who by the whole tenor of his government has ſhewn, that he has the good of his country, and of that iſland in particular, at heart, began to think of reducing them by fair means. For this purpoſe he took care to haraſs them with frequent attacks for ſome time before, in order to make them more fond of accepting terms; and then at the requeſt of theſe Negroes, and with conſent of the chief gentlemen of the iſland, a treaty was ſet on foot with the principal body of them, which was at laſt concluded, and is as follows, viz.

JAMAICA.

Copy of the treaty made with captain CUDJOE, *and the other rebellious Negroes, &c.*

By order of EDWARD TRELAWNEY, *Eſq; governor of the ſaid iſland.*

At the camp near Trelawney, March 1. 1738-9.

In the name of GOD, Amen.

Treaty with the rebellious Negroes.

Whereas captain CUDJOE, captain ACOMPONG, captain JOHNY, captain CUFFOE, and captain QUACOW, and ſeveral other Negroes their defendants and adherents, have been in a ſtate of war and hoſtility for ſeveral years paſt, againſt our ſovereign the King, and the inhabitants of this iſland; and whereas peace and friendſhip among mankind, and the preventing the effuſion of blood is agreeable to GOD, conſonant to reaſon, and deſired by every good man. And whereas his Majeſty, GEORGE the ſecond, King of Great Britain, France and Ireland, and of Jamaica, Lord, &c. has by his letters patent, February the 24th, 1738. in the 12th year of his reign, granted full power and authority unto JOHN GUTTERY and FRANCIS SADLER, Eſqrs, to negotiate and finally conclude a treaty of peace and friendſhip with the aforeſaid captain CUDJOE, the reſt of his captains, adherents, and others his men; they mutually, ſincerely, and amicably have agreed to the following articles.

1. That hoſtility ſhall ceaſe on both ſides for ever.

2. That the ſaid captain CUDJOE, the reſt of his captains, adherents, and men, ſhall be for ever hereafter in a ſtate of freedom and liberty, excepting thoſe who have been taken by or fled to them within two years laſt paſt, if ſuch are willing to return to their ſaid maſters and owners, with full pardon and indemnity from their ſaid maſters or owners for what is paſt; provided always, that if they are not willing to return, they ſhall remain in ſubjection to captain CUDJOE, and in friendſhip with us according to the form and tenor of this treaty.

3. That they ſhall enjoy and poſſeſs for themſelves and poſterity for ever, all the lands ſituate and lying between Trelawney town and the cockpits, to the amount of 1500 acres, bearing north-weſt from the ſaid Trelawney town.

4. That they ſhall have liberty to plant the ſaid land with coffee, cacao, ginger, tobacco and cotton, and to breed cattle, hogs, goats, or any other ſtock, and diſpoſe of the produe or encreaſe of the ſaid commodities to the inhabitants of this iſland; provided always, that when they bring the ſaid commodities to market, they ſhall apply firſt to the cuſtos, or any other magiſtrate of the reſpective pariſhes where they expoſe their goods to ſale, for a licenſe to vend the ſame.

5. That captain CUDJOE, and all the captains, adherents, and people now in ſubjection to him, ſhall all live together within the bounds of Trelawney town, and that they have liberty to hunt where they ſhall think fit, except within three miles of any ſettlement, Crawl, or Pen; provided always, that in caſe the hunters of captain CUDJOE, and thoſe of other ſettlements meet, then the hogs to be equally divided between both parties.

6. That the ſaid captain CUDJOE, and his ſucceſſors do uſe their endeavours to take, kill, ſuppreſs, or deſtroy either by themſelves, or jointly with any other number of men, commanded on that ſervice by his excellency the governor, or commander in chief for the time being, all rebels wheresoever they be throughout this iſland, unleſs they ſubmit to the ſame terms of accommodation granted to captain CUDJOE and his ſucceſſors.

7. That in caſe this iſland be invaded by any foreign enemy, the ſaid captain CUDJOE and his ſucceſſors herein afternamed, or to be appointed, ſhall then upon notice given immediately repair to any place the governor for the time being ſhall appoint, in order to repel the ſaid invaders with his or their utmoſt force, and to ſubmit to the orders of the commander in chief on that occaſion.

8. That if any white man ſhall do any manner of injury to captain CUDJOE, his ſucceſſors, or any of his, or their people, they ſhall apply to any commanding officer or magiſtrate in the neighbourhood for juſtice; and in caſe captain CUDJOE, or any of his people ſhall do any injury to any white perſon, he ſhall ſubmit himſelf, or deliver ſuch offenders to juſtice.

9. That if any Negroes ſhall hereafter run away from their maſters or owners, and fall into captain CUDJOE's hands, they ſhall immediately be ſent back to the chief magiſtrates of the next pariſh, where they are taken, and thoſe that bring them are to be ſatisfied for their trouble, as the legiſlature ſhall appoint.

10. That all Negroes taken ſince the raiſing of this party by captain CUDJOE's people ſhall immediately be returned.

11. That captain CUDJOE and his ſucceſſors ſhall wait on his excellency, or the commanders in chief for the time being once every year if thereunto required.

12. That captain CUDJOE during his life, and the captains ſucceeding him, ſhall have full power to inflict any puniſhment they think proper for crimes committed by their men among themſelves, death only excepted, in which caſe, if the captain thinks they deſerve death, he ſhall be obliged to bring them before a juſtice of peace, who ſhall order proceedings on their trial equal to thoſe of free Negroes.

13. That captain CUDJOE with his people ſhall cut, cleave, and keep open, large and convenient roads from Trelawney town to Weſtmoreland and St. James, and if poſſible to St. Elizabeth's.

14. That two white men, to be nominated by his excellency, or the commander in chief for the time being, ſhall conſtantly live and reſide with captain CUDJOE and his ſucceſſors, in order to maintain a friendly correſpondence with the inhabitants of this iſland.

15. That captain CUDJOE, during his life, ſhall be chief commander in Trelawney town, after his deceaſe the command to devolve on his brother ACOMPONG, and in caſe of his deceaſe, on his next brother captain JOHNY, and failing him captain CUFFOE ſhall ſucceed, who is to be ſucceeded by captain QUACOW; and after all their demiſes, the governor or commander in chief for the time being ſhall appoint from that time whom he ſhall think fit for that command.

In teſtimony of the above preſents, they hereunto ſet their hands and ſeals, the day and date abovewritten.

The reſt of them accept of the ſame terms.

Beſides this body of rebellious Blacks that were under the command of captain CUDJOE, there was another body under the command of another captain; but as it would not have been a very difficult matter to have deſtroyed them, with the help of captain CUDJOE's party, which they were obliged by the 6th article of this treaty to give, and the others being ſenſible of this, they ſued for, and were received upon the ſame terms, being allowed another town to ſettle in, under the command of their proper chief; which was much better than to have brought them all under ſubjection to captain CUDJOE and his companions; for as they are now under different governments, they cannot ſo eaſily unite, in caſe a ſpirit of rebellion ſhould again begin to ſpread among them: on the contrary it will probably raiſe an emulation between the two ſocieties, which ſhall be the moſt obedient and faithful to the governor, and moſt uſeful to the white men of the iſland.

Proper methods for making the beſt uſe of this treaty.

However, ſays my author, I muſt obſerve, that it will be very dangerous to allow them to continue and to increaſe and multiply as a diſtinct people from the reſt of the iſland; and therefore all proper methods ought to be taken to induce them and their poſterity to incorporate and mix with the reſt, ſo as at laſt to become one and the ſame people. For this purpoſe a law ſhould be made for naturalizing every *black free man* that ſhall become a *Chriſtian* and marry a *white woman*, and every *black free woman* that ſhall become *a Chriſtian* and marry a *white man*; which would in time remove thoſe two marks of diſtinction, their religion, and complexion. Whatever notion ſome people may have of *Blacks*, I muſt look upon them as a part of the human ſpecies, and therefore, if theſe two marks of diſtinction were removed, which may in time be done, by education and intermarriage, I believe their poſterity would at laſt make as good and faithful ſubjects of Great Britain, as the poſterity of any foreigners we have, or may encourage to ſettle amongſt us; and by this means we ſhould in a ſhort time add greatly to the natural ſtrength of our iſland of Jamaica.

1740. The war in the Weſt-Indies. Vernon returns from Porto Bello to Jamaica. Receives ſupplies. Protects the trade to the Spaniſh colonies.

To return to the war between Great Britain and Spain in the Weſt-Indies.

Admiral VERNON returned from Porto Bello to Jamaica the latter end of January 1739-40, in which paſſage ſeveral ſhips of his ſquadron received much damage by hard gales of wind. The Greenwich man of war, with the bomb veſſels, fire ſhips and ſtores ſent from England, arrived at Port Royal about a fortnight before. While the Admiral lay in this harbour he granted a convoy to ſeveral Jamaica merchants, for protecting the ſhips with which they traded to the coaſts of Spaniſh America, notwithſtanding the war with Spain was actually proclaimed at Jamaica; for whether it be war or peace, the Spaniards in America are very glad to ſee the Engliſh merchants on the coaſt, who bring them all manner of cloathing and furniture, which they cannot purchaſe in the country but at extravagant rates, the flota not bringing half enough to ſerve the inhabitants of Mexico and the Terra firma.

The Admiral ſailed with his ſquadron on the 25th of February to Carthagena, which he bombarded, and afterwards ſailed to Porto Bello, where he arrived the 14th of March, and from thence viſited Fort Chagre, which he cannonaded and obliged to ſurrender on the 24th: here he found the cuſtom houſe full of goods intended for loading the galeons, viz. cacao-nuts, guyaquil bark, Spaniſh wool &c. which the Admiral ordered to be brought on board his ſquadron, and then ſet fire to the cuſtom houſe; he alſo embarked the braſs cannon he found here, and then blowed up the fortifications. The booty taken here was valued at ſeventy thouſand pounds, with which he returned to Jamaica the beginning of April.

Vernon takes Fort Chagre.

Here the Admiral received advice that the Spaniſh ſquadron was ſailed from Cadiz, and ſuppoſed to be deſigned for the Weſt-Indies; whereupon he cruized to windward in hopes of meeting them, but not being able to get any intelligence of the Spaniſh ſquadron, he returned to Jamaica, where ſome of his cruizers brought in a large Dutch veſſel, hired to bring over the new Viceroy of Mexico, but the Viceroy eſcaped in a ſloop, leaving behind him his crown, ſceptre, and other regalia, with his jewels and money, to the value of 100,000 l.

The French and Spaniſh fleets arrive in the Weſt-Indies.

In the mean time the Spaniſh ſquadrons from Cadiz and Ferrol conſiſting of twelve ſhips of the line, arrived at Porto Rico in the beginning of October, and about the ſame time two French ſquadrons, conſiſting of thirty men of war from Breſt and Toulon, arrived at Martinico, and made great preparations for ſome important expedition, generally ſuppoſed to be the invaſion of Jamaica; but meeting with a violent ſtorm between Martinico and Hiſpaniola, they put into Port Lewis in a ſhattered condition, and the Spaniſh ſquadron ſailed from Porto Rico to Carthagena, where they arrived the 28th of October.

Admiral VERNON having received no advice of the arrival either of the Spaniſh or French ſquadrons in the Weſt Indies, cruiſed off the coaſt of Hiſpaniola, and on the 19th of October, was joined by eight ſail of tranſports, convoyed by the Wolf man of war from North America, which he brought with him to Port Royal, where he received intelligence of the arrival of the French and Spaniſh fleets, and thereupon remained ſhut up in that harbour, expecting a viſit from the enemy; but they contented themſelves with ſending reinforcements to the Havanna, Carthagena, and other Spaniſh gariſons, and putting their ſettlements on the coaſts in a poſture of defence.

VERNON ſhut up in the harbour of Port Royal

Spaniſh claim to the Auſtrian dominions.

The Emperor CHARLES VI, dying on the 20th of October this year, the court of Spain immediately began to form pretenſions to the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria, as King PHILIP was deſcended from the Emperor CHARLES V; they aſſerted, that CHARLES V being Emperor of Germany, and King of Spain, when he abdicated both thoſe thrones, and retired into a monaſtry, left Spain and the territories thereto belonging to his eldeſt ſon PHILIP II, and his German dominions to his brother FERDINAND, whom he had advanced to the empire; but upon condition, that on failure of male iſſue of FERDINAND and his ſucceſſors, his German dominions ſhould revert to the heirs of PHILIP King of Spain; and to ſupport this title his preſent Catholic Majeſty ordered an army to aſſemble and march towards Barcelona, in order to be tranſported to Italy, and take poſſeſſion of the Auſtrian dominions there, and theſe were to be joined by other forces to be ſent from Naples.

OGLETHORP's expedition againſt St. Auguſtin.

But to return to the Weſt Indies, General OGLETHORPE receiving advice that there was but a ſmall gariſon in fort St. Auguſtine, and that they were in great want of proviſion there, propoſed to the general aſſembly at Charles town, the ſurpriſing that fortreſs, which he repreſented he had great hopes of ſucceeding in, if they would join him with part of their militia, and raiſe him a certain ſum of money. This they conſented to, but not in ſo great proportion as Mr. OGLETHORPE expected, and their march was delayed ſo long, that the opportunity was loſt; the gariſon of St. Auguſtine being reinforced and ſupplied with proviſions, and the enterpriſe by that means became impracticable; whereupon Mr. OGLETHORPE, after he had taken a view of the place, and fired ſome ſhot into the town, thought fit to retire; but while he lay encamped near fort Auguſtine, a party of ſixty or ſeventy highlanders, commanded by Colonel PALMER, were ſurprized by a detachment of the gariſon, which ſallied out of the fort in the night, and killed moſt of them, among whom was Colonel PALMER himſelf: this was the only loſs almoſt the Engliſh ſuſtained in the enterpriſe againſt St. Auguſtine, for the Spaniards did not think fit to attack them in their retreat. But a much worſe misfortune happened to Charles town on the 18th of November following, when the whole town almoſt was burnt down, the loſs computed to amount to two hundred and fifty thouſand pounds, the inhabitants being able to ſave very little of their goods or furniture, towards which loſs the Britiſh parliament raiſed them 20,000 l.

Prizes taken in the French harbours.

In the mean time complaints having been made to the French court, that ſeveral Britiſh ſhips had been taken by Spaniſh privateers on the coaſt of France, and in their ports and rivers; Don PHILIP, Admiral of Spain, at the inſtance of the court of France, prohibited the Spaniſh privateers to cruize on the Engliſh upon the coaſts and rivers of France: but whether he was in earneſt is a queſtion, for the Spaniſh privateers ſtill continued to make prizes on the coaſts of France, and were many of them manned chiefly by French ſailors, and a liſt of the Britiſh ſhips which were taken in the months of January, February, March, and April, was publiſhed at Madrid, amounting to thirty ſeven, whoſe cargoes were valued at one hundred and forty thouſand pounds ſterling.

Sir JOHN NORRIS's ſecret expedition

On the 21ſt of June, Sir JOHN NORRIS ſet ſail with a ſtrong ſquadron, conſiſting of firſt, ſecond and third rate men of war, and ſome frigates, and having cruized on the coaſt of Spain, returned on the 22d of Auguſt to Spithead, without having made any attempt on the Spaniſh ports. On the 13th of October Admiral NORRIS ſailed again with another formidable ſquadron, but returned to Spithead again on the ſixth of November, without having made any attempt on the enemy. About the ſame time Commodore CORNWAL ſailed with ſome men of war to reinforce Admiral HADDOCK, but HADDOCK's ſquadron remained inactive all this year, unleſs an accidental rencounter which happened between ſome ſhips of his ſquadron and three French men of war near the Straits, may be called an action, of which we received the following account. Captain BARNET, commander of the Dragon, a 60 gun ſhip, captain BALCHEN, who commanded the Folkſtone, a forty gun ſhip, and another Engliſh frigate, meeting with three French men of war in the mouth of the Straits, and ſuſpecting them to be Spaniſh regiſter ſhips, Captain BARNET would have ſent his boat on board them to be ſatisfied, and the French refuſing to permit him, he fired at them, whereupon there happened a ſmart engagement, in which ſeveral men were killed on both ſides; but the Engliſh Captains being ſatisfied at length that they were French, ſuffered them to purſue their courſe. But what happened ſoon after ſufficiently ſhewed what we were to expect from the conduct of our Miniſtry, and the Admirals they employed in Europe.

Another ſecret expedition.

Rencounter with ſome French ſhips near the Straits.

The Spaniſh fleet paſſes the Straits.

The Spaniſh fleet, conſiſting of nineteen ſail, came out of Cadiz, and on the 24th of November in the night, paſſed the Straits, Admiral HADDOCK lying with the Britiſh fleet in Gibraltar bay at that time: the next morning a briſk eaſt wind drove the Spaniards ſo far back, that they continued two days in ſight of Admiral HADDOCK. On the ſecond of December he ſailed after them in order of battle, and in a few days came up with them; when a French ſquadron conſiſting of twelve ſail appeared, and clapped in between the two fleets, with a flag of truce, and the French Admiral let Admiral HADDOCK know, that he had taken the Spaniards into his protection, and muſt obey his orders. Whereupon Admiral HADDOCK called a council of war, and it was agreed to ſail to Port Mahone, and leave the French and Spaniards at liberty to execute their ſchemes (the Engliſh fleet then conſiſting of ſeventeen men of war.)

Protected from HADDOCK by the French

The Spaniards tranſport 15,000 men to Italy.

In the mean time the Spaniards having formed a deſign againſt the Auſtrian dominions in Italy, on the Emperor's death, embarked fifteen thouſand land forces at Barcelona, and landed them at Orbitello, a Spaniſh town on the coaſt of Tuſcany, where they joined a body of troops the King of the two Sicilys had ſent thither by ſea.

Sir Chaloner Ogle arrives at Jamaica.

Rencounter with a French ſquadron.

I now proceed to take a view of the ſtate of the war in the Weſt Indies: we had the latter end of the laſt year aſſembled an army of eight thouſand men, moſt of them new raiſed, and embarked them on board tranſports at the Iſle of Wight: theſe forces were commanded by Lord Cathcart, and a ſquadron of men of war appointed to convoy them to Jamaica: they were ſeveral times driven back by ſtormy weather, but at length Sir Chaloner Ogle, with a fleet of four and twenty men of war of the line, ſet ſail with the tranſports from St. Helen's on the 26th of November, 1740. They arrived at Dominica, one of the Caribbee iſlands, on the 19th of December, where the Lord Cathcart, the General, died the next day of the bloody flux: the fleet ſailing from thence, arrived at St. Chriſtopher's, the place appointed for the general rendezvous, on the 27th of December, where all the men of war and tranſports met, except two or three, which had been diſabled in a ſtorm at their firſt ſetting out, and were obliged to return to Europe to refit. The next day (28th of December) the fleet ſailed again, and arrived at Port Royal in Jamaica on the ninth of January. But as they ſailed along the weſt end of the coaſt of Hiſpaniola, they ſaw four large ſhips in the Offing; whereupon the ſignal was made for ſix Engliſh men of war (of which the Lord Vere Beauclerk and Lord Auguſtus Fitsroy commanded two) to give chace. It was ten at night before the Engliſh came up with them, when the Lord Aubery in the Prince Frederick, hailed one of the ſhips in French and Engliſh, and they not anſwering, he ordered a ſhot to be fired at them, and ſoon after another, which being anſwered with a broadſide, the Prince Frederick returned it, and the Lord Auguſtus and three other ſhips coming up, they fought very warmly for an hour and an half; when captain Knowles came on board Lord Aubery, and adviſed him to make a ſignal to deſiſt, he being ſure they were French, and a ſignal was made accordingly; but the French continuing their fire, the fight laſted half an hour longer, and then they parted by conſent: as ſoon as it was day, the Lord Aubery being the eldeſt captain, made a ſignal for the reſt of the captains to come on board him, and they determined to ſend a boat on board the French Commodore, to know certainly who they were. The Engliſh officer, who went on board, finding they were French, aſked the reaſon why they did not anſwer when they were hailed; the Commodore ſaid, they did anſwer, and that he would report their uſage to the King his maſter.

The Lord Auguſtus had ſeven men killed and fourteen wounded, the Lord Aubery four killed and five wounded, and captain Knowles two men killed. What damage the French received is uncertain, but they appeared very much ſhattered; and when Lord Auguſtus, in his compliments at parting with the French Commodore ſaid, he hoped they had not killed him many of his men, he anſwered, but too many.

Upon the arrival of Sir Chaloner Ogle, Rear-admiral of the Blue, at Jamaica, Admiral Vernon took upon him the command of the whole fleet, which conſiſted of thirty men of war of the line, beſides frigates, bomb veſſels, and fire ſhips, with which he ſailed over to Hiſpaniola, arriving at Port Lewis on the 13th of January; but learning that the French fleet was ſailed to Europe, he took in wood and water at Donna Maria bay, and upon the 25th ſet ſail from thence to Carthagena, on the coaſt of Terra Firma, where they arrived on the fourth of March, being in all, men of war and tranſports, an hundred and twenty four ſail. The Norfolk, Ruſſel, and Shrewſbury men of war being commanded to anchor cloſe under the forts of St. Jago and St. Philip, made ſo warm a fire, that in leſs than an hour they drove the enemy out of them, and the ſame evening the grenadiers landed and took poſſeſſion of them: on the tenth, the two regiments of Harriſon and Wentworth and the ſix regiments of marines landed without oppoſition; on the 11th they got their tents and tools on ſhore, and having cleared the ground they encamped, and the artillery and ſtores were landed on the 15th. The Admiral receiving advice from Brigadier Wentworth that his men were expoſed to the fire of a faſcine battery, called the Barradera, on the oppoſite ſide of the harbour, he ſent his boats with a number of men, commanded by captain Watſon of the Admiral's own ſhip, and the captains Norris and Colby (and the men when landed were to be commanded by the captains Boſcawen, Laws, and Cotes) who landed about a mile to the leeward of the faſcine battery, conſiſting of fifteen twenty four pounders; but happening to land under a ſmall battery of five guns they knew nothing of, they leaped reſolutely into the battery, and ſurpriſed the enemy ſo as to receive little damage, and ſecured the cannon, and another battery pointing their guns at them, they ruſhed forward, and made themſelves maſters of that as well as of the ſmaller battery, and ſpiked up all the guns, which was a great relief to the troops on the other ſhore.

Carthagena expedition.

In the mean time Brigadier Wentworth cauſed a battery of mortars to be raiſed, which very much incommoded the enemy in Bocachica caſtle, and on the 22d a battery of twenty four pounders began to play againſt it; and on the 23d Commodore Leſtock in the Boyne, with the Prince Frederick, Hampton Court, Suffolk, and Tilbury, went in to batter the caſtle of Bocachica with their ſhips; on the 24th they renewed their fire, but the Prince Frederick and Hampton Court being too much expoſed to the ſhot of the enemy's ſhips, were called off, and in this ſtation that brave officer, the Lord Aubery Beauclerk was killed: about noon the Admiral ſent all his boats to deſtroy a faſcine battery that very much incommoded the camp, which they effected, and a tolerable breach being made in Bocachica caſtle, they prepared to attack it both by ſea and land; but to their great ſurpriſe they found it abandoned by the enemy, who fled out of the caſtle without firing a muſket: and now the enemy beginning to ſet fire to their ſhips within the boom, the boats rowed up to thoſe ſhips, and boarded the Admiral Don Blaſs's own ſhip the Galicia, in which they took the captain of the ſhip, the captain of Marines, an Enſign, and ſixty men; then they cut the boom to make all clear for the next day: on the 26th the Admiral with the Burford and Orford got into the harbour with a great deal of difficulty, the enemy having ſunk ſeveral ſhips in the entrance.

The next day and the day following the reſt of the fleet got into the harbour, which was very fortunate, it blowing hard at this time: the Admiral ſent captain Knowles to deſtroy two other batteries at the entrance of Paſſo Cavallo, which he effected; whereupon the enemy ſeemed to deſpair ſinking all their galleons and other ſhips croſs the mouth of the upper part of the harbour above Caſtillo Grande, in order to choak up that channel. The captain then ordered his chief engineer, captain KNOWLES, in the Weymouth, to diſcover what he could of the enemy, who obſerving they were removing things out of Caſtle Grande, gave notice of it to the Admiral, who ordered him to advance and fire upon the caſtle; but finding it abandoned, captain KNOWLES took poſſeſſion of the caſtle, of which the Admiral made him governor: and now it was reſolved in a council of war, to cut off the communication of the town on the land ſide, and to make a deſcent at the moſt convenient place near the town; and accordingly the ſhips being ſo ſtationed as to ſecure a ſafe landing for the army, General WENTWORTH on the fifth of April went on ſhore with about fifteen hundred men, and advanced through a long narrow defile or path in a wood, where he had ſome few men hurt by ſingle ſhot, and on coming out of the defile he found about ſix hundred of the enemy advantageouſly poſted to diſpute his paſſage; but advancing upon them, he received their fire without much loſs, and forced them to retire; after which he poſſeſſed himſelf of a convenient piece of ground for forming a camp, a mile from the caſtle of St. Lazar, and that day and the next the remainder of the forces, making in all four thouſand men, were landed, but they were obliged to remain three nights upon their arms without tents or tools, which could not be landed with them: the troops growing ſickly, and the rains expected, it was reſolved in a council of war, to attack fort St. Lazar without erecting a battery, and on the ninth of April twelve hundred men, commanded by Brigadier GUISE, advanced to the fort a little before break of day, and began the attack in two places: the grenadiers entered the enemies works, but the forwardeſt of them were all killed almoſt, and the enemy playing on them briſkly with grape ſhot, the General was obliged to order a retreat, to cover which he directed a reſerve of five hundred men to advance, by which means they retired without any further loſs, and carried off great part of their wounded men: but the army, both officers and ſoldiers, falling ſick, inſomuch that there were ſcarce men enough left to do duty at the ordinary guards, and the water in the ciſterns being exhauſted, from which they had hitherto been ſupplied, it was reſolved in a general council of war, of ſea and land officers, to reimbark the troops.

In the mean while the Admiral cauſed the Galicia, Admiral BLASS's ſhip, to be fitted up for a floating battery, ſixty carpenters were employed in making her ſides ſhot proof, by filling up the merlins or ſpaces between the guns with ſand incaſed, and on the 16th in the morning ſhe was moored in five fathom water, about half a mile from the town; at ſix ſhe began to fire, to the great ſurpriſe of the inhabitants, who had no expectation of ſuch an attack; however about twenty guns from ſeveral parts of the town being brought to bear upon her, they almoſt demoliſhed her hull, and by ſhooting red hot bullets, ſhe was three times ſet on fire; the attack was very furious on both ſides, till two in the afternoon, when the ſhip being ready to ſink, and her moorings cut away, ſhe was ordered to quit the attack, and was afterwards ſunk. The ſame evening (16th April) the boats of the men of war were ordered to bring off the army, and on the 17th they were all embarked on board their reſpective ſhips without any loſs; the next day all the guns and carriages were put on board the artillery ſhips, and all the works of Caſtillo Grande, Bocachica caſtle, and the reſt of the fortifications being blown up, and the guns ſpoiled and rendered uſeleſs, the Admiral unmoored on the 25th of April, and on the ſixth of May ſet ſail for Jamaica; and though the Engliſh had not all the ſucceſs they expected in this expedition, the loſs of the Spaniards was very conſiderable; for there were ſix large men of war, and ſix galleons burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed, with all the reſt of the ſhipping in the harbour of Carthagena: all the forts and ſtrong caſtles for the ſecurity of the harbour were entirely demoliſhed, and ſeveral hundred great guns deſtroyed, or rendered unſerviceable.

The fleet arrived at Port Royal on the 19th of May, where the Admiral found a convoy of victuallers and ſtore ſhips ſafely arrived from England ſome days before him, and on the 24th died at Jamaica, after a few days illneſs, the Lord AUGUSTUS FITZROY, captain of the Orford, eſteemed a brave commander.

There was ſome time afterwards a more particular account communicated to us of the unfortunate attack of fort St. Lazar, of the following tenor.

On the ninth of April, about four in the morning, purſuant to a reſolution taken by the General in a council of war, a body of men, conſiſting of five hundred grenadiers, ſupported by a thouſand European marines, and Jamaican ſoldiers, marched towards the enemies lines before the fort, and were followed at a conſiderable diſtance by a large body of Americans, loaded with woolpacks, ſcaling-ladders and hand-grenades: the enemy who had entrenched themſelves under the walls of the fort, fired upon them with great fury, which was returned by the grenadiers, who puſhed forwards up to the mouths of their pieces, and ſtormed their intrenchments, in which the Engliſh ſuffered extremely, and a deſerter, who had undertaken to conduct our forces, having the misfortune to be ſuſpected by thoſe in the van, his advice was entirely diſregarded; for he propoſed the attack ſhould be made in the flanking quarter, whereas our forces unhappily made their puſh in the front of all, and were flanked by the enemy on both ſides, as they advanced to the entrenchments, and great was their loſs before they got up to them; but the bravery of the Engliſh troops ſurpaſſes all belief, they leaped into the lines among the thickeſt of the enemy and put them to flight; then the enemy retreated over a draw-bridge into the fort, from whence the ſhot was poured down upon the Engliſh without ceaſing; whereupon they advanced to the walls of the fort in hopes of finding an opportunity of ſcaling them; but they were at length all penned up together at the end of the lines, and could neither advance or retreat, nor could they meet with their ſcaling ladders, ſo that they remained as butts for the Spaniards, who fired on them from every quarter, while the Engliſh had no way to annoy their enemies, ſo that great numbers were ſacrificed before the retreat was beat; and then they could only retreat by the way they came; and it was a conſiderable time before they got out of the reach of the enemy's fire.

CHAP. XVIII.

The Americans finding they were knocked down, and had no arms to defend themſelves, threw down the ladders, and retired to their camp: there were only three ſcaling ladders brought to the trenches, upon which a ſerjeant and ten grenadiers mounted the walls of the fort; but not being ſupported they were all cut in pieces, except the ſerjeant, who ſaved himſelf by jumping down again.

After the retreat a flag of truce was ſent into the town to propoſe an exchange of priſoners, which was agreed to, with permiſſion to bury the dead.

The land forces employed in this expedition were,

Six regiments of marines, conſiſting of ten companies each, 100 in every company, beſides officers,	6930
Four other regiments, to wit, WENTWORTH's, HARRISON's, BLAND's, and CAVENDISH's. 815 men in each regiment,	3260
Raiſed in America,	4300
Taken out of DALZIEL's regiment in the Leeward iſlands,	300
Independent companies,	200
Negro pioneers from Jamaica,	500
Landmen	15490
Sailors on board the fleet	18630
Total	34120

Of the land forces ſeventeen officers were killed before Carthagena, and ſeventy ſeven officers died of fevers or fluxes in that camp, though they were not a fortnight on ſhore.

Expedition to Cuba.

The fleet remaining in Port Royal harbour, till the firſt of July, in order to refit, and prepare for another expedition, ſet ſail from thence, and arrived on the 18th at Waltenham harbour on the South ſide of the iſland of Cuba, being one of the fineſt harbours in the Weſt Indies, ſecure from hurricanes, and capable of containing any number of ſhips, to which the Admiral gave the name of Cumberland harbour, in honour of his Royal Highneſs the Duke. The troops were landed here conſiſting of 2500 men and 1000 Negroes, on the 25th inſtant, and ſeveral detachments were made to reconnoitre the country, which repulſed the advanced guards of the Spaniards, and brought in plenty of proviſions.

The camp was about twenty three leagues to the eaſtward of St. Jago de Cuba, advantageouſly ſituated, and provided with a very fine freſh water river, navigable for ſeveral leagues, the country abounding with cattle, proviſions and fruit.

Another gentleman, who was in this expedition, relates, that this harbour is of ſo eaſy an acceſs, that they could go in or ſail out of it with the land or ſea breezes; and that within two days, with the common ſea breezes, they could ſail to any port in Hiſpaniola (which voyage could not be performed ſometimes from Jamaica in three weeks) ſo that in caſe of a French war they could eaſily viſit the French colonies in that iſland.

The deſign of landing on the iſland of Cuba ſeems to have been to lay ſiege to the city of St. Jago; but that city being at a great diſtance, and the country full of defiles, that General, after he had taken a view of the country, in perſon, apprehended ſuch an attempt impracticable by land, without a reinforcement of troops: the Admiral alſo having viewed the mouth of the harbour of St. Jago, found it impoſſible to approach it by ſea; whereupon it was agreed to reimbark the troops, and the General ſailed with them on the 28th of November to Port Royal, being followed on the ſixth of December by the Admiral and the whole fleet.

Expedition to the Moſqueto Indians.

In the mean time TRELAWNEY, the governor of Jamaica, having formed a deſign of fixing a colony among the Moſqueto Indians, about 120 leagues to the eaſtward of Porto Bello, (theſe Moſqueto Indians inhabit part of the provinces of Honduras and Nicaragua, and have never ſubmitted to the Spaniards, but have continued in a ſtate of war with them ever ſince COLUMBUS diſcovered that country, though great numbers of them have been maſſacred by the Spaniards) he gave lieutenant HUDSON a commiſſion to command the whole Moſqueto ſhore, who on his arrival there found that people preparing for an expedition againſt the Spaniards, and offered to make him their captain; whereupon he imbarked with them in their periagues, intercepted 8000 pieces of eight, and made ſome Spaniſh priſoners, one of whom eſcaped and alarmed the Spaniards, or he had taken a million more; however in his return he took a place called Carpenter's river, and fifty thouſand pounds of cacao; after which he returned to Jamaica in a very leaky veſſel, in which he was in great danger of periſhing: he reports that the Moſqueto ſhore is the moſt healthful part of America, and would be a very advantageous ſituation for a Britiſh colony.

Ruatan iſland planted by the Engliſh.

In Auguſt five hundred men were imbarked at Jamaica, and convoyed by a man of war to the iſland of Ruatan, at the entrance of the bay of Honduras, whither the Engliſh had already ſent a colony to plant that deſerted iſland; and by this ſeaſonable reinforcement it is preſumed they will be able to defend themſelves againſt all the power of Spain. The iſland is thirty miles long, and generally about fifteen broad, naturally fortified by rocks and ſhoals, and at the entrance of the harbour two forts are intended to be built. This will in a great meaſure ſecure the logwood trade, and what the Jamaica men value ſtill more, give them an opportunity of trafficking with the coaſt of Mexico; and as it lies near the province of Honduras, where the Moſqueto Indians (allies to the Engliſh) inhabit, they may be eaſily reinforced or ſupplied with proviſions from thence, and may lend the Moſqueto men their aſſiſtance in their incurſions into the Spaniſh pale on the continent. It is ſtrange we have not ſupported that people more effectually, and made ſome ſettlements amongſt them, when we know them to be ſuch irreconcileable enemies to the Spaniards; but it is moſt to be lamented, that when the expedition to Carthagena had no better ſucceſs, and it was found impracticable to attack St. Jago de Cuba, our forces ſhould have remained unactive ſo many months there, where great numbers of them periſhed, and never ſend a detachment to the aſſiſtance of General OGLETHORPE, who might eaſily have taken Fort St. Auguſtin with ſuch a reinforcement, and made us maſters of all Florida, whereby the Britiſh dominions on the continent would have been entire, and by fortifying our frontiers on that ſide, we might have bid defiance to both the Spaniards and the French: We ſhould then have been maſters of both ſides the gulph of Florida, as we were already poſſeſſed of Providence in the Bahama iſlands, ſo that it would have been impracticable either for the Spaniards or French to have continued their navigation to the gulph of Mexico without our leave. It is amazing therefore that General Oglethorpe was allowed but one ſingle regiment to effect a deſign of ſuch moment, when ſo many thouſands were ſent upon other expeditions, where the ſucceſs was much more uncertain, and the importance of the ſervice not near ſo conſiderable if we had ſucceeded.

But to proceed, Admiral de Torres, who commanded the Spaniſh ſquadron that convoyed the troops and ſtores which were ſent to Carthagena, had the good fortune to ſail from thence with his fleet to the Havanna before the Britiſh fleet, commanded by Admiral Vernon, attacked the forts that defended the harbour of Carthagena, of which advice being brought to Old Spain, and ſoon after news brought of the Britiſh fleet's being retired from Carthagena, they made publick rejoicings throughout the whole kingdom for three days; and now the Spaniards thought fit to return Mr. Oglethorpe's viſit and invade Georgia. They aſſembled a fleet of between thirty and forty ſmall veſſels at the Havanna, on which they embarked four thouſand land forces, and having touched at St. Auguſtin's, they arrived in Jekyl ſound on the 5th of July 1742, where, notwithſtanding the fire that was made from St. Simon's fort, they proceeded up the river out of the reach of thoſe guns below Gaſcoign's, where they landed three thouſand men; whereupon the General nailed up the guns in fort St. Simon's, which he apprehended not tenable, burſt the bombs, and retired to Frederica, towards which place a body of Spaniards advancing, were defeated by General Oglethorpe, and his Indian confederates, which occaſioned ſuch a pannick in the main body of the Spaniards, that they reimbarked their troops ſoon after, having firſt demoliſhed St. Simon's fort, and taken the guns on board their fleet; the General followed them with his ſmall craft, but was not ſtrong enough to attack them, and the men of war ſent from Carolina to his aſſiſtance did not appear till the enemy was retired.

1742. Georgia invaded.

The reaſons the Spaniards gave for their precipitate retreat from Georgia, were, that General Oglethorpe had intrenched himſelf with a thouſand men in an inacceſſible wood, through which it was neceſſary for them to march before they could approach Frederica: that they received intelligence that ſeveral Engliſh men of war, gallies and tranſports with land forces were ſuddenly expected from Carolina, and the rainy ſeaſon was at hand, which put a ſtop to their further progreſs; and the reaſon they did not make the deſcent ſooner in the year was, becauſe the fleet from the Havanna had been diſperſed in a ſtorm, and a great many men loſt.

Frederica is a town ſituate in the middle of the iſland of St. Simon's on the coaſt of Georgia, near the north mouth of the river Alatamalia: the iſland is thirteen miles long, and from two to four in breadth: the ſouth end of it lies twenty leagues north of St. Auguſtin, at which end ſtood the fort of St. Simon's, with ſome barracks and hutts, which the Spaniards call a large town: from St. Simon's to Frederica is ſeven miles, Jekyl Iſland lies next to St. Simon's, being about half as big; Cumberland Iſland is about the bigneſs of Jekyl's, and lies nearer the Spaniards, in which are the forts William and St. Andrew's: the general, when the Spaniards made their deſcent, went in his boat and withdrew the gariſon out of St. Andrew's, with which he reinforced that of Fort William, being obliged to fight his way through the Spaniſh fleet.

The iſland of Amelia is thirteen miles long, and two broad, and extends to the ſouthern mouth of the river Alatamalia, the ſouthern limits of Georgia being within a league of St. John's river, and five leagues from St. Auguſtin's: the town of Savannah is ſixty miles north of Frederica.

Succeſs of the Spaniards in Europe.

Though the grand fleet of Spain was much inferior to that of Great Britain, yet the latter ſeems to have been ſo intimidated by the French taking the Spaniards into their protection, that the Spaniſh ſquadrons were left at liberty to range wherever they pleaſed in Europe, and to convoy armies to Italy without any apprehenſion from the Britiſh fleet: and their privateers met with ſuch amazing ſucceſs, chiefly in the Engliſh channel, that upwards of four hundred of our merchant ſhips were taken this year, valued at a million ſterling.

Admiral Vernon returns.

Both Admiral Vernon and Brigadier General Wentworth returned from America in the month of January 1742-3, and both were ſaid to have been graciouſly received at court; but there have been ſome letters lately printed, which ſhew that there was a miſunderſtanding between the governor of Jamaica and the two Admirals, Vernon and Ogle, which proceeded at length to an open rupture, and might poſſibly be ſome hindrance to the publick ſervice in the Weſt-Indies. The Spaniards ſtill continued to take great numbers of prizes in the ſeas of Europe; on the other hand ſome very rich ones were made by Britiſh ſhips, particularly the captains Sibbalds and Donal, two privateers belonging to Penſilvania, took two Spaniſh ſhips worth thirty thouſand pounds; and the Romney man of war took another Spaniſh ſhip, which he carried into Gibraltar, valued at one hundred thouſand pounds and upwards; and a Spaniſh man of war of ſeventy guns, being ſurprized by part of Admiral Matthews's ſquadron in the port of Accacia in Corſica, was ſet on fire and burnt by her own crew, to avoid falling into the hands of the Engliſh.

The expedition of Commodore Anson to the ſouth ſeas, from which moſt people had great expectations, proved very unfortunate, and will ſcarce countervail the charges the nation was at in fitting out that ſquadron, repairing the loſs ſuſtained by the ſhips caſt away, and damaged in this voyage, as appears by letters dated at Macao in China, December 1. 1742.

Expedition to La Guara.

We were unfortunate in another expedition alſo, againſt La Guara, a town on the Caraca coaſt; this place Commodore Knowles attacked in the beginning of February with the ſquadron under his command, but his ſhips were miſerably ſhattered, and twelve hundred ſoldiers and ſailors, who landed near the town, were ſhamefully defeated, which they endeavoured to excuſe by telling us there were twelve hundred ſeamen in the place, which belonged to the ſhips and gallies in the harbour; that there were alſo three hundred ſoldiers, gunners and companies ſervants, and four thouſand Indians, Mulattoes and Blacks in the town, which the governor of the Caraca's ſent thither when he heard the place was about to be attacked.——Porto Cavallo, on the ſame coaſt, was attacked by the Commodore ſome few days after with no better ſucceſs.

CHAP. XIX.

Treats of the civil government, prerogatives and ſucceſſion of the crown, the King's titles and arms, great officers of ſtate, nobility and grandees.

CHAP. XIX.

IN the fifteenth century Spain was divided into five kingdoms, four of which were Chriſtian, and the fifth Mahometan: 1. The kingdom of Caſtile, comprehending the two Caſtiles, and the provinces of Leon, Galicia, Aſturia, and Andaluſia. 2. The kingdom of Arragon, which comprehended Arragon, Biſcay, Catalonia, Valencia, Murcia, and the iſlands of Baleares. 3. The kingdom of Navarre, which contained the Upper and Lower Navarre. 4. The kingdom of Portugal. And, 5. That of Grenada.

In the ſame century theſe five monarchies were reduced to three by the marriage of FERDINAND King of Arragon, called the Catholick, with ISABELLA (ELIZABETH) heireſs of Caſtile, and by the conqueſt they made of the kingdom of Grenada, anno 1492. Theſe three kingdoms in the ſixteenth century were reduced to one, and all Spain ſubject to one Sovereign: for firſt FERDINAND the Catholick took the kingdom of Navarre from JOHN D'ALBRET, anno 1512; and about ſeventy years afterwards the kingdom of Portugal was conquered by PHILIP II. In this ſtate things remained for ſixty years during the reigns of three Kings of the name of PHILIP; and then was Spain in the height of it's glory; for the houſe of Auſtria, which poſſeſſed it, had beſides Spain large dominions in Italy, Franche Comte, or the county of Burgundy in France, the ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries, beſides vaſt territories in America, Aſia, and Africa; inſomuch that PHILIP II uſed to ſay, the ſun never ſet in his dominions. But this monarchy has been ſince diſmembered, and reduced within much narrower bounds; ſeven of the ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries threw off the Spaniſh yoke at once, and declared themſelves a free people; which was occaſioned by the oppreſſions of the Spaniſh government, and the cruelties committed by the Duke of Alva, to which the alteration of religion in thoſe countries very much contributed. The Catalans revolted in the year 1640, and put themſelves under the protection of France, remaining for twelve years ſubject to that crown. The ſame year the Portugueſe threw off the Spaniſh yoke, and placed JOHN Duke of Braganza on the throne, being of the race of their ancient Kings. In the laſt war the Emperor poſſeſſed himſelf of all the Spaniſh territories in Italy; and the reſidue of the Spaniſh provinces in the Low Countries were yielded to his Imperial Majeſty by the peace of Utrecht; and at the ſame time Gibraltar and the iſland of Minorca were yielded to the Engliſh.

His Catholick Majeſty however ſtill remains Sovereign of all Spain (except Portugal, Rouſſillon, and part of Cerdagne;) of the empires of Mexico, Peru, &c. in America; of Ceuta and ſome other places on the coaſt of Africa, and of the Philippine iſlands in Aſia: His dominions being ſtill of the largeſt extent of any Prince's upon earth; and according to the calculations of ſome writers, four times larger than ever the Roman Empire was. In the continent of America alone he is poſſeſſed of a fine rich country, whoſe provinces lie contiguous, and extend ſix thouſand miles and upwards in length from ſouth to north.

CHAP. XIX.

The prerogatives of the crown.

And as the King of Spain's dominions are the largeſt, ſo his prerogatives are as great as any Prince's in the known world. He is an abſolute monarch, his word is a law, and he can diſpoſe of every thing according to his pleaſure, without taking the advice of any man or body of men whatever. It is true, every province almoſt in Spain had the privilege anciently of being governed by laws of their own framing, which could not be repealed or altered but by an aſſembly of the States of the reſpective provinces; nor could their Princes raiſe taxes without their conſent. Theſe States conſiſted of the Clergy, Nobility, and Commons; of whom the Commons ſeem to have been much the leaſt number, particularly in that large kingdom of Caſtile, which comprehended Leon, Aſturia, Galicia, Eſtremadura, and Andaluſia; for there were not more than ſeventeen cities and one town that ſent repreſentatives to the aſſembly of the States, and thoſe but two a piece.

The Cortes are now only aſſembled upon ſome particular occaſions; as when they take the oaths to the Prince of Aſturias, or when the ſucceſſion of the crown is limited according to treaties with foreign Princes, who look upon thoſe compacts to be the leſs liable to alteration, when they have been confirmed by an Aſſembly of the States. And this brings me to obſerve, that the crown of Spain is hereditary, and deſcends to the females according to their ſeniority, in default of males; though there are inſtances where their Princes have paſſed by the eldeſt, and given their dominions to a younger branch: and a multitude of examples there are of their dividing their territories among their iſſue. It is generally held, that the firſt Gothick Kings of Spain were elective, and that it was ſome centuries before their crowns became hereditary. But certain it is, that PELAGIUS, and the other petty Spaniſh Sovereigns, who firſt diſlodged the Moors, and drove them from the northern parts of Spain, were elected by the people; and the firſt Sovereign of Arragon, GARCIAS XIMENES, was not only elected, but was limited by certain laws and conditions in the exerciſe of his authority, which if he attempted to break through, the people were at liberty to depoſe him and advance another to the throne: and a magiſtrate accordingly was eſtabliſhed, called the Juſtice of the kingdom, who was to obſerve the King's conduct, and impowered to proſecute him before the States, whenever he violated the laws. This officer was only accountable to the States, and the King at his inauguration was obliged to ſwear to maintain their privileges on his bended knees before him.

Succeſſion of the crown.

The words uſed on electing their Sovereign were theſe, 'We, who are your equals, do make 'you our King and Lord, on condition you main'tain our laws and liberties, but not otherwiſe.' Which cuſtom continued to the eleventh century, and moſt of the provinces enjoyed great privileges till the reign of CHARLES V, and PHILIP II, who by purchaſing votes in the Aſſemblies of the States, and by vaſt ſtanding armies, particularly of foreigners, in a manner put an end to the liberties of Spain: though, it is true, the government, to prevent inſurrections, or to reclaim revolting provinces, have ſometimes indulged the people with ſome ſhare of their ancient privileges, which they have reſumed again as ſoon as their turns were ſerved; and the King of Spain is at this day one of the moſt abſolute Princes on the face of the earth, as has been intimated already.

Kings of Spain not crowned.

However, he takes an oath at his inauguration to maintain their rights and privileges; and on the other hand, the Cortes or Aſſembly of the States, who are convened on this occaſion, acknowledge him for their Sovereign; but the Kings of Spain are not crowned, as moſt Monarchs of Europe are.

Councils and Courts of Juſtice.

But notwithſtanding the Kings of Spain are abſolute Princes, ſays my author, their moderation can never be ſufficiently applauded, having for many ages taken the advice of thoſe who are verſed in the laws of their country, in every thing that regards their civil government, their forces or revenues; and for that end have appointed ſeveral Councils or Tribunals for the diſpatch of the reſpective branches of buſineſs, of which ſome are ſovereign Courts, and others ſubaltern.

1. The Cabinet-Council, or Junta of general diſpatches. 2. The Council of ſtate. 3. The Council of war. 4. The Council of Caſtile. 5. The Chamber of Caſtile. 6. The Council of the Indies. 7. The Council of finances, or royal revenues. 8. The Council of Navarre. 9. The Councils of buildings and foreſts. 10. The Chanceries of Valladolid and Grenada.

The ſubaltern Tribunals are, 1. The Junta, or Council for lodging or quartering all perſons belonging to the Court. 2. That of the Alcaides of the palace. 3. The Audiences of Galicia, Seville, Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia, Majorca, and the Canaries. 4. The Juriſdiction of the Corrigidors, Rigidors, Viguers, and Alcaides.

The Viceroyalties are thoſe of Navarre, Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia, Majorca, Peru, and Mexico.

The Captainſhips general are thoſe of Andaluſia, Guipuſcoa, Eſtremadura, and the Canaries, with thoſe of the Indies.

Cabinet-Council.

It is the Cabinet-Council, which conſiſts of the principal Secretary of State, and five or ſix more of the Kings nomination, which determines all affairs of government both at home and abroad.

Privy-Council.

In the Privy-Council, which conſiſts of a great number, indeed things of the ſame nature are debated, but the reſolutions are taken in the Cabinet; and ſometimes, it is ſaid, after things have undergone the deliberations of both Councils, the King, with the Secretary alone, takes ſuch meaſures as he ſees proper in relation to publick affairs; ſo that the principal Secretary may well be eſteemed the greateſt Miniſter in the Spaniſh Court, and is frequently the Prime Miniſter.

The buſineſs of the Council of war is the ſame as in other nations, only it takes in the admiralty and naval affairs, as well as thoſe relating to the land-ſervice; for the Admiral of Caſtile is now but a title of honour, he has nothing to do in maritime affairs.

The Court or Council of Caſtile is the higheſt Court of judicature in the kingdom, and determines appeals from inferior Courts within it's juriſdiction: they are alſo a kind of Council of ſtate for that particular province.

The Council of the Chamber of Caſtile are conſulted by his Majeſty in all his grants of honours, offices, and preferments, eccleſiaſtical or temporal; and all pardons and other graces paſs this Court.

The ſupreme Council of the Indies, the Iſlands, and Terra Firma was eſtabliſhed in the reign of FERDINAND the Catholick and ISABELLA, when thoſe countries were firſt diſcovered; but the Emperor CHARLES V brought it to perfection. This Council have the ſupreme juriſdiction of all affairs, civil and military, by ſea and land in the New World, (as their American dominions are frequently called;) where it is ſaid the Spaniards within the ſpace of an hundred and fifty years have built ſeven thouſand churches and ſix hundred monaſteries.

The Council of Finances may be reſembled to the Treaſury and Court of Exchequer in England, where every thing is tranſacted and determined relating to the royal revenues.

The Council of Navarre determine all matters relating to that kingdom, having laws and cuſtoms peculiar to themſelves; and when they ſubmitted to FERDINAND the Catholick, 'twas ſtipulated, that they ſhould not be ſubject to the laws of Caſtile: but this has of late years been broken through in many inſtances, and the Court of Spain are as abſolute here as in other places.

The Court of the royal buildings and foreſts have the ſupreme juriſdiction in all the woods and foreſts of the kingdom, and the direction of the King's buildings in his palaces and elſewhere.

The Chanceries of Valladolid and Grenada were eſtabliſhed to eaſe the royal Council of Caſtile, which had too much buſineſs; and that the ſubjects in thoſe parts of Spain might not be obliged to travel ſo far as Madrid for juſtice, when they found themſelves under a neceſſity of appealing from the inferior Courts.

The Junta, or Council for providing lodgings for the Court, have a power of agreeing with ſuch perſons as deſire to be excuſed from taking in theſe gueſts; by which compoſitions the Court raiſes a conſiderable annual revenue.

The Court of Alcaides of the palaces has the juriſdiction of all cauſes, civil and criminal, within the verge of the Court, which extends five leagues round about the palace where the King reſides, and is exerciſed over ſuch perſons as follow the Court, when his Majeſty viſits any part of the kingdom.

The Courts of royal audiences, before the late revolutions in Arragon, Valencia, and Catalonia, were but four, viz. thoſe of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, and the Canaries: but ſince thoſe provinces have been deprived of their privileges, and ſubjected to the laws of Caſtile, they have eſtabliſhed Courts of audience at Saragoſſa, Valencia, and Barcelona; ſo that there are ſeven of them at preſent, without taking in thoſe of the Indies, which are twelve in number.

Theſe Courts, of which the Viceroy, or Captain-General is Preſident, and the Alcaides-Majors, Fiſcals, &c. are Members, take cognizance of all cauſes criminal and civil within five leagues round about the city, where the reſpective Courts are held in the firſt inſtance, and by way of appeal of all cauſes which are removed from the Courts of the ordinary Judges within their ſeveral juriſdictions, as Alcaides, Bailiffs, Corrigidors, Rigidors, &c.

There lies no appeal from theſe audiences in civil cauſes, where the matter in diſpute does not exceed ten thouſand maravedies; where it does, the parties may appeal to the Sovereign Tribunal; and in criminal caſes there lies an appeal in ſentences of death, mutilation, or ten years baniſhment.

The Governor, or his Lieutenant, with certain Members of the Court of audience, have power to viſit the ſeveral Alcaides and inferior Judges in their province, examine their conduct, diſplace, and puniſh them for male-adminiſtration: but this is now almoſt diſuſed, to the great prejudice of the people, who are expoſed to the extortions of the ordinary Alcaides. Theſe gentlemen having a commiſſion but for three years, think of nothing elſe but making the moſt of their places during the ſhort time their authority laſts, out of the ſuitors who have any cauſes depending in their Courts.

As to the juriſdiction of their inferior Judges and Magiſtrates, viz. Corrigidors, Rigidors, Alcaides, Bailiffs, and Viguers, they ſeem to differ little in the nature of their office, but receive different appellations, according to the dignity or extent of the city or place, wherein they exerciſe their ſeveral juriſdictions. Formerly the Biſhops Sees only were honoured with the titles of cities in Spain; but their Princes have long ſince extended that privilege to a great many other towns, and moſt of theſe are not only allowed to ſend Repreſentatives to the Cortes, or Aſſembly of the States, but have a Corrigidor for their chief Magiſtrate, to whom the leſſer towns and places within the diſtrict of his city are ſubject. Thoſe cities which have not a Corrigidor for their chief Magiſtrate have a Rigidor, or Alcaide-Major, who has certain Rigidors, or inferior Judges, for his aſſeſſors or aſſiſtants; from which Courts there lies an appeal to the Courts of Audience, Chancery, Council royal, or other ſuperior tribunal. The towns which are not cities have their Alcaides, Bailiffs, or Viguers, from whoſe ſentences they may appeal to the Courts eſtabliſhed in the cities to which they belong, where they are confirmed or reverſed.

There ſeems to be no other difference between their Viceroys and Captain-Generals, than that the one commands in a province which has the title of a kingdom, and the other in a province which has no ſuch title, except that of Barcelona, where the Governor has the title of Viceroy, tho' Catalonia be but a county.

Both the Viceroy and Captain-General have the command of all the forces of the province of which they are reſpectively Governors, and preſide in all tribunals within their ſeveral juriſdictions. They have the nomination of many officers civil and military, and recommend the reſt to his Majeſty's favour; and all officers and magiſtrates, both civil and military, are reſponſible to him for their conduct; as are alſo the Governors of towns and places within their reſpective provinces, exerciſing almoſt royal power. Before the reduction of Arragon, Valencia, and Catalonia, indeed, ſays my author, the people of thoſe provinces would inſiſt on their reſpective privileges and immunities, in oppoſition to the authority of the Viceroys, who were obliged to act with the utmoſt circumſpection and lenity for fear of inſurrections, which frequently happened whenever the people apprehended their rights to be invaded; but ſince the King has deprived them of their privileges, their Viceroys act with an almoſt unlimited power; at which the people may murmur in private, but dare not expreſs their reſentments in publick for fear of incurring the ſevereſt puniſhments.

King of Spain's titles.

The titles of their former Kings were very pompous, as King of Kings: ALONSO VI aſſumed the title of Emperor; and ALONSO VII, beſides that of Emperor, took the titles of Glorious, Pious, Happy, Conqueror, &c. but at preſent all theſe are reduced to that of Catholick, granted to King FERDINAND by Pope ALEXANDER VI, in conſideration of his conquering the Infidel Moors in Spain, and the ſervices he had done the Holy See. To this title the King added that of Don, as the moſt noble and emphatick term in the Spaniſh language, being derived from the word *Dominus* (Lord.) And the Kings of Spain, notwithſtanding the loſs of their Italian and Flemiſh territories, ſtill ſtile themſelves Kings of Caſtile, Arragon, Navarre, Valencia, Murcia, Grenada, Cordoua, Seville, Algarva, Jaen, Majorca, Minorca, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, Jeruſalem, the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, Prince of Aſturia, Duke of Milan and Burgundy, Archduke of Auſtria, Earl of Flanders, Burgundy, and Catalonia, Lord of Biſcay and Molina, &c.

Arms.

They retain alſo the arms of almoſt every province, bearing quarterly: the firſt quarter counter-quartered; in the firſt and fourth *Gules*, a Caſtle triple towered *Azure*, each with three Battlements *Or*, purfled *Sable*, for Caſtile. In the ſecond and third *Argent*, a Lion paſſant *Gules*, crowned, langued, and armed *Or*, for Leon. In the ſecond great quarter *Or*, four Pallets *Gules*, for Arragon. Party *Or*, four Pallets alſo *Gules*, betwixt two Flanches *Argent*, charged with as many Eagles *Sable*, membered, beaked, and crowned *Azure*, for Sicily. Theſe two great quarters grafted in baſe *Argent*, a Pomegranate *Vert*, ſtalked and leaved of the ſame, opened and ſeeded *Gules*, for Grenada. Over all *Argent*, five Eſcutcheons *Azure*, placed croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many Bezants in ſaltier of the firſt, for Portugal. The Shield bordered *Gules*, with ſeven Towers *Or*, for Algarva. In the third quarter *Gules*, a Feſs *Argent*, for Auſtria. Coupie, and ſupported by ancient Burgundy, which is Bendy of ſix pieces *Or* and *Azure*, bordered *Gules*. In the fourth great quarter *Azure*, Seme of Flower de Luces *Or*, with a border Compony *Argent* and *Gules*, for modern Burgundy. Coupie *Or*, ſupported *Sable*, a Lion *Or*, for Brabant. Theſe two great quarters charged with an Eſcutcheon *Or*, a Lion *Sable*, and langued *Gules*, for Flanders. Partly *Or*, an Eagle *Sable*, for Antwerp, the capital city of the marquiſate of the holy Empire.

For Creſt, a Crown *Or*, raiſed with eight Diadems or Semicircles, terminating in a Mond *Or*. The collar of the order of the Golden Fleece encompaſſes the ſhield, on the ſides of which ſtand the two pillars of HERCULES, on each ſide one, with this Motto, PLUS ULTRA.

The King nominates to biſhop-ricks, &c.

The King nominates to all archbiſhopricks and biſhopricks in this kingdom, and moſt of the abbys, and to many other eccleſiaſtical dignities and preferments in the cathedral and collegiate churches, and in the ſeveral military orders of St. JAMES, Calatrava, and Alcantara or Monteſa.

Great officers of ſtate

The great officers of the crown are, 1. The Grand Almoner, who has the precedence of all others. 2. The Grand Maſter of the houſhold. 3. The Sumelier, or Great Chamberlain. 4. The Maſter of the Horſe. 5. The Gentlemen of the bed-chamber, whoſe number is not fixed. 6. The Grand Falconer and Huntſman. 7. The Great Chancellor, which is now only a title of honour. 8. The Admiral of Caſtile, which is alſo a title of honour at preſent: as is that of, 9. The Great Conſtable of Caſtile.

Prince of the Aſturias.

The eldeſt ſon of Spain is called Prince of the Aſturias, the people of this province having given the firſt blow to the empire of the Moors, and on that account eſteemed the moſt honourable in Spain. When he is proclaimed, the Clergy, Nobility, and third Eſtate are aſſembled, and take an oath of fidelity to him, promiſing to obey him as their King, after the death of the reigning Prince. The younger ſons of Spain are called Infants, and the Princeſſes Infanta's; and where there is only one daughter, and no ſon, ſhe is called Infant, as a male.

Nobility.

Grandees.

The nobility of Spain are generally called Hidalgo's, by which we are to underſtand that they are deſcended from the ancient Goths; they are either Dukes, Marquiſſes or Counts. But thoſe ſtiled Grandees are the moſt honourable, whether they are Dukes, Marqueſſes, or Counts; for there are many of every degree that are not Grandees.

There are alſo three kinds of Grandees, 1. Thoſe who have that honour only for life, 2. Thoſe where the grant is to them and their iſſue, whether male or female; and in that caſe if it deſcends to the female, the huſband is a Grandee in his wife's right. And, 3. Others are Grandees by inheritance from their anceſtors for time immemorial. They are alſo diſtinguiſhed on other accounts; one claſs of them are covered before they ſpeak to the King, the ſecond do not put on their hats till after they have ſpoke, and a third not till they have received their anſwer. But it muſt be remembered, that notwithſtanding their right to be covered before the King, if one ſhould put on his hat before his Majeſty bids him he would make him ſenſible of his error. The King treats them as Princes in his letters, ſtiles them Prince or Couſin-German, and gives them the title of Illuſtrious, and the Queen addreſſes their wives in the ſame manner. They have the privilege of being drawn by four horſes or mules in Madrid, and their long harneſſes are of ſilk: whereas all other perſons have but a pair of horſes in their coaches, except when they go into the country, and then every one travels with as many as he pleaſes. The King and Ambaſſadors have ſix horſes in their coaches in town. The title given a Grandee in ſpeaking to him, or of him, is that of Eminence.

No gold or ſilver lace worn in Spain.

The great Lords entertain a vaſt number of domeſticks in Spain, but keep them all at board-wages, allowing to each nine pence or ten pence a day, or thereabouts. They dreſs no more meat in the kitchen, than will ſerve the Lord and Lady of the family and their children, and ſeldom make entertainments for their friends. The nobility are very numerous, and have large revenues, but they have the worſt œconomy in the world, which is the reaſon that moſt of them are miſerably poor. They ſpend prodigious ſums indeed in the furniture of their houſes, and in the purchaſe of diamonds and precious ſtones; which has however a great appearance of wealth, and jewels no doubt appear very well on black, their uſual habit. But gold-lace and embroidery are forbidden in Spain, on which account they do not make ſo ſplendid an appearance in their ſhews and cavalcades abroad as the French.

Knights of the military orders

The Knights of the ſeveral military orders are reckoned alſo among their nobility. They were eſtabliſhed in the long wars between the Spaniards and the Moors, as an encouragement to the brave, and had ſeveral commanderies annexed to their reſpective orders, conſiſting chiefly of towns and territories taken from the Infidels; and formerly theſe Knights took vows of chaſtity, &c. as the Knights of Malta do at this day, but the former have a diſpenſation from the Pope to marry at preſent. The three orders are, 1. That of St. JAMES, called the Rich. 2. That of Alcantara, called the Noble. And, 3. That of Calatrava, the Gallant. That of St. JAMES being the richeſt, obtained it's name from thence, and is the moſt ancient, having been inſtituted in the twelfth century, and confirmed by Pope ALEXANDER III, anno 1175. The Knights of this order are known by a red croſs on the ſhoulder in the faſhion of a ſword. There are eighty-ſeven commanderies belonging to it in Caſtile and Leon, valued at two hundred and ſeventy-two thouſand ducats per annum.

The order of Alcantara is called the Noble, becauſe thoſe who are admitted into it muſt prove their nobility for four generations, whereas in the others it is ſufficient to prove it for two. The order of Alcantara alſo wear a red croſs, and are poſſeſſed of thirty-three commanderies, four priories, and as many alcaides, amounting to fourſcore thouſand ducats per annum.

The order of Calatrava took the name of the Gallant, from the numbers of young Cavaliers who were admitted into it: they are diſtinguiſhed by a green croſs, and have thirty-four commanderies and eight priories, worth an hundred and twenty thouſand ducats per annum.

The Maſters of theſe ſeveral orders were at one time ſo rich and powerful, that they would diſpute the commands of their Prince; whereupon the maſterſhips, by the conſent of the Pope, were conferred on the King, who ſtill enjoys this privilege, and by that means keeps the Knights within the bounds of their duty. As to the order of the Golden Fleece, this is ſeldom conferred on any but Princes; and however honourable it may be, yet having no commanderies or revenues belonging to it, is not much coveted. See the State of Germany.

Before I leave this head of the Nobility and Grandees, I muſt obſerve that it is not univerſally true, that no ſubjects but the Grandees are covered before the King; for the Cardinals, the Pope's Nuncio's, the Archbiſhops, the Grand Prior of Caſtile of the order of Malta; the Generals of the orders of St. DOMINICK and St. FRANCIS, the Ambaſſadors of Crowned Heads, and the Knights of the Golden Fleece on collar days; the Knights of the three military orders of St. James, Calatrava and Alcantara, when the King aſſiſts at their chapters in quality of their Grand Maſter; the members of the Council-royal of the chamber of Caſtile, when they go in a body to adviſe with his Majeſty on affairs of ſtate, are all ſuffered to be covered, though they never pretended to the privileges of Grandees, which my author enumerates as follows: they have the precedence of all the other temporal Lords in all aſſemblies of the ſtates, are allowed to have a ſword carried before them, and to ſit at chapel on benches on each ſide of the King; in the palace they have a right of coming into the gallery next to the King's apartment; no Grandee can be apprehended for any crime but by the expreſs order of the King, which he ſcarce ever gives but where the offence is againſt the ſtate, ſo that they are in a manner independent of the courts of juſtice. The eldeſt ſon of a Grandee has the title of Eminence as well as his father, and the Grandees of Spain pretend, that they are equal to the Electors of the Empire, and the Princes of Italy; inſomuch that when the Duke d'Eſcalona ſerved under the Elector of Bavaria in Hungary, he never came into any place where the Elector was, becauſe he would not give his Highneſs any other title but that of Eminence, which belongs to the Grandees: nor would the late Duke of Alva, when he was Ambaſſador at the court of France, ſee the Duke of Mantua otherwiſe than incognito, becauſe he would not give him the title of Highneſs.

As to the Cardinals and Grandees, they give each other the title of Eminence reciprocally.

CHAP. XX.

Treats of the ſtrength, forces and revenues of the kingdom of Spain and of their coins, foreign trade and navigation.

CHAP. XX.

Strength and forces of Spain.

THERE is no kingdom on the continent better defended by nature than that of Spain, ſurrounded on three ſides by the ſea; and on the fourth, towards France, the Pyrenean mountains, acceſſible but in very few places, and thoſe very ſtrait and difficult, ſeparate it from the reſt of Europe; and yet no country has lain more expoſed to the inſults of it's neighbours than this for many years, through the ill conduct of it's Princes and Miniſters. Since the Peace of Utrecht indeed, the preſent King having reſcued the revenues of the crown out of the hands of a multitude of uſeleſs officers and penſioners, reſtored their military diſcipline, and augmented his fleet and army, Spain begins to make a figure again in Europe. They have now uſually an army of thirty or forty thouſand men, regular well-diſciplined troops, and thirty men of war of the line, with frigats and galleys to defend their coaſts; ſome make their land-forces a great many more. In the year 1713, the Abbe Veyrac, a French writer, gave us the following account of their ſtanding troops, viz. four troops of life-guards, as numerous as thoſe of France; twelve battalions of Spaniſh and Walloon guards; an hundred and twenty battalions more of foot, and an hundred and thirty ſquadrons of horſe, which if compleat, muſt amount to ſeventy thouſand: and many are of opinion they are not leſs at this day, which is a force ſufficient to repulſe any enemy that ſhould attempt to invade them, even France itſelf, if unaſſiſted by the maritime powers, provided none of their provinces revolt. But what I look upon to be the greateſt ſecurity they can have on that ſide, is the treaty of Utrecht, whereby France has renounced all future right ſhe may ever acquire to the territories of Spain, and which all the powers of Europe are engaged, as well in point of intereſt as by compact, to ſee ſtrictly performed. To what purpoſe therefore ſhould France ever be at the expence of carrying a war over the Pyrenees into Spain, when ſhe knows ſhe ſhall be obliged to relinquiſh all her conqueſts again? And as to any invaſion by ſea, by any other power in Europe, it is highly probable it will never be attempted again: England ſuffered too much in the laſt war, to undertake ſuch another enterprize; and I know no other nation that could do it with the ſame advantage. We undertook it when we had Portugal for our allie, and one half of the kingdom in our intereſt, and tho' we met with the moſt ſurprizing ſucceſs for ſeveral years, were not able to fix King Charles upon the throne, or maintain our ground there; and if it could not be effected when that crown was ſo extremely weak, and there were ſo many concurring circumſtances in our favour, it muſt be in vain to attempt it now they have put their militia upon ſo good a foot, and have ſo formidable a body of veteran troops: nor can we or any other people be ſuppoſed to have the ſame inducements to attempt the conqueſt of Spain again for many ages. They may be diſtreſſed at ſea indeed by the Engliſh, French or Dutch; but on the other hand, whenever theſe powers diſturb the Spaniſh trade, they do but wound their own; ſo that it ſeems the intereſt of every Prince and State in Europe to let them enjoy a long uninterrupted peace. And if their Princes of the houſe of Bourbon can revive their manufactures and foreign commerce, and baniſh that ſpirit of pride and indolence, which brought them ſo very low, they may be as flouriſhing a people as any in Europe; for no country is better ſituated for trade, or is capable of producing more valuable fruits or manufactures, than Spain and the Spaniſh ſettlements in America. But I defer ſaying more on this ſubject till I come to the article of commerce, and proceed to enquire into the publick revenues of the kingdom.

Revenues.

The King's revenues ariſe from the cuſtoms and duties laid on all goods imported and exported; from the further duties laid on all goods brought into Madrid, or carried from one province to another; from the rents of all the houſes in Madrid, the firſt floors of which belong to the King; from a tax laid on the peaſants and other people under the degree of nobility, proportionable to their ſubſtance, (for the Nobility are not taxed but in extraordinary caſes); by a duty on all eatables, being a kind of general exciſe; from a duty the King raiſes on the owners of cattle, which are driven annually in winter-time from Leon, Old-Caſtile, Aſturia, and other northern provinces, into Eſtremadura and New-Caſtile, when the ſnow covers the mountains; from the croiſade, which is a duty the Pope allows the King of Spain to raiſe upon thoſe who eat butter, cheeſe, milk, or eggs in Lent; from a ſubſidy paid by the clergy, firſt inſtituted to maintain the war againſt the Infidels; from a duty the Clergy pay to be excuſed from carrying arms againſt the Infidels; by a revenue that ariſes to the King as maſter of the three military orders, and from ſeveral taxes, which the Knights of thoſe orders pay to be excuſed from raiſing ſuch forces as their tenures oblige them to; from a duty paid by thoſe who cut timber in the foreſts of Leon, and other places; by the fifth which the King hath of all gold and ſilver dug out of the mines, and alſo of copper, lead, iron, quickſilver, pearls, muſk, amber, emeralds, and other precious ſtones; from the indulto, or duty paid to the crown for all treaſure and merchandize imported from America, &c. all which, I perceive, does not amount to more than five millions ſterling; at leaſt there does not come more into the King's treaſury, after all charges deducted, notwithſtanding the late regulations of their finances; and great part of this is taken up in the payment of their civil liſt, and other neceſſary expences of the court; which ſeems to be but a very ſlender revenue, conſidering the extent and riches of the country, and the treaſures imported from the Weſt-Indies. But there are two or three very good reaſons why it is no greater, one of which is the ſmall proportion of land that is cultivated, and the neglect of their manufactures; another is, that the Clergy and Nobility, who are poſſeſſed of moſt of the lands, are taxed very low; and a third may be, that the King's revenues ſtill paſs thro' through ſuch a multitude of hands who have ſalaries and perquiſites out of them, that though there be a great deal raiſed, there does not much come into his Exchequer: but ſtill I find the government of Spain, though they were miſerably plundered and haraſſed by the contending parties in the laſt long war, are not ſo much in debt as their neighbours; they have not anticipated their revenues for ages to come, as the Engliſh have, who ſo much deſpiſe the Spaniſh œconomy.

Coins.

Of the Spaniſh coins.

I ſhall obſerve in the firſt place, that in Caſtile, Navarre, Arragon, Valencia and Catalonia, there are coins peculiar to each province; but there are others that are common to the whole kingdom and the dominions thereto belonging.

There are alſo in every province real and imaginary coins: the imaginary in Caſtile are, the Maravedi, the Rial Vellon, the new plate Rial, and the Ducat.

The real are the Ochavo of copper, the Quarto of copper ſingle and double. The ſilver coins are, the Half Rial of plate, the Whole Rial, and the Double Rial; the Half Piaſtre, the Whole Piaſtre, and another coin, called the Maria, from the name impreſſed upon it with a croſs over it.

The imaginary money of Arragon is the Livre, or pound, which makes ſixteen Rials of plate; their real copper coin peculiar to them, is of the value of a ſilver Denier: and all the gold coins which are current in Caſtile, are current here alſo, except the Maria. There is alſo another ſilver coin, called an Eighteen, becauſe ſo many of them go to a Rial of plate.

All the gold and ſilver coin in Arragon is current in Valencia; but no copper, they have a different Denier.

In Catalonia, they have a ſilver coin that is neither an Eighteenth nor a Rial of plate. They have alſo a Denier and Sol peculiar to them; and the coins of Arragon are current in Catalonia.

The imaginary coins in Navarre are the Ochavo, the Cornado, and the Targo. The Ochavo is worth two Maravedis or Mites, the Cornado four, and the Targo eight. They have alſo a real coin called a Maravedis, which is the only coin peculiar to them; but all the gold and ſilver coins of Arragon are current here.

In Caſtile, two Maravedis or Mites make an Ochavo, or farthing; two Ochavos a Quarto, or halfpenny; eight Quarto's and a half make a Rial of Vellon, and ſixteen Quarto's a Rial of plate; fifteen Rials of Vellon and one Ochavo make a Piaſtre, and eight Rials of plate make a Piaſtre; ſixty Rials of Vellon make a Piſtole.

In Arragon, Catalonia, Valencia and Navarre, twenty-four Deniers make a Rial of plate, and one hundred ninety-two a Piaſter.

The Ducat of Vellon is worth eleven Rials of Vellon, and a Ducat of plate worth eleven Rials of plate.

The Maria is valued at twelve Rials of Vellon, and is current only in Caſtile and the provinces depending upon it.

The Half Piſtole is worth two Piaſters; the Whole Piſtole four; the Double Piſtole eight, and the Quadruple ſixteen. The ſpecies of gold and ſilver, from the Half Rial of plate to the Quadruple, are current in all the kingdoms and provinces in Spain, except the Eighteen, which paſſes only in Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia and Navarre.

The ancient way of accounting in Caſtile, was by Maravedis and Quinto's, the Quinto making a million of Maravedis; but this is diſuſed, except in paying the King's houſhold, the civil-liſt, and the crown-rents.

Among private people they reckon now by Rials and Ducats of Vellon in Caſtile; and in Arragon, Valencia, Navarre and Catalonia, by Rials and Ducats of plate.

Both the gold and ſilver ſpecies are miſerably clipt in Spain, inſomuch that it is not ſafe taking them without weighing.

Foreign trade.

Of all the Powers of Europe, it is obſerved, none are poſſeſſed of ſuch vaſt territories, and ſo well ſituated for foreign trade as the Spaniards. They have abundance of fine ports upon the Ocean and Mediterranean; and the produce of their ſoil is as rich and fruitful as that of any other nation if it was cultivated. Their wine and oil are in great reputation, their wool and ſilk admirably fine, and the Pyrenean mountains furniſh wood and iron ſufficient to cover the ſea with ſhips; their fruits are large, and of an exquiſite taſte, and they abound in precious minerals. Their ſettlements in America furniſh them with prodigious quantities of gold and ſilver, ſilk, wool, ſugar, cochineal, cotton, ambergris, cryſtal, emeralds, turquoiſes, balm, amber, bezoar-ſtones, pearls, ſaphirs, jaſper, Brazil-wood, oſtrich-feathers, ebony, and a vaſt variety of other rich merchandizes. But notwithſtanding their ſoil produces ſuch admirable wine and oil, very little of it is cultivated, as has been frequently hinted on other heads. Their fine wool and ſilk is unwrought, and they import the manufactures made of it from England, France, Italy, or Holland, except it be that at Segovia they make ſome black cloth, and at Toledo and Grenada they weave taffeta's, damaſks and velvets, but none of the beſt; and the flota's and galeons they ſend to America are loaden with the merchandizes of England, France, Holland, and Genoa, the Spaniards being generally no more than their factors and agents; and accordingly, moſt of the plate that is brought from thence in return, is exported again and diſtributed to foreigners. And except the fleets which ſail to the New World, and do not amount to more than forty or fifty in any one year, and the Biſcayners, who carry on a little trade to the coaſt of France in their own bottoms, all the wines, fruits, and other produce of Spain, is carried abroad in foreign ſhips, which occaſions their navigation to be ſo inconſiderable, that it is impoſſible they ſhould ever be able compleatly to man twenty men of war of the line with native Spaniards that are ſailors: therefore if they have never ſo much wood and materials proper for ſetting out large fleets, and could cover the ocean with ſhips, as my author has it, they can never be very powerful at ſea, unleſs they improve their former commerce, and export their own merchandize; an Engliſh or Dutch ſquadron well-manned, will ſtill be a match for their grand fleet.

Navigation.

As to the religion and eccleſiaſtical government of this kingdom, theſe will be conſidered in the State of Portugal, which has a very near reſemblance to that of Spain, having been a Spaniſh province in the laſt century, and almoſt incloſed in it.

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
PORTUGAL.

CHAP. I.

Treats of the ſituation and extent of the kingdom of Portugal; of it's name, original inhabitants, air, mountains, rivers, and produce of the country.

CHAP. I.

Situation and extent

THE kingdom of Portugal is bounded by the Spaniſh province of Galicia on the north; by the provinces of Leon, Eſtremadura and Andaluſia, on the eaſt; and by the Atlantick Ocean on the ſouth and weſt: extending from the thirty-ſeventh to the forty-ſecond degree of north latitude, and lying between the ſeventh and tenth degrees of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London to the weſtward; being about three hundred miles in length from north to ſouth, and generally about an hundred miles in breadth from eaſt to weſt. Both the longitude and latitude may ſomething exceed the bounds I have preſcribed, tho' but a very few minutes.

The ancient and modern name.

The ancient bounds

The ancient name of Portugal was Luſitania, which BOCHART is of opinion came from the Phœnician word Lus, an almond, with which this country abounds, and Tania, the Greek word for a country. Others derive it from LYSUS, the ſon of BACCHUS, and will have Luſitania to ſignify *The Country of Wine*, which the ſons of BACCHUS in this iſland, that annually drink ſeveral hogſheads of the wine of this country, will probably come into. The modern name of Portugal it is ſuppoſed to have received from the town of Porto, ſituated at the mouth of the river Duero; which place was formerly called *Portus Calis*: others hold, that this town being the port which the Gauls frequented anciently, was from thence called *Portus Gallorum*, and communicated it's name to the whole country. But I ſhall not detain the reader any longer with theſe ſurmiſes; only obſerve, that the bounds of ancient Luſitania were very different from thoſe of modern Portugal; for Luſitania was bounded by the river Duero on the north, and the Guadiana divided it from Bætica and Hiſpania Tarraconenſis on the eaſt and ſouth; ſo that Luſitania wanted all the province of Entreminho Duero on the north; and on the other hand it included moſt part of the province of Eſtremadura in Spain, and part of Caſtile and Leon on the ſouth and eaſt.

The ancient inhabitants.

The ancient inhabitants of this country were the Turdetani, whoſe ſeats were between the river Guadiana and Cape St. Vincent, *olim Promontorium Sacrum*. To the northward of theſe, on the banks of the Tagus, dwelt the Barbarini and the Celtæ; and to the northward of the Tagus, as far as the Duero, dwelt the Turduli. The Peſures lay along the mountain called Sierra d'Eſtrella, and the Bracari and Graii between the rivers Duero and Minho. The Carthaginians and Romans ſucceſſively poſſeſſed this country, the latter being expelled by the Suevi, a northern people, who enjoyed it not long, being driven from thence by the Goths, who poſſeſſed this with the reſt of Spain till the Moors made a conqueſt of the whole country; from whom it was recovered again by the Chriſtians of Gothick extraction, as will appear hereafter in the Hiſtory of this country.

CHAP. I.

The air.

Portugal lying along the weſtern or Atlantick Ocean, is refreſhed with cool breezes from the ſea almoſt every afternoon, which render the heats of ſummer more tolerable here than in the inland provinces of Spain.

Mountains.

The country is full of mountains, the principal whereof are, 1. The Sierra d'Eſtrella, anciently *Mons Herminius*, which lies between the provinces of Beira and Tralos Montes, extending itſelf north and ſouth: on the top whereof are two large lakes, one of them ſaid to be unfathomable, and ſuppoſed to have a communication with the ſea, becauſe wrecks of ſhips have been found in it, and that it is always rough and ſtormy when the neighbouring ocean is ſo. 2. Sierra de Marvao, or Herminius Minor, in the province of Alentejo, ſtretching as far as the town of Marvao, from whence it receives it's name. 3. The rocky mountain of Sintra, which the Engliſh mariners call the Rock of Liſbon, being on a point of land about five leagues to the weſtward of that city, and anciently called *Promontorium Lunæ*; upon which is a monaſtery hewn out of the ſolid rock. 4. Sierra de Arabida, *olim Promontorium Barbaricum*, ſituated on another point of land to the ſouthward of the mouth of the Taio; on the top of which alſo ſtands a monaſtery. 5. Monte Junto, or *Mons Tagrus*, contiguous to the rock of Liſbon. 6. Sierra de Algarva, *olim Cicus*, which ſeparates that province from the reſt of Portugal. And,

7. Mount Gerve, which ſeparates Portugal from Galicia.

Produce of the ſoil.

This country does not only conſiſt, great part of it, of mountains, but ſome of the barreneſt mountains on that continent. Towards the bottom of them indeed they are pretty well planted with vines, which afford abundance of good wine. The ſoil produces alſo great plenty of olives; but the oil is not ſo good as in Spain. Of oranges and lemons alſo nature is very bountiful here; and their ſweet oranges, which were brought from China hither, are ſome of the beſt in Europe; but their ſour oranges are not comparable to thoſe of Seville. Their plantations of mulberries feed abundance of ſilk-worms. Of wheat and barley they have not enough in the beſt years for the ſubſiſtence of the natives; and when they are not ſupplied from the neighbouring Spaniſh provinces, the Engliſh and Dutch import great quantities of grain from the north. As to the peaſants and country people, they live miſerably upon maiſe, or Indian corn, a very coarſe kind of food. Nor have they much good paſture; the beſt is towards the north, and the fleſh of their cattle is generally lean and dry. However, as bad as it is, there is ſuch a ſcarcity of it, that the common people eat little fleſh. As to almonds, raiſins, figs, cheſnuts, and ſome other fruits, we meet with great plenty here, but they are not reckoned ſo good as the fruits in the ſouthern provinces of Spain. Among the products of their ſoil we may alſo reckon ſalt, for this is extracted from the ſea-water let into pans on the coaſt, eſpecially in a bay near Setival, or Saint Ubes, as the Engliſh ſailors call it, from whence vaſt quantities of ſalt are exported to the north, and to the American plantations. Of ſea and river fiſh alſo the Portugueſe have good ſtore, which brings me to give ſome deſcription of their rivers, which are, 1. The Minho. 2. The Duero. 3. The Tagus. 4. The Guadiana. 5. The Mondego. 6. The Lima. 7. The Sadao. 8. The Vouga. 9. The Leza. 10. The Ave. 11. The Cavado. 12. The Zezere. 13. The Alba. 14. The Coa. 15. The Laura. 16. The Canha. And, 17. The Caya.

Rivers.

As to the four firſt, they have been deſcribed among the Spaniſh rivers; and therefore I ſhall take no notice of them till their entrance into this kingdom.

The Minho, the northermoſt river of them, comes from Galicia, and taking it's courſe ſouth-weſt, divides Galicia from Portugal, falling into the ocean near Caminha.

The Duero comes from the province of Leon, and runs almoſt directly weſt, till it falls into the ocean a little below Porto.

The Tagus, or Taio, comes from the Spaniſh province of Eſtremadura, and running almoſt ſouth-weſt, waſhes the walls of Liſbon, falling into the ocean ten or twelve miles below that city.

The river Guadiana alſo comes from Eſtremadura, and entering Portugal between Badajos and Elvas, takes it's courſe almoſt full ſouth, diſcharging itſelf into the ocean a little below Syamonte.

The Lima has its ſource in Galicia, and taking it's courſe ſouth-weſt, falls into the ſea near Viana.

The Cavado runs parallel to the Lima, and is but a little diſtance from it.

The Vouga riſes in the province of Beira, and running almoſt full weſt, diſcharges itſelf into the ocean below Aveira.

The Mondego riſes alſo in the province of Beira, and taking its courſe ſouth-weſt, viſits the city of Coimbra, and about ten leagues beyond falls into the ocean.

The Cadoa, or Sadao, riſes on the confines of Algarva, and running firſt due north, afterwards turns about to the weſt, and falls into a great bay of the weſtern ocean near Setival or St. Ubes.

The Cancha, or Chanca, runs to the ſouthward on the confines of Spain and Portugal, being a boundary between thoſe kingdoms for ſeveral leagues, and afterwards falls into the Guadiana.

The river Caya alſo runs from north to ſouth for ſome leagues on the confines of both kingdoms, and falls into the Guadiana near Badajos.

The Zezere riſes in the province of Beira, and running to the ſouth-weſt, falls into the Tagus near Tancos. The reſt of their rivers will be taken notice of in the deſcription of their ſeveral provinces.

Baths.

The principal hot baths in this country are thoſe called Calda's, fifteen leagues north of Liſbon; and thoſe of Alver in Algarva: but though theſe waters are in ſome eſteem, the accommodations for people of condition are very mean.

Minerals.

As to minerals, their mountains, it is ſaid, afford mines of gold and ſilver; but I do not find there have been any opened of the former for many years. They import gold from their ſettlements on the coaſts of Africa and Brazil: but travellers relate that there is a ſilver mine at Guacaldane, which produces annually a good quantity of that metal. There are alſo mines of lead, iron, and allum; quarries of jaſper and other fine marble; with cryſtal, rubies, emeralds, and other precious ſtones.

Manufactures.

Either their wool, or thoſe that manufacture it, are in fault; for they make only ſome coarſe cloth, worn by the meaneſt of the people; others wear Engliſh cloth or ſtuffs; but black bays more than any other kind: nor is their manufacture the beſt.

Cattle.

The horſes in Portugal are briſk lively animals, as they are alſo in Spain; but of a ſlight make; and mules being much ſurer footed, are more uſed both for carriage and draught. Some black cattle and flocks of ſheep are ſeen here, but they do not abound, and their fleſh is generally lean and dry. Their hogs and kids are much the beſt food. There is ſcarce any country where they make more marmalade, both white and red, with abundance of other ſweatmeats; and they deal very much in perfumed waters.

CHAP. II.

Treats of the perſons and habits of the Portugueſe; their genius and temper, diet, diverſions and way of travelling.

CHAP. II.

Perſons and habits, genius and temper.

THERE is ſo great a reſemblance between the natives of Spain and Portugal, the latter having been long a Province of the former, that I was once determined to have omitted this chapter entirely: but as ſome things may have eſcaped me in the deſcription of Spain, and there are writers who inſiſt, that a Spaniard would look upon himſelf to be diſgraced by the compariſon, I ſhall enquire farther into their reſpective characters.

And firſt, it muſt be admitted, that there are men in ſome provinces of Spain more robuſt, of a larger ſize, and who would make much better ſoldiers, than thoſe of Portugal; I ſhall inſtance only the natives of Catalonia, a regiment of whoſe troops would certainly be preferred to one of Portugueſe: and 'tis become almoſt a proverb, that a Spaniard ſtripped of all his good qualities makes a perfect Portugueſe. But this ſurely was never ſaid ſeriouſly. EMANUEL DE FARCA, one of their own writers, in deſcribing his countrymen, ſays, "The Nobility think themſelves Gods, "and require a ſort of adoration; the Gentry "aſpire to equal them, and the common people "diſdain to be thought inferior to either." But he might have ſaid much the ſame poſſibly of the Spaniards of quality, who, as well as the Portugueſe, ſcarce ever ſuffer their ſervants to approach them but on the knee.

As to the Portugueſe ladies, one who has lately viſited that country aſſures us, That their complexions are pretty much upon the olive; their features delicate, but the viſage thin; their hair is black and ſhining, and their eyes ſparkling; nor do they want a good ſhare of wit. That they are for the moſt part generous, charitable and modeſt; and that their ceaſing to bear children ſooner than the women of other nations is a vulgar error, as well as the ſtory of their wearing ſpectacles univerſally; that weak eyes indeed is a pretty common infirmity there, which is the true reaſon that ſome young people wear them.

Having omitted the account we meet with in the Lady's Travels of the dreſs of a perſon of quality, I ſhall inſert it here: She ſays, ſhe went to ſee a lady of diſtinction, and found her in her bedchamber, with her head bare, without any coif or other head-dreſs; her hair was parted in the middle of the forehead, and tyed with a ribbon; that her ſhift was of very fine linen, and as wide as a ſurplice, the ſleeves large in proportion, buttoned at the wriſts with diamond buttons, the neck and wriſtbands flowered with ſilk: That ſeveral ſmall pillows trimmed with ribbons and broad lace lay upon the bed; that the bedſtead was braſs gilt, and the head adorned with four rows of baluſters of the ſame metal. That the firſt thing ſhe did after ſhe was up, was to have recourſe to the red pot, laying on the paint very thick, not only on her cheeks, chin, noſe, forehead, and the edges of her ears, but on the inſide of her hands and ſhoulders; and this ſhe did every night and morning conſtantly; afterwards her woman ſmoaked her with perfumes, and then ſprinkled orange-flower-water upon her: and this was agreeable to the cuſtom of Portugal, to which kingdom the lady belonged.

The Portugueſe, as well as the Spaniſh ladies, are generally little meagre creatures, and yet wear hoops and a multitude of gowns one over another, of rich ſtuffs trimmed with gold and ſilver lace; but the uppermoſt is of coarſe black ſtuff, and ſo long that it trails upon the ground. Their ſhoes are of black Spaniſh leather, ſtrait as a glove, and without heels, and they ſeem to ſlide along rather than walk within doors. When they go abroad they have pattens, being a kind of ſilk ſandals, faſtened to gold rings or plates, which raiſe them half a foot from the ground, and make them walk very aukwardly; but in the houſe they neither wear hoops nor pattens. Their ſtays, in which they have but little bone, are high before, but ſcarce reach half way up their backs behind, and conſequently would expoſe their tawny ſkins, if their ſhoulders were not covered with paint. Their hands as well as their feet are ſmall and well proportioned, and their wide ſleeves with broad ruffles to them buttoned at the wriſts, make their hands appear the leſs. People of quality wear very fine linen, and as it is ſcarce and dear, the meaner ſort wear none; they will rather go without than wear coarſe linen. The ladies about their necks wear a broad laced tucker, and inſtead of a girdle tie a ſtring of medals or reliques, or perhaps the cord of ſome religious order, about their waiſts, the ends whereof reach down to the ground, with ſeveral knots in them, and to each knot a diamond or other precious ſtone is faſtened; and the Spaniſh and Portugueſe ladies have generally ſeveral ſets of jewels. Croſs the top of their ſtays they have a kind of breaſt-plate of diamonds, from whence there hangs a chain of pearl, or ten or twelve little knots of diamonds. They have alſo bracelets, rings and pendants in abundance, but no necklaces. Their bodies are almoſt covered with *Agnus Dei's*, and other little images; and in their hair they have a variety of precious ſtones, with which they form artificial butterflies, or other inſects. Sometimes they adorn their hair with ribbons and feathers of various colours, but never have any head-dreſs. When they go abroad indeed they throw a veil over all; and women who are advanced in years wear a fine caul or coif over their hair; but the young ladies wear neither cap nor coif, night or day.

The greateſt difference I obſerve in the dreſs of the Spaniſh and Portugueſe gentlemen, is, that the Spaniards wear their breeches very ſtrait, while the Portugueſe have them large and full like trowſers. The Portugueſe alſo upon ſolemn occaſions, as at the marriage of their Princes and Feſtivals, are permitted to wear lace and embroidery, which are prohibited to the Spaniards. And this was taken great notice of at the ſolemnization of the late double marriages between Spain and Portugal; the Portugueſe made a moſt glittering ſhew, while the Spaniards, who were cloathed in plain black, appeared a little upon the diſmal; the fine horſes and jewels of the latter were the only things taken notice of by the ſpectators. Generally both Spaniards and Portugueſe wear black, and the Portugueſe courtiers frequently follow the French faſhions of late.

Houſes and furniture.

As to their houſes and furniture, they have uſually a great many rooms on a floor, rather long than broad; the floors and ceilings are a plain white plaiſter, that looks like poliſhed marble. They change both their furniture and apartments according to the ſeaſon of the year; upon the lower floors of their ſummer-rooms they throw ſeveral pails of water every morning, which will dry up in half an hour, and leave a refreſhing coolneſs afterwards. Upon theſe floors they ſpread fine mats, and cover the walls with the ſame chair-high; above theſe are hung pictures and looking-glaſſes, and all round the rooms of the ladies apartments are cuſhions laid upon the mats, of ſilk or velvet, frequently brocaded, which they ſit croſs-legged upon, (but the gentlemen in theirs have chairs.) Between theſe are fine tables and cabinets, and at certain diſtances ſilver pots or boxes with orange or jeſſamine-trees in them, and they have frames of ſtraw-work in the windows to keep out the ſcorching ſun. In the upper apartments, their hangings, cabinets, paintings, looking-glaſſes and plate are exceeding rich; and the floors are covered frequently with Turkey carpets. In winter their beds and hangings are velvet, trimmed with gold or ſilver lace: in ſummer they uſe no curtains, or only ſuch as are made of coloured gauſe, to keep out the gnats. In winter they uſe the upper floors of the houſe, even to the fourth ſtory, and in ſummer the ground or firſt floors.

Copper, tin, or pewter diſhes or veſſels are never ſeen in the houſes of the quality; they uſe only ſilver or earthen ware: ſome of the Spaniſh Grandees have a thouſand or twelve hundred dozen of ſilver plates, and three or four hundred diſhes of the ſame metal in their houſes, and other utenſils proportionable; among which are reckoned a great number of ſilver ladders or ſteps, with which they mount up to their rich cabinets and cupboards. Moſt of theſe veſſels and utenſils are brought ready made from their American ſettlements, and pay no duties on importation. They are generally ill-ſhaped clumſy things, ſuch as an Engliſh or French ſilver-ſmith would be aſhamed of.

Bad œconomy.

Amidſt all this wealth the bad œconomy of the Spaniſh and Portugueſe Grandees and Nobility is ſcarce credible, and reduces them to a neceſſitous condition, even while they make this glittering appearance. Moſt of them paſs away their lives in or near the capital city of each kingdom, without ſo much as ever viewing their eſtates, unleſs they happen to be diſgraced at court; they leave every thing to their ſteward, and think it beneath them to inſpect his accounts. Their tradeſmen, drapers, mercers, bakers, butchers, paſtry-cooks, poulterers, deliver in their goods upon truſt, and ſet down their own prices, being pretty well aſſured their bills will not undergo a very ſtrict examination; and all the overplus of the eatables is carried off by the ſervants (who are at board-wages) every night.

It is much beneath a lady or gentleman of quality to endeavour to beat down the price of a piece of ſilk or goods, or even to take change of a ſhopkeeper out of a piece of gold. And as the tradeſman frequently gives ſeven or eight years credit, he ſets down double the price the goods might be bought for with ready money. They ſeldom loſe their debts however, for the Spaniſh and Portugueſe quality are men of ſuch honour, that they make no difficulty in aſſigning part of their rents for the payment of their debts, when they are preſſed for money by their tradeſmen.

Servants and ſlaves.

The houſes of perſons of quality are crouded with domeſticks, and they are frequently obliged to hire other houſes on purpoſe to lodge them. Their ſervants wages are very low, eight pence or ten pence a day for diet, clothes, and every thing; and a gentleman belonging to a perſon of quality has not above fifteen crowns a month, though he is obliged to dreſs in velvet in winter and ſilk in ſummer. And indeed they lay out moſt part of their ſalaries in clothes, living upon onions, peas, beans, and other pulſe, which makes them ſo ſharp ſet that they are ready to ſnatch the meat out of the diſhes as it goes from table; and both gentlemen and ladies women, as well as the inferior ſervants, eat at cooks ſhops upon ſuch ſort of food chiefly as has been mentioned already.

One reaſon of their having ſuch numbers of ſervants, beſides the ſmall wages they give, is a cuſtom among the nobility and gentry of keeping all ſuch in their pay as have ſerved their anceſtors; inſomuch that ſome of the Grandees ſhall have four or five hundred in their houſes of both ſexes; the greateſt part whereof are purely for ſhew, and being lodged in adjacent houſes, only appear on days of ceremony.

But notwithſtanding they retain ſo many, they are limited to a very ſmall number when they appear abroad; three or four footmen and a groom, perhaps, beſides the gentlemen and pages, with the lady's women, who have coaches to themſelves. The gentlemen wear black velvet in winter, with long black cloth cloaks that trail upon the ground, and in ſummer black damaſk, or other ſilk, and cloaks of a light black ſtuff; and the women endeavour to imitate their ladies.

Dwarfs.

Beſides ordinary ſervants, the quality retain abundance of dwarfs of both ſexes, ſtrange miſhapen creatures, their heads as big as their bodies, but dreſſed up as fine as poſſible. They have alſo a pretty many ſlaves, both Turks and Moors, which are valued at four or five hundred crowns a-piece. Over theſe they had formerly the power of life and death, but the government will not ſuffer them to kill their ſlaves at preſent: They uſe them however very cruelly ſtill upon ſome occaſions; I have known a woman order a pretty ſhe-ſlave to be tied up by the hands by the other ſlaves and whipped almoſt to death, becauſe her maſter has looked kindly at her.

Where two ſlaves marry, their children are ſlaves; but if a freeman marries a ſlave, the children are free. Theſe ſlaves are the beſt ſervants they have; for the other will ſtand upon terms, inſiſting that they have as good blood in their veins as their maſters. The very beggars rather demand than aſk an alms, alledging they are deſcended from Old Chriſtians or the ancient Gothick nobility, and muſt be diſmiſſed with a compliment if you give them no money, and then they go away contentedly.

Food.

The food of the Portugueſe is much the ſame with that of the Spaniards, and they are no leſs ſober and abſtemious.

Diverſions

The bull-feaſts, night-rambles, ſerenades, plays, viſits, and other diverſions common to Spain and Portugal, have been taken notice of already. I ſhall here therefore only mention their pompous proceſſions on *Corpus Chriſti* day, and other great holidays, deſigned equally for devotion and diverſion, for they frequently conclude with ſome pious tradegy or comedy; wretched performances, that can give but little entertainment to any but an ignorant bigotted Spaniard or Portugueſe. The lady in her travels tells us, ſhe was at one of them, where they repreſented an aſſembly of the Knights of St. Iago, or St. James, where our Saviour was introduced petitioning them to be admitted into their order: Some of the Knights agreed to it; while others alledged, that our Saviour being born of ignoble parents, could not be of that order, without breaking into the fundamental rules of their inſtitution. And it was at length carried in the negative, to refuſe him: but to compromiſe matters, and do honour to Chriſt, they hit upon this expedient, namely, to make Chriſt the founder of another order of Knights: And there is actually ſuch an order, called *De Chriſto*, in Portugal at this day.

Travelling.

The way of travelling here is much the ſame as in Spain, except it be that they have not ſo many coaches, and travel more by water than the Spaniards do; their country lying along the ſea-coaſts, and the mouths of the great rivers which riſe in Spain running through it. The mule or the litter are generally made uſe of on a journey; their horſes, which are ſprightly and well made, may ſerve on ſhort viſits, to prance at a proceſſion, a cavalcade, or before their miſtreſſes windows, but the mules are ſtronger and ſurer footed, and conſequently fitteſt to climb their mountains. Their pace indeed is but ſlow; and as to ſtrangers, who are forced to have a guide with them that travels on foot, they cannot go far in a day.

CHAP. III.

Shews the ſeveral provinces Portugal is divided into; containing a particular deſcription of that of Eſtremadura, of Liſbon the capital, and other great towns in it; and of their palaces, churches, publick buildings, &c.

CHAP. III.

Provinces.

PORTUGAL is uſually divided into ſix provinces, viz. Eſtremadura, Beira, Entre-Minho-Duero, Tralos Montes, Alentejo, and Algarva.

Eſtremadura.

The province of Eſtremadura (in Portugal) is bounded by the river Mondego on the north, which ſeparates it from Beira; by the ſame province of Beira and that of Alentejo towards the eaſt; by another part of Alentejo on the ſouth; and by the Ocean on the weſt: extending about an hundred Engliſh miles in length from north to ſouth, and five and forty in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Beſides the river Tagus which runs from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt thro' this province, it is watered alſo by the river Zezere, already deſcribed; by the Naboan, which riſing to the northward, takes it's courſe ſoutherly, and having paſſed by Tomar, afterwards falls into the Zezere; by the Soro, the Cadoan, and abundance of other rivers of leſs note.

Chief towns.

This province being ſo advantageouſly ſituated on the ocean and the river Tagus, and having the capital city, which is not only the ſeat of the government, but one of the fineſt ports in Europe, within it's limits, is better peopled, and conſequently better cultivated, than any other part of Portugal. The chief towns and places whereof are, 1. Liſbon, the metropolis; in the neighbourhood whereof are Alcantara, Bellem, St. Julian, and Caſcais, which require a deſcription from the relation they have to that capital. 2. Cintra. 3. Almada. 4. Setubal. 5. Salvaterra. 6. Mugen. 7. Tomar. 8. Pedragan. 9. Leiria. 10. Alcobaca. 11. Peniches. 12. The Iſles of Borlings, or Berlinges. And, 13. Santeren.

Liſbon.

Liſbon the capital, an Archbiſhoprick and Univerſity, is ſituated on the north ſhore of the Tagus, from whence it riſes with an eaſy aſcent, comprehending in it ſeven little hills, and ſtretching itſelf along the banks of the river; is of a very irregular figure, broadeſt in the middle, and growing narrower towards the one and the other extreme. It lies in thirty-eight degrees forty-five minutes north latitude, nine degrees and a half to the weſtward of London, nine or ten miles to the eaſtward of the ocean, and near and hundred miles weſt of the frontiers of Spain.

The ancient name of it.

Olyſippo, the ancient name of this city, is ſuppoſed by ſome, who are fond of making the Greeks or Trojans the founders of all the great towns in Europe, to be derived from ULYSSES, whom they have aſſigned for it's founder. But it does not appear however to have been a place of any great fame or conſequence till theſe later ages. While the Romans were ſovereigns of Luſitania, Emerita, now Merida, in Spain, was the capital of this country: The Suevian Kings made Oporto the ſeat of their government; and the Gothick Monarchs never reſided in Portugal while they had the dominion of Spain. There were ſeveral other towns in this province, which was then a part of Spain, of much greater note. It was indeed made a Roman colony, and had then the name of *Felicitas Julia* conferred upon it, as appears by the following inſcription found here, (viz.) IMP. CAES. M. IVLIO PHILIPPO FEL. AVG. PONTIF. MAX. TRIB. POT. II. P. P. CONS. III. FEL. IVL. OLISIPO. But at that time it comprehended but one of the hills it now ſtands upon.

CHAP. III.

They reckon it about two leagues from the hill of St. Vincent, which is at the eaſt end of the city to the hill of St. Katherine on the weſt; but the breadth is very unequal, the town forming a kind of creſcent on the river. Upon the hill of St. George, which is the higheſt, and commands all the town, ſtands the citadel, ſeparated from the city by a wall, and looks like a town itſelf. The city is ſurrounded only by a ſingle wall, and ſeventy-ſeven antique towers after the Gothick model, of no great ſtrength at preſent: There are twenty-ſix gates on that ſide next the river, and ſeventeen on the land ſide. It is computed there are in Liſbon thirty thouſand houſes, and about two hundred thouſand inhabitants; and conſequently it is larger than any city in England or France, except London and Paris.

Streets.

The ſtreets are very narrow and ſteep; people are perpetually aſcending or deſcending ſome of the ſeven hills, which makes it inconvenient to walk in, as well as for coaches, and occaſions litters to be uſed pretty much. Thoſe ſtreets which have a deſcent, and are waſhed clean by the rain, are much the ſweeteſt; for the reſt are ſo full of all manner of filth thrown out of the houſes, that it is not eaſy to paſs them. The citizens houſes are generally old ill-contrived buildings, and the lattice-windows are no great ornament to them. Thoſe of the nobility indeed are fair handſom ſtructures, built of hewn ſtone, and with their yards and gardens belonging to them, take up a great deal of ground, but few of them have courts before them.

Squares.

There are in it, beſides the cathedral, forty pariſh-churches, and about as many monaſteries of both ſexes, which make a tolerable appearance. The fineſt ſquare in the town is that before the royal palace, which forms one ſide of it; another ſide of it runs along the river, and is ſupported by a wall, and on the oppoſite ſide is a range of fine buildings. This place, in the phraſe of the French, is altogether charming; for here are the moſt elegant buildings in town, and here you continually ſee large fleets at anchor in the river, beſides great numbers of ſhips perpetually under ſail, either coming in or going out of the harbour: here they celebrate their bull-feaſts, and here they more barbarouſly bait ſuch unfortunate Proteſtants as fall into their hands; the people are taught to ſhout and huzza at the roaſting and torturing an innocent defenceleſs man, as if ſome ſignal victory were gained. Near to this is another great ſquare on the bank of the river, where the principal market of the city is held; but the largeſt in the town is that called the Rucio, where the ſeveral hills about it form a kind of amphitheatre, and it is adorned with ſeveral magnificent houſes of the nobility. Here a fair is held every week.

The palace.

Among their buildings that of the King's palace is the moſt remarkable, which lies upon the river, and is one of the firſt things that preſents itſelf to a foreigner on his arrival; it makes a ſplendid appearance, and was deſigned for a ſquare, but only one ſide of it is built; ſome other buildings have been added by different Princes, ſo that it is not very regular. There is a fine proſpect however from it of the port, the ocean, and the country on the oppoſite ſide of the river.

The apartments are grand, very commodious, and richly furniſhed in winter; but in ſummer they take down the hangings and curtains, and there appears nothing but bare walls, or pictures on them. There are two galleries in it about an hundred paces in length, in the firſt and ſecond ſtories, and balconies in the windows. In the third ſtory is the royal library, containing a great number of valuable books in preſſes. Adjoining to the palace is a ſquare court ſurrounded with a piazza, where the merchants meet and expoſe their goods to ſale. Within the palace are ſeveral large rooms, where the Cortes or States aſſemble, the Council of War, and the ſovereign Courts of Juſtice. The King's chapel is an elegant building, richly adorned, and ſhining with gold and azure.

Churches.

The churches in Liſbon, as in other Roman Catholick cities, are generally noble edifices, and richly adorned; but the cathedral, dedicated to St. Vincent, that ſtands upon one of the ſeven hills, to which it communicates it's name, is an old Gothick ſtructure, which has very little to recommend it but the richneſs of ſome of it's chapels, with it's ſacriſty or treaſury, where the veſſels and ornaments belonging to the church are kept. The fineſt and moſt magnificent of their churches is that of the Dominicans, in which are three chapels, ſhining with gold from the pavement to the roof. In one is the genealogy of our Saviour in baſs-relief, and in another that of St. Dominick; in the third is a fine crucifix, with the wound in the ſide open, and here the holy ſacrament is continually expoſed. This chapel is illuminated with wax-tapers, and a vaſt number of ſilver lamps; and over the portal we ſee the names of all thoſe who have been burnt by the Inquiſition. The convent is ſuitable to the magnificence of the church, and near it is the palace of the Inquiſition, to which the Portugueſe give the name of *Santa Caſa*, or the Holy Houſe; before which there is a fine fountain adorned with marble ſtatues throwing out water on every ſide.

In the church of the Auguſtins, called our Lady of Grace, is a croſs of gold adorned with precious ſtones, valued at an hundred thouſand crowns, which is carried in proceſſion at their grand feſtivals.

The Merciful Society, as it is called, have alſo a magnificent church, but it is much more celebrated for the humanity and benevolence of it's members. It is compoſed of perſons of the higheſt rank in the kingdom, the King and Princes of the blood are frequently members of it; and he who happens to be Steward, which is eſteemed a poſt of great honour, cannot ſpend leſs than a hundred thouſand livres the year he ſerves, if he would come off with applauſe. They apply themſelves to relieve all people in diſtreſs, particularly thoſe who are aſhamed to beg, widows and orphans, whom they protect againſt their injurious neighbours. They maintain a great number of poor virgins, give them portions, and marry them as they have opportunity; and in ſhort, ſays my author, ſuffer none to want but ſuch as have abandoned themſelves to vice. They relieve priſoners, and aſſiſt them in compounding for their liberty; and when any are condemned to death, they attend and comfort them in their laſt moments.

In the church dedicated to the Mother of God, every Holy Thurſday they ſhew the holy handkerchief uſed by our Saviour at his crucifixion; which the reader has met with in ſeveral other Roman Catholick churches, in the courſe of this hiſtory.

Another church is much admired, founded by the Queen of John V, which is wainſcotted with ebony from the pavement to the roof, and ſupported by pillars of the ſame wood; and here that Queen was interred, as ſhe deſired.

The hoſpital of All Saints is one of the largeſt and beſt endowed in Europe, where they entertain people of every nation and religion without exception; the ſick, the lame, madmen, and foundling children; and when they are fit to go out, give them a ſmall ſum to ſubſiſt on till they are otherwiſe provided for.

The Jeſuits have four fine convents here, being in great eſteem in Portugal, where they are ſtiled Apoſtles.

If we take a view of Liſbon from the river, or from the ſouthern ſhore, it affords an admirable proſpect; for as the town is built in the form of a creſcent, and the churches, palaces, convents, and other buildings riſe gradually from the river one above another, we command the whole city at once. On the other hand, if we behold the neighbouring country from the town, we have the moſt charming landſcape imaginable; a fine large river, a league in breadth juſt beneath us, in which we ſee a foreſt of ſhips of all ſizes; beyond it a beautiful country, interſperſed with towns and villages, and a little farther the ocean.

The harbour of Liſbon, if we extend it from St. Benito above it, to the bay of Caſcais at the mouth of the river, is four or five leagues long; but if we only take in that part of it about the town, where ſhips ride in the greateſt ſecurity from ſtorms and enemies, in eighteen fathom water, it will contain ſeveral thouſand ſail: the entry of it indeed is hazardous without a pilot; but on the other hand, ſhips ride ſecurely when they are in it, being covered by the hills on which the city ſtands on one ſide, and by the oppoſite banks, which are very high on the other. When ſhips arrive they are obliged to ſalute the fort of Bellem, or Bethleem, two leagues below Liſbon; but they are prohibited to fire a gun when they come up as high as the town, on any pretence whatever.

It is almoſt impertinent to obſerve, what every one knows, that Liſbon is one of the greateſt towns of trade in Europe, though not the greateſt, as a French writer inſinuates; for I believe it will be admitted, that London and Amſterdam have either of them a more extenſive commerce. We ſee indeed merchants of all nations and complexions in this city; and I queſtion whether the Engliſh do not ſend as many ſhips hither as to any one port in Europe, where they exchange their woollen manufactures, lead, and tin, for wine and fruit, and receive good returns in treaſure. The King, with the Grandees, Nobility, and Courts of Juſtice reſiding at Liſbon, contribute to it's flouriſhing condition, as well as it's foreign trade. And as this province is pretty well cultivated, and has frequent opportunities of importing corn and cattle by ſea and land, and the rivers and ſea-coaſts afford them plenty of fiſh and fowl, proviſions are not often ſcarce, at leaſt they are much more plentiful here than in the more inland provinces. The air is more temperate than in the

Spaniſh provinces under the ſame parallel; and their water is excellent, inſomuch that their people live to a great age, and not ſo ſubject to infirmities as in ſome other countries. And another great happineſs is, that it is much ſafer walking the ſtreets in the night-time, than in many other great towns in Europe: a man is in much greater danger of having his clothes ſpoiled by a ſhower of cloſe-ſtools, than of being robbed or murdered.

Alcantara palace.

The palace and village of Alcantara lies on the river Tagus, about a mile to the weſtward of Liſbon. The palace is a magnificent ſtructure, but chiefly admired for it's beautiful gardens, and the delicious country in which it ſtands; the grotto's, fountains, and caſcades, the brooks and canals, whoſe banks are covered with flowers, orange and citron-trees, perfume the very air, and make it a moſt agreeable retirement in the ſummer.

Bellem.

Bellem, or Bethleem, is the name of a town, a monaſtery, and a fort. The monaſtery was firſt built, and communicated it's name to the reſt. King EMANUEL founded it in the beginning of the ſixteenth century, and dedicated it to the Bleſſed Virgin, ſtiling it, *The Birth of our Lord*, in memory whereof it was called Bethleem, which the Portugueſe write and pronounce Bellem or Belin. Both the cloyſter and the church are noble piles of building, and plainly ſhew they are of royal foundation: the church is lined with jaſper and the fineſt marbles from top to bottom; and here are the tombs of ſeveral of their Kings and Princes, being exquiſite pieces of workmanſhip. The church and cloyſter are delightfully ſituated on the bank of the river, and over-againſt them in the middle of the channel is a great ſquare fort built upon piles, called, The Fort of Bellem, which all ſhips are obliged to ſalute, and ſhew their bills of diſcharge from the cuſtom-houſe, &c. and to give an account of themſelves on their arrival from abroad. This is not only a gariſon for ſoldiers, but the upper ſtories of it ſerve to confine priſoners of ſtate.

Caſcais.

Two leagues below Bellem lies the village of Caſcais, on the northern ſhore, before which is a road that ſhips frequently come to an anchor in; but it is not very ſecure riding here, on account of the ſands about it. There is a ſmall fort in the place, and it is the capital of a marquiſate.

A little above Caſcais the Tagus diſcharges itſelf into the ocean by a very wide opening, encumbered pretty much with rocks and ſands, called the Cackopper, three quarters of a league in length, and half a league in breadth, that divide the mouth of the river into two channels, through which all ſhips enter that are bound for Liſbon, by the aſſiſtance of pilots that come off from the ſhore. Each of theſe channels is defended by a fort, without whoſe leave no ſhip can paſs. The northern channel is the narroweſt and moſt difficult, which is defended by Fort St. Julien, or Giaom, built upon a rock, and furniſhed with forty pieces of cannon, and a gariſon of three hundred men.

St. Julien.

Fort Bougio.

The great channel lies to the ſouthward, being defended by Fort St. Laurence, or the Tower of Bougio, as the Portugueſe call it, and is erected on piles on a ſhoal of ſand in the middle of the ſea, being of a round form, and the works faced with free ſtone.

The town and mountain of Cintra, or the Moon, with the rock of Liſbon.

Beyond Caſcais, on the ocean, near the mouth of the Tagus, is a promontory or cape which the ancients call *Promontorium Lunæ*, or *Olyſſipponenſe*, and the modern Portugueſe, *Cabo de Rocca*, which is the ſame the Engliſh mariners call the Rock of Liſbon. This promontory is the ſpur or branch of an high mountain, which ſailors make at a great diſtance, formerly called the mountain of the Moon, and at this day Mount Cintra. On the ſide of this mountain, behind Caſcais, is a little town of the ſame name, about ſeven leagues from Liſbon. On the top of the mountain is a fine monaſtery, the friars whereof are of the order of St. JEROM, dedicated *a noſtra Senbora da Rocca*, or to our Lady of the Rock, with a church, to which people reſort and pay a nine days devotion. Both the church and cloyſter, with an inn that ſtands near it for the accommodation of the devout, are hewn out of the ſolid rock. From hence there is one of the fineſt proſpects in the world; on one ſide is the ocean, and on a ſecond the river Tagus, and on the other two a fine country well planted and manured. At the foot of the mountain on the promontory, are the ruins of an ancient temple, dedicated to the ſun and moon; on one of the pillars whereof the following inſcription is ſtill viſible, viz. SOLI AETERNO LVNAE PRO AETERNITATE IMPERII ET SALUTE IMP. CAL. . . . . SEPTIMII SEVERI ET IMP. AVG. CAES. M. AVRELII ANTONINI AVG. PII CAES. ET IVLIAE AVG. MARTIS. CAES. DRVSIVS VALERIVS CAELIANVS VIATI VSI AVGVSTORVM, &c.

On the ſide of the mountain which looks towards the ocean is the little village of Collares, where there is an ancient grotto or cave even with the water, inhabited, as was given out of old, by Tritons and Mermaids. Between the village of Collares and the mountain is one of the moſt delicious vales in the world, about a league in length, which furniſhes the markets of Liſbon with corn, wine, fruits, and flowers.

Almada.

On the ſouth ſide of the river, over-againſt Liſbon, ſtands the caſtle of Almada, ſituated on a high rock in the little bay of Couna, taking it's name from a town adjoining to it. Here is a medicinal ſpring, whoſe waters are good for the gravel. A little further at the bottom of the bay lies the little village of Couna; and beyond, towards the eaſt, the town of Aldea Gallega, on the banks of the Tagus, through which lies the common road from Seville to Liſbon.

Setubal or St. Ubes.

Setubal, vulgarly called St. Ubes, is a modern town, built out of the ruins of the ancient *Cetobriga*, which ſtood a little to the weſtward, and had in it a temple dedicated to JUPITER AMMON, in the times of paganiſm, of which there are ſtill ſome remains. Setubal is ſituated two and twenty miles to the ſouthward of Liſbon, near the mouth of the river Cudoan, at the bottom of a fine bay, which forms one of the beſt harbours in the kingdom; and on the land-ſide lies a fine plain, abounding in corn, wine, and fruits, two leagues in length; at the end whereof is a mountain, covered with a foreſt of pine-trees and other timber. At this town they make vaſt quantities of white ſalt, which is tranſported to the northern kingdoms of Europe and to America; and the fiſh with which their rivers and ſeas abound are vended to great advantage in the neighbouring provinces; ſo that St. Ubes is at this day one of the moſt flouriſhing towns on the coaſt of Portugal. It is encompaſſed with a wall and other modern fortifications, and the entrance of the harbour defended by two forts.

Cape d'Eſpichel.

To the weſt of Setubal the land runs out into the ſea, and forms a cape called by the ancients *Promontorium Barbarium*, and by the moderns Cape d'Eſpichel. It is a branch of the mountain laſt mentioned, and the rocks of which it conſiſts, afford quarries of the fineſt marble, ſuch as white, green, carnation, and other colours, of which they form pillars that take an admirable poliſh; in my author's phraſe, you may ſee your face in them as in a looking-glaſs.

Benevento

Salvaterra.

Mugen.

At the confluence of the rivers Soro and Tagus lies the little town of Benevento: and further eaſtward Salvaterra, in a fruitful country, where is one of the King's palaces, to which he frequently reſorts. Mugen ſtands at the confluence of the rivers Colo and Tagus, about eight leagues north-eaſt of Liſbon.

Tomar.

Tomar is ſituated in a fine plain at the foot of the mountains on the river Naboa, twenty leagues north-eaſt of Liſbon, the country about it being a perfect foreſt of olives. Above the town ſtands a caſtle on a mountain, which once belonged to the Templars, but at preſent to the Knights of the order of Chriſt, of which the King is Grand Maſter, and the Prior of Tomar Sub-maſter. This is one of the richeſt and moſt magnificent houſes belonging to the order. The town conſiſts of two pariſhes, and has three or four monaſteries in it.

To the northward of Tomar, in the mountains, are the vineyards of Figueiro, which produce excellent wine.

Pendragon

Farther to the northward lies the town of Pendragon, or Pedragoa, at the confluence of the rivers Pera and Zezere, in a good air and fruitful ſoil, and adorned with near two hundred fountains. Here the Kings of Portugal had a pleaſure-houſe when they reſided at Coimbra.

Leira.

Leira is ſituated weſt of Tomar, twenty leagues to the northward of Liſbon, between the two little rivers Lis and Lena, in a fruitful ſoil. It is defended by a citadel, and is a biſhoprick, the only one in the province beſides Liſbon, whoſe revenue is computed to be eighteen thouſand ducats per annum.

Alcobaca.

To the weſtward lies Alcobaca, ſituated between the two little rivers Alcoa and Baca, from whence it takes its name. The town is moderately large, but is moſt conſiderable on account of a rich monaſtery of Bernardines. It has a mitred Abbot, who is ſpiritual and temporal Lord of the place, and frequently held by perſons of the firſt rank; and in the church are the tombs of ſeveral Kings of Portugal.

To the ſouthward of Alcobaca are the hot baths called *As Caldas*, which heal many diſeaſes.

Peniche.

Thirteen or fourteen leagues north of Liſbon lies the port of Peniche, in a peninſula on the ocean, ſurrounded with rocks, and defended by a citadel and other fortifications.

Two or three leagues to the weſtward of this coaſt lie four little iſlands, called the Berlinges, or Borlings, well known to our mariners. The largeſt of them, which communicated its name to the reſt, was called by the ancients Loudobris and Erythia, and has at preſent a fort in it and a gariſon.

Santaren.

Santaren is ſituated on an eminence in the middle of a large plain that lies on the banks of the Tagus, twelve or thirteen leagues north-eaſt of Liſbon. The country about it abounds in corn, wine and olives, but particularly corn.

Alanguer.

Seven leagues north-eaſt of Liſbon lies the town of Alanguer, in a plain planted chiefly with vines that produce excellent wine.

CHAP. IV.

Contains a deſcription of the province of Beira.

Beira.

THE province of Beira is bounded by the river Duero, which ſeparates it from the provinces of Entreminho-Duero and Tralos Montes on the north; by the Spaniſh provinces of Leon and Eſtremadura on the eaſt; by the Portugueſe Eſtremadura on the ſouth; and by the ocean on the weſt: extending in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, that is from Feyra on the ocean to Salvaterra upon the river Elia, about four and thirty leagues; and in breadth thirty leagues: containing ſix camarca's, or ſubdiviſions, viz. one along the river Duero, called Lamego; a ſecond along the ocean, called Aveiro; two in the middle of the country, viz. Coimbra and Viſea; a fifth to the ſouth, on the Tagus, called Caſtel Branco; and the ſixth to the eaſtward, viz. that of Guarda.

Subdiviſions.

Rivers.

This province is watered by ſeveral conſiderable rivers, which render it very fruitful, viz. the Duero, which bounds it on the north; the Vouga and Mondego, which run quite croſs the middle of it from eaſt to weſt, and fall into the weſtern ocean; the Zezere, the Ponſul, the Aravil and Elia, which run from north to ſouth, diſcharging themſelves into the Tagus; and the Pavia, which runs from ſouth to north, and falls into the Duero.

Lamago.

Lamago is an ancient epiſcopal city, heretofore called Lama, ſituated on the little river Balſamao, near its confluence with the Duero, and is about forty leagues north of Liſbon. It contains two pariſhes, and two or three monaſteries, and about two thouſand inhabitants. It is famous for an aſſembly of the States held here in the year 1143 under ALONSO I, King of Portugal, in which their fundamental laws were firſt eſtabliſhed. The ſoil about it produces abundance of excellent wine.

Aveiro.

Aveiro, *olim Lavara*, is ſituated in a fine fruitful plain, on a little bay of the ſea near the mouth of the Vouga, ſeven leagues to the ſouthward of Oporto, and nine to the northward of Coimbra. The bay divides it into two parts, that have a communication by a ſtately bridge, and it is ſurrounded by an antique wall and towers. The port will admit only of ſmall veſſels. There are in it four pariſhes, three or four monaſteries and nunneries, an hoſpital, and about two thouſand inhabitants. They make here great quantities of ſalt, which foreigners take off their hands.

Sierra de Alcoba.

From Oporto to Coimbra there runs a long chain of mountains, called by the ancients Mount Alcoba, which name they retain at this day. Between theſe mountains and the ſea is a pleaſant fruitful valley, interſperſed with villages, but ſcarce a league in breadth in any place. The mountains are full of ſprings, which form little rivulets that fall into the Duero, the Vouga, or Mondega.

Coimbra.

Coimbra, or Conimbra, is ſituated on an eminence at the end of a fine plain on the north ſide of the river Mondego, thirty leagues to the northward of Liſbon, and ſix to the eaſtward of the ocean. It is a Biſhop's See, ſuffragan of Fraga, and the moſt celebrated univerſity in Portugal; and here is one of the tribunals of the Inquiſition. The city comprehends ſeven pariſhes, five convents of men and four of nuns, ſixteen colleges, a houſe of mercy, (of the ſame inſtitution with that mentioned in the deſcription of Liſbon) and an hoſpital; and there are about five thouſand families in the place. The bridge is a fine ſtone fabrick, of twenty-nine arches, and indeed conſiſts of two rows of arches one above another, and forms a covered way, through which people paſs without being expoſed to the weather. The univerſity was founded in the year 1290, by King DENNIS I, and removed from thence to Liſbon; but King JOHN III, fixed the univerſity here again in the year 1553, and is thereupon regarded as its founder. The Jeſuits college is deemed the fineſt edifice in the place, and is prodigiouſly large. The aqueduct, which brings water to the town, alſo is admired. The cathedral and the reſt of the churches and monaſteries are handſom buildings, well adorned and beautified; but the ſtreets and private houſes have no great elegancy in them. As the town ſtands on the ſide of a hill, the ſtreets are generally uneven; that called the Calzada, where the Jeſuits college ſtands, is much the faireſt. There are fifty profeſſors in the univerſity, and near three thouſand ſtudents. The revenues are computed to be about four thouſand pounds per annum. The country about Coimbra is extremely pleaſant, and well planted with vines and olives.

CHAP. V.

Contains a deſcription of the Province of Entreminho-Duero.

Entreminho-Douro province.

THE province of Entreminho-Douro, or Duero, derives its name from its ſituation between thoſe rivers; being bounded by the Minho, which ſeparates it from the Spaniſh province of Galicia on the north; by the province of Tralos Montes on the eaſt; by the river Duero, which divides it from the province of Beira on the ſouth; and by the ocean on the weſt.

Rivers.

The principal rivers, beſides the Minho and the Douro already deſcribed, are the Lima, the Tamaga, the Cavado, and the Rio d'Aves.

The Lima riſes in Galicia, and taking its courſe to the ſouth-weſt through this province, falls into the ocean near Viana.

The Tamaga alſo hath its ſource in Galicia, and running almoſt due north before it falls into the Douro, divides part of this province from that of Tralos Montes.

The river Cavado (*Cadavus*) riſes in the mountains on the confines of Galicia, and running ſouth-weſt by Braga, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea a little to the ſouthward of the Lima.

The Rio d'Aves, *olim Avus*, runs parallel to that of the Cavado, and falls into the weſtern ocean to the ſouthward of it.

The province is ſubdivided into four Camarca's, or diſtricts.

Air, &c.

It is naturally well defended, being ſeparated from Spain on the north and eaſt by rivers and almoſt inacceſſible mountains, and on the weſt it has the ocean. They enjoy almoſt a perpetual ſpring, and a ſweet ſerene air. They have little grain, and that is chiefly rye and millet: however, they abound in wine. Here are alſo great flocks of ſheep, the wool and fleſh of which are in good eſteem; and in their mountains and foreſts is plenty of game.

Chief towns.

The chief towns are Viana, Caminha, Moncaon, Ponte de Lima, Eſpoſendo, Porto, Braga, Amarante, and Guimaraes.

Viana.

Viana de Foz de Lima, ſo named from its lying at the mouth of the Lima, and to diſtinguiſh it from another town of the ſame name in the ſouth of Portugal, is pleaſantly ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, five or ſix leagues to the weſtward of Braga. The town conſiſts but of one pariſh, moderately large, and adorned with ſome handſom buildings, both publick and private, and particularly two convents of Benedictines, that make a good appearance. The ſtreets are well paved and even, and the harbour commodious, but of difficult entrance, which renders it the ſecurer from enemies, all ſhips being obliged to have a pilot from the coaſt to carry them in. At the entrance of the port is a good citadel, regularly fortified, and ſurrounded by a ditch cut out of the ſolid rock. It is become a place of briſk trade ſince the Engliſh have taken off ſo much Portugal wine, though the vines of this province are much ſmaller than thoſe that come from the more ſouthern parts of the kingdom. The Governor of the province and the Treaſurer-General have their reſidence here.

Caminha.

Caminha is a frontier town, ſituated at the mouth of the Minho, over-againſt Guardia in Galicia, three leagues to the northward of Viana. The place is ſtrong both by art and nature, being encompaſſed by the Minho on one ſide, and the little river Coira on the other, and defended by walls and baſtions of the modern way. At the entrance of the river Minho alſo, in a little iſland, is built a regular fort, which commands the avenues to the town and harbour. It is the capital of a duchy which belongs to the Marquis of Villa Real.

Moncaon.

Moncaon is another little frontier town, ſituate on the Minho, over-againſt Salvaterra in Galicia. It is defended by a caſtle, and ſurrounded by walls and fortifications after the modern way, but not conſiderable upon any other account.

Ponte de Lima.

Ponte de Lima is ſo named from a fine bridge over the river Lima at this place. It is a pretty walled town, about twenty miles to the northward of Braga, conſiſting of one pariſh, and about five hundred inhabitants, and has in it a monaſtery, an hoſpital, and a houſe of mercy.

Porto.

Porto, formerly called Portucale, and at this day ſometimes Port-a-Port, is ſituated on the ſide of a rugged mountain, the foot whereof is waſhed by the Douro, and is about a league diſtant from the mouth of that river, which here forms a good harbour when the ſhipping are got into it, but it is of very difficult entrance on account of the rocks and ſands, which form a bar that can only be got over at high water with the aſſiſtance of a coaſting pilot. The ſtreets are well paved and commodious enough, only the inequality of the ground the town ſtands upon makes it not very pleaſant walking in them. There is a fine key runs along the banks of the river, cloſe to which the ſhipping lies; ſo that a merchant may ſee his veſſels unloaded from his own windows. It is computed the natives of this place may amount to four or five thouſand people, beſides foreigners that reſort hither on account of trade. It is eſteemed the ſecond town of the province, and is honoured with a Biſhop's See of great antiquity. Here is alſo one of the ſovereign Councils or Courts of the kingdom held, and an academy for young gentlemen to learn their exerciſes. They have alſo an arſenal, docks and yards for building and fitting out men of war. Though the ſituation of this place be naturally ſtrong and inacceſſible from the ſea, it has only an antique wall with ſome ruinous towers on the land-ſide, and a little fort with four baſtions. The moſt elegant building in the place is a convent of the Auguſtins, in which there is a beautiful gallery of a vaſt extent: the church belonging to it is of a round form, and very richly adorned.

Braga.

Braga is a very ancient archiepiſcopal city, known to the Romans by the name of Bracara Auguſta, as appears by the following inſcription found there, viz.

ISIDI AVG. SACRVM. LVCRETIA. FIDA, SACERDOS. PERP. ROMAE ET AVG. CONVENTVS. BRACARAVG. V. D.

It was one of the four principal towns of Spain, and capital of a government, ſaid to be built by the Bracares, who anciently inhabited this country, and communicated their name to it. When the Suevi came from Germany, and made a conqueſt of Galicia and Portugal, this was the ſeat of their kingdom for an hundred and ſeventy years; and the Goths, who ſucceeded them, alſo made it the capital of a kingdom.

The city ſtands on the ſouth bank of the river Cavado, about five leagues to the eaſtward of the ocean, and ſixty north of Liſbon. It conſiſts of five pariſhes, three monaſteries, and as many nunneries, and contains about three thouſand families. The houſes are generally old ſubſtantial ſtone buildings, but have no great elegancy in them, any more than the Archbiſhop's palace and the cathedral, which are more admired for their antiquity and extent than for their beauty. The Archbiſhop is both ſpiritual and temporal lord of the place, for which reaſon he has a ſword as well as a croſs carried before him. His revenue is forty thouſand ducats per annum, and he diſputes the primacy with the Archbiſhop of Toledo in Spain. Toledo it ſeems loſt the title of Primate of Spain when that city was in the hands of the Moors; and when ALPHONSO I, King of Leon and Caſtile, retook Braga from the Moors in the year 740, he transferred that dignity to this city, and all the Biſhops of Spain acknowledged the Archbiſhop of Braga for their Primate: but the Chriſtians having reduced Toledo under their power again, the Archbiſhops of that city inſiſted on having the primacy reſtored to them: but the diſpute is not yet determined. However, the Biſhops of Spain acknowledge Toledo for their Primate, as thoſe of Portugal do Braga. The country about Braga produces corn, wine and fruit, and here is a great deal of paſture, on which they feed large flocks of ſheep.

Guimaraez.

Guimaraez, or Guimaranes, the capital of a diſtrict, is ſituated on the river Aves, about three leagues ſouth-eaſt of Braga, and conſiſts of four pariſhes, two monaſteries, a houſe of mercy and an hoſpital, containing about a thouſand inhabitants. Here is a palace of the ancient Kings of Portugal, and ſome other handſom buildings; their chief manufactures are linen and fine thread. The country about it is as fruitful as any in Portugal, producing corn, wine and fruits, and abounding in ſheep, game and wild fowl.

Amarante

A little to the ſouthward of Guimaraez lies Amarante, a pretty little town, ſituated on the river Tamaga.

CHAP. VI.

Deſcribes the province of Tralos Montes,

Tralos Montes.

THE province of Tralos Montes, or Beyond the Mountains, ſo called from its ſituation with regard to the reſt of Spain, is bounded by Galicia on the north; by Leon on the eaſt; by Beira on the ſouth; and by a chain of mountains which divide it from Entreminho-Douro on the weſt; being thirty leagues in length from north to ſouth, and twenty in breadth.

Rivers.

The chief rivers are the Douro, the Tamaga, the Pinhaon, the Tuelo, the Sabor, and the Coa. The Douro divides the north-eaſt part of this province from Leon, and then turning about to the weſtward, divides Tralos Montes into almoſt two equal parts. The river Tamaga enters this province from the mountains of Galicia; and running ſouthward, divides part of this province from Entreminho-Douro. The rivers Pinhaon, Tuelo, and Sabor, alſo having their ſources in Galicia, run to the ſouthward and fall into the Douro. The river Coa, *olim Cuda*, riſes in the mountains on the confines of Portugal and the Spaniſh Eſtremadura, and taking its courſe almoſt directly north, diſcharges itſelf into the Douro over-againſt Torre de Mon Corvo.

This is a barren mountainous country, yielding ſcarce any corn, though it produces a good quantity of wine and oil. The natives are looked upon to be as clowniſh and unpoliſhed as any part of Portugal, and but few gentry among them. The chief towns are Miranda de Douro, Braganza, Montforte, Chaves, Villa Real, Almeida, and Caſtel Rodrigo.

Mirauda.

Miranda de Douro, ſo called from its ſtanding on that river, to diſtinguiſh it from Miranda on the Ebro in Caſtile, is ſtrongly ſituated on a rock, at the confluence of the Douro and the little river Freſce, on the frontiers of Spain, and is a place of importance, as it opens a paſſage into the province of Leon, which lies expoſed to incurſions on this ſide, not being defended by mountains, woods or rivers. It is a city and Biſhop's See, though it conſiſts but of one pariſh, a houſe of mercy, an hoſpital, and about four hundred families.

Braganza.

Braganza, *olim Brigantium*, is ſituated in a plain, on a little rivulet near the river Sabor, about two leagues from the confines of Leon, and ten to the northward of Miranda. It is divided into the new and old town, the old ſtanding on an eminence, and defended with antique double walls. The new city ſtands in the plain at the foot of a mountain, and has a fort with four baſtions adjoining to it. The whole conſiſts of two pariſhes, two monaſteries, and as many nunneries, a college, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, with about ſix hundred families. Braganza is the capital of a celebrated dutchy, belonging to the preſent King of Portugal, whoſe anceſtors were Dukes of Braganza, the moſt illuſtrious houſe among the nobility, being deſcended from their ancient Kings.

Chaves. Chaves, or Chiaves, *olim Aqua Flavia*, is ſituated on the river Tamaga, two leagues from the frontiers of Galicia; a fortified town, defended by a double wall, a caſtle and other works, and is the principal town of the province, the reſidence of the Governor and Treaſurer-General. Here are found abundance of ancient monuments, and among the reſt a pillar with the names of the ten cities of the province, viz.

CIVITATES DECEM, AQUIFLAVIENSIS, AOBRIGENS, BIBALI, COELERINI, ERVAESIL, INTERAMICI, LIMICI, AEBISOC, QVARQVERN, TAMACANI.

Montalegre. To the weſtward of Chaves ſtands the caſtle of Montalegre; and to the ſouthward, not far from the Douro, between the little rivers Corgo and **Villa Real.** Ribera, the town of Villa Real, conſiſting of two pariſhes, two monaſteries, a nunnery, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, and about eight thouſand inhabitants.

Almeida. Almeida is a little fortified town, ſituated on a hill on the frontiers of Spain, conſiſting of about three hundred inhabitants.

Caſtel Rodrigo. Caſtel Rodrigo is a fortified town, ſituated among the mountains, a little to the ſouthward of the Douro, and to the eaſtward of the frontiers of Spain, remarkable chiefly for a fine palace. The reſt of the towns of this province do not deſerve a particular deſcription.

CHAP. VII.

Deſcribes the province of Alentejo.

CHAP. VII.

Alentejo province. ALENTEJO, *Provincia trans Tagana*, ſo called in regard of its ſituation to Liſbon, and ſometimes *Entre Tejo Guadiana*, from its lying between thoſe two rivers, is bounded on the north by the Portugueſe Eſtremadura; and by Andaluſia and the Spaniſh Eſtremadura on the eaſt; by the kingdom of Algarva on the ſouth, and the Portugueſe Eſtremadura and the ocean on the weſt; extending about thirty-ſix leagues in length, and near as much in breadth.

Rivers. The chief rivers are the Tagus and Guadiana already deſcribed, the Zadoan, the Exarama, the Campilhas, the Canha, the Odivor, the Avis and the Cava. The Zadoan, *Sadanus, olim Calippus*, has its ſource in the mountains of Algarva, and running from ſouth to north, falls into the ſea near Setubal, as has been intimated already. The reſt of them are ſo inconſiderable, that they are dried up in the heat of the ſummer, and do not deſerve a particular deſcription.

This province is divided into five Camarca's, or diſtricts, viz. thoſe of Portalegre, Elvas, Eſtremos, Ebora and Beja; and is eſteemed one of the richeſt and moſt fruitful in Portugal, eſpecially in corn: they have alſo excellent wines, admirable fruit, the beſt ſweet, or China oranges, come from hence, and they have abundance of dates: their mutton and beef are good, and they make better cheeſe than in any other province; and here are ſome ſilver mines, with quarries of marble and jaſper.

The chief towns are Ebora, Eſtremos, Elvas, Campo Mayor, Aronches, Portalegre, Olivenza, Villa Vicioſa, Moura, Serpa, Mertola, Beja, Portel, Viana, Alcazar de Sal, St. Iago de Cacem, Sines and Orique.

Ebora. Ebora is ſituated on a hill encompaſſed with mountains, about the middle of the province, twenty leagues ſouth eaſt of Liſbon. It is about a league in circumference, and encompaſſed with an antique wall and towers, and reckoned a very ſtrong place before the modern way of fortification came in vogue. It conſiſts of five pariſhes, nine monaſteries, ſeven nunneries, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, and contains about four thouſand inhabitants. Prince HENRY eſtabliſhed a univerſity here about the year 1559, but it does not flouriſh. According to tradition, this city was built by the Phenicians, who gave it the name of Ebora, alluding to the fruitfulneſs of the ſoil. JULIUS CÆSAR changed its name to *Liberalitas Julia*, as appears by an ancient inſcription diſcovered here, viz.

DIVO IVLIO LIB. IVLIA EBORA OB. IVLIVS IN MVN. ET MVNIC. LIBERALITATEM EX D. D. D. QVOVIS DEDICATIONE VENERI GENETRICI CAESTVM MATRONAE DONVM TVLERVNT.

It was a conſiderable town in the time of the Gothick Kings, and had the privilege of coining money, as appears by a medal of King SISEBUT, on the reverſe whereof we find the words *Civitas Ebora*. It remained under the dominion of the Moors, till the year 1166, when King ALPHONSO I, retook it from them, with the reſt of the towns of Alentejo. Twenty years after he erected it into a Biſhoprick; and in the ſixteenth century, Pope PAUL III, at the inſtance of King JOHN, created it an archbiſhoprick; Cardinal HENRY, the brother of JOHN, who ſucceeded to the crown on the death of his nephew the unfortunate Don SEBASTIAN, being the firſt Archbiſhop of this See. The country about Ebora, as well mountains as valleys, are exceeding fruitful, and in the former are mines of ſilver.

Eſtremos. Eſtremos is ſituated ſix or ſeven leagues north-eaſt of Ebora, on a hill which it covers entirely, and is divided into the higher and lower town, the higher ſerving as a caſtle to the lower. It was ſtrongly fortified at the time that Portugal revolted from Spain, being not far from the frontiers of Andaluſia. The houſes of people of condition make a grand appearance, being built with white marble, which they find upon the ſpot. The town conſiſts of three pariſhes, three monaſteries, a nunnery, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, containing about two thouſand inhabitants. They make a very fine red earthen-ware at this place, which was not long ſince in great eſteem in England and other countries of Europe, and ſerved to adorn their tea-tables. Without the town is a fountain, ſo large that it turns ſeveral mills near its ſource, but it dries up in winter. It has the quality alſo of petrefying any thing almoſt that is thrown into it.

Elvas. Elvas ſtands about twenty-four miles to the eaſtward of Eſtremos, and ſix from the frontiers of the Spaniſh Eſtremadura. It is ſituated on a hill which it covers entirely; it is defended by a caſtle, and ſtrongly fortified, the works being of hewn ſtone. It contains ſeveral fair ſtreets and handſom houſes, and has a ciſtern ſo large, that it will hold water enough for the inhabitants for ſix months. The water was conveyed thither by a magnificent aqueduct three leagues in length, and ſupported in ſome places by five high arches one over another, which was broken by Don JOHN of Auſtria, when he beſieged the place in 659. It conſiſts of four pariſhes, three monaſteries, two nunneries, a houſe of mercy, and three hoſpitals, and contains about two thouſand five hundred inhabitants. It is a very ancient town, and was formerly called Helvis, from a people of Gaul who built it, according to tradition. On that ſide of the town where the aqueduct is, they have a large foreſt of olives, three quarters of a league in length, and cut into walks, with fountains in the middle of them. Near this place Don JOHN of Auſtria was defeated by the Portugueſe, and forced to raiſe the ſiege above-mentioned. Beſides oil, the neighbouring country affords ſome of the beſt wine in Portugal. King EMANUEL honoured Elvas with the title of a city anno 1513, and King SEBASTIAN procured it to be made a biſhoprick in the year 1570. I find it is eſteemed at this day one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in the kingdom.

Campo Mayor. Two leagues to the northward of Elvas lies Campo Mayor, a frontier town againſt Spain, ſituated on the flat top of a hill, and pretty well fortified. It conſiſts of only one pariſh, a monaſtery, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, and contains about twelve hundred inhabitants.

Arronches Arronches is another little frontier town, to the northward of Campo Mayor, and contains about five hundred inhabitants.

Portalegre Portalegre is a fine town, honoured with the title of a city and a biſhoprick, ſituated at the foot of a very high mountain, in an agreeable country, thirty leagues to the eaſtward of Liſbon, and near the frontiers of Spain. It is defended by a good wall, with ſome old towers upon it, a caſtle, and other fortifications; but I do not look upon it to be a place of great ſtrength. It conſiſts of five pariſhes, three monaſteries, two nunneries, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, and contains about three thouſand inhabitants. They have here a very indifferent woollen manufacture.

Caſtello de Vide. Marvan. Two leagues to the northward of Portalegre ſtands Caſtello de Vide, and to the eaſtward of it another ſtrong caſtle called Marvan, with ſeveral other caſtles erected on a chain of mountains near the frontiers of Spain, which formerly went by the name of *Mons Herminius*.

Olivenza. Olivenza is ſituated in a large plain on the eaſt-ſide of the river Guadiana, and as the Spaniſh Eſtremadura lies open to it on this ſide, is deemed a town of conſequence, for which reaſon it is fortified after the modern way. It contains two pariſhes, a monaſtery, two nunneries, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, and about two thouſand inhabitants.

Villa Vicioſa. Villa Vicioſa is a fortified town, ſituated between Elvas and Eſtremos, and is defended alſo by a caſtle, which commands the place, and has in it a palace which belongs to the houſe of Braganza, with an adjoining park three leagues in circumference. The town conſiſts of two pariſhes, ſix monaſteries, three nunneries, a houſe of mercy and an hoſpital, containing about two thouſand inhabitants. In the ſuburbs is an old temple, now conſecrated to St. JAMES, but formerly to PROSERPINE; and great numbers of inſcriptions are found in honour of that Pagan deity, among which one is as follows:

PROSERPINAE, SERVATRICI C. VETTIVS SILVINVS PRO EVNOIDE PLANTILLA CONIVGE SIBI RESTITVTA V. S. A. L. P. Theſe laſt letters ſignify, *Votum Solvens Animo Libens Poſuit.*

Moura. Moura is an ancient town, formerly known by the name of *Arucci Nova*, ſituated in a plain, about a mile to the eaſtward of the Guadiana, at the confluence of two little brooks which fall into the Adita, and eight or nine leagues to the ſouthward of Ebora. It conſiſts of two pariſhes, two monaſteries, as many nunneries, a houſe of mercy, an hoſpital, and a fort; but being taken by the Spaniards in the late war, the fortifications were demoliſhed on their quitting it in the year 1708.

Serpa. Serpa is ſituated on an eminence, very rocky and uneven, a league to the eaſtward of the Guadiana, ten leagues to the ſouthward of Moura, and about half a day's journey from the frontiers of Andaluſia. The Spaniards demoliſhed the fortifications of this place in the year 1708. It conſiſts of two pariſhes, a monaſtery, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital; and contains about eighteen hundred inhabitants. Serpa is a very ancient town, and retains the ſame name it had in the time of the Romans, as appears by the following inſcription found near the wall, viz.

D. M. S. FABIA PRISCA SERPENSIS C. R. ANN. 20. H. S. E. S. T. T. L. C. GEMINICVS PRISCVS PATER ET FABIA CADILLA MATER POSVERVNT.

The adjacent fields are extremely agreeable, being planted with groves of figs or olives: but in the great road from Cadiz and Andaluſia to Liſbon, which lies through this town, for the ſpace of fifty miles, viz. from Cubas to Aldea Gallega, it is very bad travelling, the country being one ſandy deſart, with ſome poor inns upon it at fifteen or twenty miles diſtance from each other, that afford very little entertainment.

Mertola. Mertola, *olim Myrtillis*, is an ancient town, ſituated on an eminence on the eaſt ſide of the Guadiana, near the place where that river begins to be navigable, about twelve leagues to the ſouthward of Serpa. It was a flouriſhing town in the time of the Romans, as appears by the pillars, ſtatues, and other antiquities that are daily dug up here, as well as by the many pieces of ſculpture placed confuſedly in the walls by the Goths and Moors, who did not underſtand them.

Beja. Beja, or Bexa, *olim Pax Julia*, ſtands on an eminence in the middle of a fruitful plain, three leagues to the weſtward of the Guadiana; and thirty ſouth-eaſt of Liſbon. It is of a round form, and defended by an antique wall and towers, with a caſtle built by King DENIS. It conſiſts of four pariſhes, three monaſteries, as many nunneries, a houſe of mercy and an hoſpital, and was honoured with the title of a city by King EMANUEL. Anciently it was a Roman colony, and three of the preſent gates are ſaid to be of Roman architecture. On the ſteps of the cathedral church is found the following broken inſcription, viz.

——PAX IVLI——Q. PETRON.——

And lower more entire L. AELIO AVRELIO COMMODO IMP. CAES. AELI HADRIANI ANTONINI AVG. PII P. P. FILIO COL. PAX. IVLIA D. D. Q. PETRONIO MATERNO C. IVLIO IVLIANO II. VIR.

Portel. Eight or nine leagues to the northward of Beja, ſtands the little walled town of Portel on a hill, with a caſtle on the top of it, conſiſting of two pariſhes, two monaſteries, and ſeven hundred inhabitants.

Viana. Four or five leagues to the ſouthward of Ebora lies Viana, on the river Exarama, being defended by a caſtle, and contains one pariſh, a nunnery, and about ſix hundred inhabitants.

Alcazar de Sal.

Alcazar de Sal, *Olim Salacia Imperatoria*, is ſituated on the Sadoan, in the diſtrict of Setubal, and ten or twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of that town, famous for it's ſalt-pits. Above Alcazar, on a high ſteep mountain, ſtands the caſtle, ſtrong by art and nature. This town is not only conſiderable for it's ſalt, but the fine mats which are made of the ruſhes in the neighbouring meadows, and vended in all parts of the kingdom.

St. Iago de Cacem.

St. Iago de Cacem is ſituated on a pleaſant hill, about a league and a half to the eaſtward of the ſea-coaſt, from whence there is a fine proſpect of the ocean. It received it's modern name partly from a Mooriſh lord, who was poſſeſſed of it when the Chriſtians retook it from the Infidels, and partly from a miraculous image of St. JAMES, which, according to tradition, was found here when the town was taken. It was built out of the ruins of the ancient Merobriga, which ſtood about two hundred paces from it, and of which there are ſtill ſome ruinous remains, as an aqueduct, a bridge in the middle of a valley, and a fountain, with a fine reſervoir of hewn ſtone.

Sines.

Sines, or Odiſines, is a port-town, ſouth-weſt of St. Iago de Cacem, inhabited by fiſhermen, who make great advantages of the ſhoals of good fiſh which they take on their coaſt. To the ſouthward of Sines lies the fine plain of Ourique, in which are twelve or thirteen villages, the chief whereof gives name to this plain, memorable for a victory the Chriſtians obtained here anno 1139, over five Kings of the Infidels, under the conduct of ALPHONSO their General, who was thereupon proclaimed King of Portugal in the field of battle. In the 16th century King SEBASTIAN built a magnificent church upon the place, adorned with trophies, to perpetuate the memory of this ſignal victory.

CHAP. VIII.

Deſcribes the province, or kingdom of Algarva.

CHAP. VIII.

Algarva province.

ALGARVA, or Algarb, is the moſt ſoutherly province of Portugal, being bounded by the mountains called Sierra de Algarve, or Calderaon, which ſeparate it from Alentejo, on the north; by the Guadiana and a ridge of mountains which divide it from Andaluſia on the eaſt; and by the ocean on the ſouth and weſt; being about twenty-ſeven leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and eight in breadth. It is watered by a great many little rivers, but none of any length or conſequence except the Guadiana already deſcribed. The Celtæ and Turditani poſſeſſed this country in the time of the Romans. The Moors held it upwards of five centuries, and gave it the modern name of Algarva, an Arabick word, which many writers inform us, ſignifies a fruitful country; but a French author before me, who pretends to be better verſed in Arabick, aſſures us that the word *Algarbe* ſignifies a weſtern country ſituated at the ends of the earth, which agrees very well with the ſituation of this province. The face of the country is generally mountainous, but affords however plenty of wine, figs, raiſins, oil and almonds, inferior however to thoſe of Spain, and it abounds in dates; but they have not always corn ſufficient for their own uſe, and then they import it from the plains of Ourique, or from Africk chiefly.

The chief towns are Caſtro Marin, Tavila, Faro, Silves, Villa Nova de Portimao, Albor, Lagos, and Sagrez.

Caſtro Marin.

Caſtro Marin is a little frontier town and port, on the weſt ſide of the mouth of the Guadiana, over againſt Aymonte in Andaluſia. The rocks and mountains on the ſide of Spain render it of difficult acceſs.

Tavila.

Tavira, or Tavila, is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, at the mouth of the little river Gilaon, five or ſix leagues to the weſtward of the Guadiana, and is ſuppoſed to be the Balſa of the ancients. It is the capital of the province, but neither large or populous. It conſiſts of two pariſhes, four monaſteries, a nunnery, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, and contains about two thouſand inhabitants. The town is walled, and defended by a caſtle, and in the middle of it is a ſtately bridge over the little river above mentioned.

Faro.

Faro is a conſiderable port, ſtrongly ſituated on the Ocean, which here forms a bay, in the midway between Cape St. Vincent, and the mouth of the Guadiana, and is defended by a good caſtle and other works. It conſiſts of two pariſhes, three monaſteries, a nunnery, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, containing about two thouſand inhabitants, and is now an epiſcopal See, removed hither from Silves anno 1590. It was built out of the ruins of the ancient Oſſonoba, which lay a little to the eaſtward, and is now reduced to a ſmall village called Eſtoi, where was found the following inſcriptions, viz.

IMP. CAES. P. LICINIO VALERIANO
P. F. AVG. PONT. MAX. P. P. TR. POT.
III. COS. RESP. OSSON. EX. DECRETO.
ORD. DEVOT.——NVMINI MAIESTATIS EIVS D. D.

The ſea produces abundance of good fiſh near Faro, and accordingly moſt of the inhabitants are employed in the fiſhery.

Silves.

Silves is ſituated in a pleaſant country, four or five leagues north-weſt of Faro, formerly a Biſhop's See, but now reduced to an inconſiderable town of forty houſes.

Lagos.

Lagos is ſituated on a fine bay of the ocean, about five leagues to the eaſtward of Cape St. Vincent, where the Britiſh fleet frequently took in water and other refreſhments in the late war. It conſiſts of two pariſhes, two monaſteries, a nunnery, a houſe of mercy, and an old caſtle, and contains about two thouſand inhabitants. The fiſhery ſeems here alſo to be the principal buſineſs of the inhabitants.

Cape St. Vincent.

Cape St. Vincent, anciently called *Promontorium Sacrum*, is the ſouth-weſt point of the Continent of Europe, near which is a little town that ſtill retains ſome likeneſs of the ancient name, being called Sagrez, to which there belongs a tolerable road for ſhipping, but has little elſe in it that deſerves a deſcription.

As to the iſlands of Portugal, which are ſituated in the Atlantick Ocean between Europe, Africa and America, they will be treated of in another place: I ſhall only obſerve here, that the chief of them are the iſlands of Cape Verd, which lie near that point of land on the coaſt of Africk, and thoſe of the Azores, or Terceras, which lie in much the ſame latitude with Portugal, but rather nearer the continent of America than that of Europe; and the iſland of Medena, which lies to the north of the Canaries.

CHAP. IX.

Contains an abſtract of the hiſtory of Portugal.

CHAP. IX.

PORTUGAL remaining a province of Spain till the Moors made a conqueſt of it in the eighth century, the hiſtory of Portugal till that time, and until the Moors were driven out of it by the Chriſtians, has been already conſidered. The Generals of the Moors, as has been obſerved already, divided Portugal as they did the reſt of Spain, into abundance of little principalities, every Captain almoſt ſtiling himſelf King or Sovereign of what he had poſſeſſed himſelf of by force of arms.

In the year 1093 ALPHONSO, or ALONSO VI, King of Leon, and the firſt of Caſtile, demanding the aſſiſtance of all Chriſtian powers againſt the Infidels, amongſt other noble adventurers came HENRY, a younger ſon of ROBERT Duke of Burgundy, whoſe father was ROBERT King of France, the ſon of HUGH CAPET, according to ſome writers; tho' others derive his pedigree from the houſe of Lorrain. But however that be, all agree that HENRY with the troops he brought with him did ſignal ſervice againſt the Infidels: Whereupon King ALPHONSUS gave him his natural daughter THERESIA in marriage, and ſo much of Portugal as was then in poſſeſſion of the Chriſtians, which conſiſted then chiefly in the provinces of Entreminho-Douro and Tralos Montes, together with the reſt of that country as far as the river Guadiana, if he could complete the conqueſt of it, conferring on him at the ſame time the title of Count or Earl of Portugal; upon condition nevertheleſs, that he ſhould acknowledge the Sovereignty of the Kings of Caſtile, and attend them in their wars with three hundred horſe whenever he was required.

Henry Earl of Portugal.

HENRY died in the year 1112, leaving a ſon named ALONSO or ALPHONSO, then an infant; during whoſe minority FERDINAND PACIZ, Count of Treſtamara, who married his mother, had the adminiſtration of the government. But ALPHONSO coming of age, drove his father-in-law out of the kingdom, impriſoned his mother and took the government into his own hands. She calling in ALPHONSUS VII, King of Caſtile, to her aſſiſtance, a battle was fought between the Count and the King of Spain, wherein the Count obtaining the victory, he looked upon it that he had thereby freed himſelf from the ſubjection of the King of Caſtile. ALPHONSO afterwards invaded the territories of ISMAR the Moor, whoſe territories lay to the ſouthward of the Tagus, and defeated him, with four other petty Mooriſh Kings his confederates, in that memorable battle fought in the plains of Ourique above-mentioned, which was followed with the reduction of moſt of the ſouthern part of Portugal as far as the mountains of Algarva. Whereupon he was proclaimed King of Portugal by his army; and having taken the ſtandards of the five Mooriſh Kings in that engagement, he ordered five ſhields to be quartered in the arms of Portugal, which are retained to this day. ALPHONSO, after a glorious reign, died in the eightieth year of his age, anno 1185.

Sancho I. 1185.

SANCHO, or SANCTIUS, his ſon, ſucceeded him, who was all his reign, like his father, engaged with the Moors, but found time however to build and people a great many conſiderable towns. He died in the year 1212, and was ſucceeded by his ſon ALPHONSUS, ſurnamed CRASSUS, of whom we meet with nothing more recorded in hiſtory than that he made a voyage to the Holy Land and took the city of Alcaſſar from the Moors. He died in the year 1223, and was ſucceeded by his ſon SANCHO II, an indolent Prince, whom his ſubjects having depoſed, he fled to Toledo, and his brother ALPHONSO III was thereupon declared Regent. Upon SANCHO's death ALPHONSO took upon him the title of King; and marrying BEATRICE the natural daughter of ALPHONSO X, King of Caſtile, received with her in dower the kingdom of Algarves, then lately recovered from the Moors. Whereupon the Kings of Portugal took for their arms a Border, Gules, interſperſed with caſtles Or without number; but now reduced to ſeven round their eſcutcheon. He was an active Prince, and having added ſeveral conſiderable cities to his kingdom, died anno 1279, when he was ſucceeded by his ſon DIONYSIUS a Prince celebrated for his juſtice, liberality and conſtancy, and adorning the kingdom with a great many publick buildings; among others, the academy of Coimbra was founded by this Prince. He died in the year 1325, and was ſucceeded by his ſon ALPHONSO IV, ſurnamed *the Brave*. His reign was diſturbed in the beginning of it by his natural brother ALPHONSO, who was in great eſteem with the people; but he defeated him at length, and compelled him to fly the kingdom. He obtained a great deal of honour alſo in that general battle fought between the Chriſtian Princes of Spain and Portugal on the one ſide, and a confederacy of the Mooriſh Kings on the other, called the battle of Sellado, where the Chriſtians obtained a ſignal victory over the Infidels, and killed two hundred thouſand Moors upon the ſpot, if we may credit their hiſtorians; but nothing is ſo common as to find them enlarge and magnify things in their relation of theſe wars much beyond the truth. The greateſt blemiſh in the reign of this Prince was the putting to death Donna AGNES DE CASTRO, whom his ſon PETER had married againſt his conſent, which occaſioned the young Prince to foment an inſurrection againſt his father, which was not ſuppreſſed without a great deal of bloodſhed; but at length matters were compromiſed between the father and ſon, and ALPHONSO dying in the year 1357, was ſucceeded by PETER, to whom ſome have given the name of *the Cruel*, which it is ſaid was occaſioned only by his ſtrict execution of offenders, never ſparing any that were convicted; but chiefly from his putting all thoſe to death who had been any ways concerned in the murder of his beloved wife AGNES. He died in the year 1368, and was ſucceeded by his ſon FERDINAND, who laid claim alſo to the kingdom of Caſtile, to which HENRY *the Baſtard*, who had murdered his brother PETER, ſurnamed *the Cruel*, had no legal title. But HENRY on the contrary invaded Portugal, and ravaged the country in a very dreadful manner, obliging FERDINAND to deſiſt from his pretenſions: But after the death of HENRY, the Portugueſe being aſſiſted by JOHN Duke of Lancaſter, who had married CONSTANTIA the daughter and heireſs of PETER King of Caſtile, renewed the war with JOHN the ſon of HENRY *the Baſtard*, which was for ſome time carried on with great vigour. At length a treaty was concluded between the parties, wherein it was agreed, that JOHN King of Caſtile ſhould marry the Prin-

CHAP. IX.

Alphonſo II. 1212.

Sancho II. 1223.

Alphonſo III.

Dionyſius. 1279.

Peter. 1357.

Ferdinand 1368.

ceſs BEATRICE the daughter of King FERDINAND, the children of which marriage were to ſucceed to the crown of Portugal. FERDINAND died in the year 1383, being the laſt of the ancient race of the Kings of Portugal.

Upon the death of FERDINAND, the kingdom being in great diſtraction, there was an interregnum of two years; for ELEONORA, Queen-dowager of Portugal, being to have the adminiſtration of the government till the King of Caſtile's ſon (who by the late treaty between the two crowns was to ſucceed to Portugal) was of age, having married the Duke of Andeira, her quondam favourite, and thereby drew upon herſelf the hatred of the Portugueſe, JOHN, the natural ſon of PETER late King of Portugal, murdered Count Andeira, and ſet up for himſelf: Whereupon the oppoſite party invited the King of Caſtile to aſſume the crown; but he coming into Portugal without an army, the Portugueſe, out of their natural averſion to the Caſtilians, ſoon expelled him. The King of Caſtile thereupon raiſed a great army, and penetrated as far as the capital city of Liſbon, which he beſieged; but his army being deſtroyed by the plague, he was obliged to retire out of the kingdom a ſecond time, and the Portugueſe there- John the Baſtard. 1385. upon proclaimed JOHN the Baſtard their King, who reduced thoſe places that declared for the Caſtilians. There was afterwards a general battle fought between the Portugueſe and Caſtilians at Aliubarotta, where King JOHN obtained a deciſive victory that eſtabliſhed him upon the throne, and which is annually commemorated in Portugal to this day. Afterwards the Portugueſe aſſiſted by the Duke of Lancaſter with a gallant army from England, carried the war into the heart of Caſtile: But the Engliſh ſuffering very much by the heat of the country, the Duke of Lancaſter thought fit to clap up a peace, in conſideration of a ſum of money and the Prince of Caſtile's marrying the Duke's daughter, the Princeſs CATHERINE, by CONSTANTIA the daughter of PETER the Cruel late King of Caſtile; and not long after a laſting peace was concluded between the crowns of Caſtile and Portugal. 1420. Whereupon King JOHN entered upon an expedition againſt the Moors in Africa, and took the town of Ceuta: And it was under his adminiſtration, that the iſland of Madera was diſcovered. He died anno 1433, after a glorious reign of forty-eight years, and is mentioned with great reſpect by the Portugueſe to this day. He was Edward. 1433. ſucceeded by his ſon EDWARD, eſteemed a good Prince, but died within five years afterwards of the plague, which he got by opening of a letter, as it is ſaid, anno 1438. During this reign his brothers made an unfortunate expedition into Africa, in which they were defeated and made priſoners. The Moors however conſented to releaſe them on condition Ceuta ſhould be reſtored them; and Prince FERDINAND remaining an hoſtage for the performance of this article, to which the States of Portugal would never conſent, he died in that country.

Alphonſo V. 1438. ALPHONSO ſucceeded his father EDWARD, being an infant of ſix years of age. The Portugueſe being uneaſy under the government of the Queen-dowager, the adminiſtration of affairs was committed to Don PEDRO Duke of Coimbra, brother to the late King EDWARD; who being charged with ſome deſigns againſt his Majeſty, was murdered as he was going to juſtify himſelf to the King. ALPHONSO when he came of age was ſucceſsful in his wars in Africa, taking the towns of Tangier, Arcilla, Alcaſſar, &c. He afterwards laid claim to the crown of Caſtile on eſpouſing JOANNA the ſuppoſed daughter of HENRY IV, King of Caſtile. He invaded that kingdom and reduced many cities under his power, but was driven out again by the celebrated FERDINAND and ISABELLA King and Queen of Caſtile and Arragon, and defeated by them in a general battle near Toro. Whereupon ALPHONSO was forced to renounce all pretenſions to the crown of Caſtile, and the Princeſs JOANNA whom he had eſpouſed, retired into a convent. Portugal ſuſtained great loſſes in this war, the ill ſucceſs whereof is ſaid to have broken the King's heart. He died in the year 1481, and was ſucceeded by his ſon John II. 1481. JOHN, who had the good fortune to defeat a conſpiracy formed againſt him in the beginning of his reign by FERDINAND Duke of Braganza and JAMES Duke of Viſco, who loſt their lives in the attempt, and the latter of them was killed by the King's own hand. King JOHN was the firſt who projected the tracing out a way to the Eaſt-Indies round Africa by the Cape of Good-Hope, and built the caſtle of Minas on the coaſt of Guinea. He died in the year 1495, and leaving no iſſue, was ſucceed- Emanuel. 1495. ed by his couſin EMANUEL, ſon of the Duke of Viſco and grandſon of King EDWARD. MAXIMILIAN the Emperor oppoſed him, and laid claim to the crown, being the ſon of the Princeſs ELEONORA the daughter of King EDWARD. But the Portugueſe being averſe to a ſtranger, and finding in EMANUEL all the qualifications requiſite in a Prince, they adhered to him. He married ISABELLA the eldeſt daughter of FERDINAND the Catholick, who it is ſaid perſuaded him to baniſh the Jews and Moors out of Portugal on pain of being made ſlaves if they remained in Portugal after a prefixed day; whereupon the Moors went over into Africa, but they took all the Jews children from them under fourteen, and baptized them by force; and moſt of their parents being detained under pretence there were not veſſels to tranſport them, ſubmitted alſo to be baptized rather than be made ſlaves: few of them were really converted, which has been the occaſion that ſuch numbers of them have profeſſed Judaiſm again, and been deſtroyed by the Inquiſition.

In the reign of King EMANUEL, it is ſaid, Portugal arrived at it's higheſt pitch of glory; for then it was their fleets were conducted round the Cape of Good Hope to India by the celebrated VASCO DE GAMA, whereby they became almoſt ſole maſters of the trade between India and Europe, which was before carried on by the way of Egypt, whither the riches of India being brought, the Venetians, Genoeſe, and other maritime States in the Mediterranean, uſed to diſtribute them to the ſeveral kingdoms of Europe. But the beginning of the Portugueſe trade with India having been largely treated of in the firſt volume of Modern Hiſtory, I ſhall not enlarge upon it here; and only obſerve, that in making this voyage they caſually diſcovered Brazil in America, and ſeveral rich countries on the coaſt of Africa; from all which there flowed in ſuch immenſe treaſures during this reign, that it obtained the name of the Golden Age. King EMANUEL died in the year 1521, and was ſucceeded by his ſon JOHN III, who had John III. 1521. a long a long, peaceful and happy reign, in which he applied himſelf to reſtore learning, arts and ſciences at home, and to plant colonies in the countries that had been diſcovered in his father's reign in Aſia, Africa and America. He alſo ſent out abundance of Miſſionaries, and among the reſt the famous FRANCIS XAVIER, who planted the Chriſtian religion in China, India, the coaſts of Africa, Brazil, &c. in which he was no leſs ſucceſsful than in his civil government. He died anno 1557, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon

Sebaſtian. 1557.

SEBASTIAN, an infant of three years of age, Cardinal HENRY his uncle having the adminiſtration of the government during his minority. This Prince, as ſoon as he arrived towards the years of manhood, ſeemed much addicted to martial exploits, and was adviſed by his courtiers to form an army and undertake an expedition into Africa againſt the Infidels under pretence of awaking the courage of the people, and reviving that military diſcipline which was almoſt loſt by a long ſeries of peace and plenty: And had they taken time to form and exerciſe their troops, and provided experienced Generals to command them, the advice might not have been amiſs. But the enterprize was begun and carried on with too much precipitation; a vaſt army, or rather a confuſed multitude, was raiſed, without any mixture of veteran troops or experienced Generals, and tranſported into Africa at the inſtance of MULEY HAMET King of Morocco, who had been depoſed by his ſubjects. The opportunity ſeemed favourable, and the people were taught to deſpiſe thoſe cowardly Moors whom their anceſtors had driven out of Europe. They advanced far into the country, where they were ſurrounded by a much more numerous army of the infidels. King SEBASTIAN and the depoſed King MULEY were defeated and killed, with moſt of the Portugueſe nobility, and all the common ſoldiers were killed or taken priſoners. The conqueror, MULEY MALUCCO, who had uſurped his nephew MULEY MAHOMET's throne, died of a fever before the engagement was well over; ſo that there fell, according to my author, three Kings on this fatal day; which the Portugueſe had the moſt reaſon to lament, receiving ſuch a blow as they were never able to recover, but fell ſoon after under the dominion of Spain.

Henry. 1578.

ilip II. 1580.

For Cardinal HENRY, the late King's uncle, the only ſurviving male iſſue of the royal family, being advanced to the throne, after a weak reign of two years died. Whereupon PHILIP II, King of Spain, ſent the Duke of Alva into Portugal at the head of an army, and took poſſeſſion of that kingdom, which he claimed in right of his mother. The Portugueſe indeed ſet up Prince ANTHONY, natural ſon to the late King JOHN III againſt him, and he received ſome aſſiſtance from England in order to maintain his pretenſions. But the King of Spain was too powerful for this competitor, who after the loſs of two battles was obliged to quit his claim to the crown of Portugal. Of this revolution Doctor GEDDES gives the beſt account I have met with: He ſays, "That Cardinal HENRY was extremely perplexed during his ſhort reign with the claims that were put in by ſeveral Princes to ſucceed him.

"The firſt and ſtrongeſt of thoſe pretenſions was that of Philip the ſecond, King of Spain, who claimed that crown as ſon and heir to the Empreſs Donna ISABELLA the eldeſt daughter of King EMANUEL.

"The ſecond was EMANUEL Duke of Savoy, as ſon and heir to the Infanta Donna BEATRIX, ſecond daughter of the ſame King.

"The third was Don ANTONIO, Prior de Crato, as ſon and heir to the Infante Don LEWIS, the third ſon of King EMANUEL.

"The fourth was RAYNUCIO Prince of Parma, as ſon and heir to Donna MARIA, the eldeſt daughter of the Infante Don EDWARD, the fourth ſon of King EMANUEL.

"The fifth was Donna KATHERINA, ſecond daughter to the Infante Don EDWARD, who was married to the Duke of Braganza.

"A remote title was alſo trumped up by KATHERINE DE MEDICIS Queen of France, for no other reaſon that I can perceive, but only to give ſome luſtre to her blood, which on her father's ſide was the baſeſt that had ever run in the veins of any Queen of France before.

"And the Pope, who will be ſtill fiſhing for himſelf in all troubled waters, did ſtart a title that was yet more fantaſtical, which was his being heir to the King as he was Cardinal.

"The old King being vehemently ſollicited by all theſe pretenders to be declared by him his ſucceſſor, he ſlighted the Pope's, the Queen of France's and the Duke of Savoy's claims as altogether groundleſs; and though the Prince of Parma in the lineal deſcent was the undoubted heir to the crown after the death of the King, who was his grand-uncle, yet that Prince's claim was but little regarded, there being a law in Portugal called, the Law of Lamego, whereby all foreigners are excluded from the throne, though otherwiſe the right heirs to it.

"The great ſtruggle came therefore at laſt to be betwixt PHILIP II, King of Spain, the Ducheſs of Braganza, and ANTONIO, who being extremely beloved by the people of Portugal, would not withdraw his claim (though it was rejected by the King with indignation for his being a baſtard) pretending to be able to prove that his father was married to his mother; or if he could not prove that, yet his friends, who were the people, ſaid that ought to be no bar to him, no more than it was to the victorious Don JOHN the firſt, the founder of the preſent royal family of Portugal. And Pope GREGORY the thirteenth, when he found he ſhould make nothing of his own claim, did promote that of Don ANTONIO, whoſe intereſt was eſpouſed by the Pope's Nuncio in Portugal with great warmth: For that politick Pope judging the Spaniſh crown to be too ſtrong and formidable already, was very unwilling to have it made ſtronger by the acceſſion of Portugal to it.

"The Dutcheſs of Braganza, though the King offered her and her family great advantages in the name of PHILIP, if ſhe would reſign her title to that kingdom, as the Prince of Parma was ſaid to have done, would not hear of doing it upon any terms whatſoever; but was continually ſolliciting the King her uncle to do her juſtice.

"The King being in a great perplexity what to do, called the Cortes to ſettle the ſucceſſion; and in which fifteen nobles and two and twenty men of letters were named to be judges, and five nobles out of thoſe fifteen were appointed to be Governors of the kingdom if he happened to die before a ſentence was paſſed, and who were to ſee the ſentence that ſhould be paſſed executed: and thereupon an oath was taken by the three eſtates of the realm to ſtand to the deciſion of thoſe judges; or in caſe they did not agree, to yield obedience to the ſentence of the five Governors; and which oath both the Duke of Braganza and Antonio were compelled by the King to take. But when Philip was required to do it, who had a ſtrong army quartered on the frontiers of Portugal, he made anſwer, *He would not take it; nor could he allow his right, which was ſo clear, to be put in judgment.* And King Henry dying ſoon after, the Spaniſh army under the command of the Duke of Alva marched forthwith into Portugal, and having quickly defeated Don Antonio, and driven him out of Liſbon, where he had been proclaimed King by the people, Philip was immediately proclaimed King there, and in all other places of the kingdom; and having the five Governors under his power, he was by a majority of them declared to be the lawful heir of the crown: which declaration was ſoon after confirmed by the Cortes of the whole kingdom, called by Philip at Tomar, where he was acknowledged and ſworn to as the lawful King of the realm; which, being a foreigner, it is certain he was not; nor could he have been, had he been a native; the daughter of the brother, which the Ducheſs of Braganza was, being both by the laws of that kingdom, and by the law of repreſentation, to be preferred to the ſon of the ſiſter. For as, had the Ducheſs's father, the Infante Don Edward, and that King's mother been both alive when their brother Don Henry died, the King's mother could not have pretended to the crown before her brother Don Edward; ſo neither ought Philip, as her heir, to pretend to it before the Ducheſs of Braganza, who was daughter and by law heir to the Infante Don Edward. And Philip being ſenſible that if he did not bring the Portugueſe to be better affected to him and his government than they were at preſent, that he muſt either be at the great charge of maintaining a conſiderable Spaniſh army ſtill in Portugal, or muſt quickly loſe that kingdom again; to win the hearts of the Portugueſe he granted them all the advantage they deſired, having promiſed and ſworn to obſerve the following articles.

“ Firſt, To conſerve to that crown all it's prerogatives and ſtiles, the coinage, the royal palace, and all the offices uſed in it by it's natural Princes; and that the King being in Portugal ſhould be ſerved by none but natives.

“ Secondly, That no foreigner ſhould be capable of any office or dignity eccleſiaſtical or civil, nor of any military commands, nor of any title of honour, penſions, or grants, nor of having the liberty of trading to any of the Portugueſe plantations.

“ Thirdly, That the Viceroy of the kingdom ſhould be always one of the royal family.

“ Fourthly, That wherever the King was, a certain number of Portugueſe ſhould aſſiſt, with the title of the Council of Portugal, and thro' whoſe hands only all diſpatches ſhould paſs, and which ſhould be all written in the Portugueſe tongue; and that the Portugueſe as well as the Caſtilians ſhould be admitted to offices in the palace.

“ Fifthly, That the Cortes ſhould not be aſſembled out of the kingdom, and that all the publick affairs ſhould be tranſacted in that aſſembly.

“ Sixthly, That the King ſhould obtain no bulls from the Pope to receive the thirds or any other eccleſiaſtical ſubſidies.

“ Seventhly, That the dry ports betwixt the two kingdoms ſhould be opened, and the merchants be allowed to trade without paying any duties.

“ Eighthly, That the King ſhould reſide in Portugal as much as he could poſſibly, and that the Prince ſhould be bred up in it, to beget in him an affection for the Portugueſe.

“ Laſtly, In caſe the King or any of his ſucceſſors ſhould violate the aforeſaid articles, it ſhould be lawful for the three eſtates of the kingdom to withdraw their allegiance from him.

“ But to proceed: King Philip having thus united Portugal to the reſt of Spain, that nation became very great ſufferers by it; for as Philip was at this time endeavouring to reduce the Netherlands, he thought nothing would contribute to it more than the prohibiting them to traffick with Spain and Portugal, the Dutch employing a great many ſhips in tranſporting the native commodities of Spain and Portugal, as well as the produce of their foreign plantations and ſettlements, to the northern kingdom of Europe; and Philip imagined, that if this branch of the Netherlanders navigation and commerce was ſtopped, they would be obliged to come to any terms he ſhould preſcribe. But this project had a very different effect from what he expected, for the Dutch being excluded trading with Spain and Portugal, from whence they uſed to fetch ſpices and other valuable merchandize, the product of Aſia and America, fitted out ſtrong fleets, and followed the Spaniards and Portugueſe in the road they had ſtruck out to the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, and not only brought to Europe the ſame rich goods theſe nations had for many years monopolized, but drove the Portugueſe from their beſt ſettlements in India, and other countries of Aſia, as well as from ſome others they had in Brazil, and on the coaſt of Africa. This provoked the Portugueſe to the laſt degree, and they would gladly have ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke, under the conduct of whoſe Princes they ſuſtained ſuch irreparable loſſes: but Philip maintained his dominion over that kingdom till he died, as did his ſon Philip the third of Spain, and the ſecond of Portugal. Philip the fourth, his grandſon, alſo ſucceeded quietly to the kingdom of Spain and Portugal, which he enjoyed about nineteen years; but the Spaniards having been weakened by a long expenſive war with France, and the revolt of the Catalans, the Portugueſe had a fair opportunity of delivering their country from a foreign yoke; and as the Duke of Braganza was the next in blood to their former Princes, they made him an offer of the crown, of which he did not ſeem very ambitious: but while he was meditating on one ſide the hazard of the enterprize, and on the other the glories which might accrue to his country,

Philip III. 1598.

Philip IV, 1621.

Duke of Braganza aſcends the throne.

try, and his family in particular, if he ſhould ſucceed, the court of Spain, before he had determined with himſelf which part to take, had ſome intimation given them of the deſign, and King PHILIP ſummoned the Duke, and the reſt of the Portugueſe nobility, to attend him in the Catalonian war. The Duke ſaw the ſnare, and excuſed himſelf as well as he could: He alledged that his coffers were low, and he was not in a condition to bear the expence a man of his quality muſt neceſſarily be at in the field. The Court of Madrid hereupon ordered him a remittance of twenty thouſand piſtoles, with a promiſe of accommodating him with more. Things being come to a criſis, the Duke conſulted his Lady upon the occaſion: She was of the family of Medina Sidonia, a Princeſs of great ſpirit, and is ſaid to have anſwered him after this manner; Sir, if you reſolve to go to Spain, you run the hazard of your life; you do the ſame in attempting the crown of Portugal; but if you muſt die, it were better to die a King than a Duke: And this it ſeems determined his choice. The whole kingdom of Portugal, and all their foreign ſettlements, unanimouſly acknowledged him for their Sovereign, except Ceuta, in which was a Spaniſh Governor. This ſurprizing revolution was effected in an inſtant, without having coſt the lives of three people, though it coſt a great deal of blood and treaſure to maintain it afterwards. It was undertaken, on the firſt of December 1640, when in the offices of the church for that day we meet with theſe words, taken out of the thirteenth chapter of the Romans, ver. 11. *And that knowing the time, that now it is high time to awake out of ſleep; for now is our ſalvation nearer than when we believed.* Which the Portugueſe did then, and have ever ſince regarded, as an oracle from heaven declaring in their favour. Thus did this Prince aſcend the throne of Portugal, and was proclaimed by the name of JOHN the fourth. It is thought very ſtrange that this deſign ſhould be communicated to above two hundred perſons, and a whole year taken up in preparations for it's execution, and yet not be diſcovered to the court of Spain till it was too late to prevent it. The new King however had not been long upon the throne, before a plot was formed againſt him; but he being ſo fortunate to ſuppreſs the conſpiracy before it came to a head, it ſerved only to eſtabliſh his authority over his ſubjects. He was eſteemed a good Prince, and an encourager of learning: the greateſt misfortune of his reign was the reviving the war with the Dutch, who poſſeſſed themſelves of moſt of the ſettlements the Portugueſe had left in India and Africa; but they had the good fortune to drive the Dutch out of Brazil. King JOHN having reigned about ſixteen years, died anno 1656, leaving two ſons and one daughter, viz. Don ALPHONSO his eldeſt ſon, Don PEDRO the youngeſt, and one daughter named CATHERINE.

His ſon Alphonſo ſucceeds him.

“ALPHONSO being very young at his father's death, reigned ſome time under the guardianſhip of his mother, who was very ſucceſsful during her adminiſtration againſt the Spaniards, who having made peace with France, invaded Portugal, and were determined to have brought that kingdom under their dominion again; but the Portugueſe being aſſiſted by the King of England, who had married the Princeſs CATHERINE, and by the French King underhand, notwithſtanding he had ſtipulated by the Pyrenean treaty not to afford them any aſſiſtance, the Portugueſe defeated their enemies in ſeveral engagements, the moſt important victory being that of Villa Vicioſa. This train of ill ſucceſs, with their loſſes in the Low Countries, induced the Spaniards to make a peace with Portugal, and renounce all their pretenſions to that crown.

“King ALPHONSO coming of age, the Queen-dowager, who did not approve of his conduct, retired into a cloyſter, where ſhe died. ALPHONSO afterwards married the Princeſs of Nemours, of the houſe of Savoy, who upon pretence of her huſband's impotence, retired alſo into a convent, and obtained a divorce from him; while Don PEDRO, his younger brother, was ſo fortunate as to perſuade the people that Don ALPHONSO was a weak man, and incapable of governing the kingdom, and procured him to be depoſed by an aſſembly of the States, and baniſhed to the iſland of Tercera, anno 1668, from whence he was brought back ſome time after, and died in the caſtle of Cintra on the twelfth of December 1683, till when Don PEDRO took upon him the title of Regent of the Kingdom, but upon the death of ALPHONSO he was proclaimed King. Whether Don ALPHONSO was really that weak Prince the friends of Don PEDRO gave out, when they procured him to be depoſed, is not eaſy to determine; but when we ſee the wife and brother in a confederacy againſt him, and even contracting marriage in his life-time, and making intereſt to deprive him of the regal power, it is very natural to ſuſpect that the late King had foul play. It is not a divorce purchaſed at Rome, or a diſpenſation from the Holy See to commit inceſt, that can ſanctify injuſtice and adultery: They might ſeem to flouriſh for a time, and revel in polluted infamous embraces, but ſerenity of mind could never be found under ſuch a load of guilt.”

His brother Don Pedro depoſes him.

Some writers however, I find, give Don PEDRO a great character. They relate, that he was a Prince of excellent parts, and applied himſelf with all imaginary diligence to render his ſubjects eaſy and happy: and it is indeed become a proverb, *The worſe Title the better King:* abundance of popular acts muſt be done to take off the people's attention, and keep them quiet. But the ſum of their policy, both here and in Spain, ſeems to be the bribing the nobility and leading men, who willingly contribute to the ſlavery and oppreſſion of their fellow-ſubjects, that they may ſhare the plunder with the tyrant. But ſince the Spaniſh Court has been governed by French Councils, they have ſtruck off a multitude of penſioners, and now govern both nobility and commonalty by their ſtanding troops. We have inſtances in ſome other kingdoms where the Court is trebly guarded: 1. By an almighty band of Penſioners. 2. By a body of national troops. And, 3. If either of theſe ſhould boggle at the villainous parts they are expected to act, there is a body of foreign mercenaries ready to keep the ſurly natives in awe, And if all theſe ſhould fail, they are provided of a guaranty of moſt of the powers of Europe to ſecure their thrones, and defend the moſt oppreſſive arbitrary meaſures.

To return; As the revenues of the crown of Portugal are not the largeſt, and the greateſt part of them is employed in penſions among the Grandees and Nobility, and conſequently the court in no condition to maintain a foreign war, it has been the wiſdom of their Princes, and particularly of Don PEDRO, to promote peace with all Chriſtian Princes and States. Accordingly, in the firſt long war between the Allies and LEWIS the fourteenth, we find the Portugueſe ſtood neuters; nor did they come into the laſt war in Queen ANNE's reign, till the year 1703, and then it is evident the whole weight of the war on that ſide was borne by their Allies.

1703. The terms on which the Portugueſe came into the Grand Alliance.

The cautious Portugueſe, before they entered into the grand Alliance, inſiſted, that the Archduke CHARLES, who was to be proclaimed King of Spain, ſhould be ſent to Portugal with an army of twelve thouſand Engliſh and Dutch troops; that the Allies alſo ſhould take into their pay thirteen thouſand of the troops of Portugal, and that a large fleet ſhould be fitted out to protect their coaſt and trade againſt the inſults of the French. Accordingly Sir CLOUDESLY SHOVEL, with thirty-five Engliſh men of war and fourteen Dutch, arrived at the mouth of the Tagus the latter end of July, from whence the confederate fleet ſailed into the Streights, and having alarmed the coaſt of Spain, made a deſcent with two or three thouſand men near Altea in Valencia, inviting the Spaniards to join them, declaring they were come to protect them from the tyranny of the French, and aſſiſt them in ſetting their lawful Sovereign the Archduke CHARLES upon the throne. Nor did the people ſeem averſe to the propoſal, but brought in proviſions to the fleet, and many of them drunk the Archduke's health. However, things not being yet ripe for a general revolt, the troops re-imbarqued, and the fleet having in vain endeavoured to relieve the Cevennois in Languedoc, and cruiſed in the Mediterranean till the latter end of the year, the Admiral viſited the coaſts of Portugal again, and afterwards returned to England, not having been able to meet with the French fleet, which kept cloſe in their harbours this year.

Archduke declared King of Spain.

On the 12th of September the Emperor and the King of the Romans ſigned an act, whereby they relinquiſhed all their right to the Spaniſh monarchy in favour of the Archduke CHARLES: the Emperor at the ſame time declaring that the male branch of the houſe of Auſtria being extinct in Spain, that monarchy with the dominions thereto belonging was devolved upon him; and being importuned by his illuſtrious confederates, particularly the King of Portugal, to provide a ſucceſſor to that monarchy, he thought proper to ſend over his ſecond ſon, the Archduke CHARLES, to Spain, in order to put him in poſſeſſion of that kingdom: to which purpoſe his Imperial Majeſty and the King of the Romans had made this reſignation of their rights, and did declare and acknowledge the ſaid Archduke King of Spain, by the Stile and Title of CHARLES III, &c. After which another act was read on behalf of the Archduke, declaring his acceptance of the Spaniſh crown, and renouncing all his right to the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria in the Empire: and the Emperor, the King of the Romans, and the Archduke afterwards took their oaths at the altar for the confirmation of the ſaid reſpective acts. Then the Archduke was proclaimed King of Spain, and received the compliments of the Court thereupon. The Emperor afterwards wrote a letter to the King of Portugal, notifying his proclaiming the Archduke King of Spain, and that he deſigned he ſhould ſhortly viſit Portugal. Another letter was wrote to the Queen of England, recommending the new-made King to her protection: upon the receipt whereof, the Queen wrote to King CHARLES, aſſuring him ſhe would employ all the ſtrength of her arms in his favour.

He comes to England.

The Archduke, now ſtiled King CHARLES the third, ſoon after ſet out from Vienna for Holland, where he arrived the ſecond of November; and having continued at the Hague till the 23d of December, embarqued for England. He arrived at Spithead the 26th of the ſame month, where the Duke of Somerſet, Maſter of the horſe to the Queen of England, waited on him on ſhipboard, with a letter and a compliment from her Majeſty, inviting him to Windſor. His Catholick Majeſty thereupon came on ſhore, and went to Petworth, the Duke of Somerſet's ſeat in Suſſex; where the Prince of Denmark, her Majeſty's conſort, was come to receive him. On the 29th his Catholick Majeſty with the Prince came to Windſor: the Queen received him at the top of the ſtairs, and after ſome compliments of courſe, he thanked her for her generous aſſiſtance towards ſetting him on the throne of Spain. (For not only the Britiſh fleets and armies were employed in his ſervice, but the very charges of his voyage, and his court in Portugal, were to be, and actually were, provided at the expence of Britain.) His Majeſty ſupped with the Queen and Prince of Denmark that evening; her Majeſty giving the King the right hand at table, and the Prince ſitting at the end. His Catholick Majeſty lay but two nights at Windſor, where the Engliſh court appeared in all it's luſtre, nothing was wanting that might render the entertainment agreeable or magnificent: the King took the napkin from the Ducheſs of Marlborough, and would hold it while the Queen waſhed; after which he returned it to her Grace with his diamond ring wrapped up in it; but the reſt of the Queen's ſervants were ſtrictly prohibited to take any thing of the King, who did not abound in treaſure at this time.

His Majeſty having taken leave of the Queen, returned to Petworth the 31ſt of December, and the next day went on board Admiral ROOK in the Royal Catherine at Spithead. The Dutch ſquadron having joined the fleet, they ſet ſail the fifth of January; but meeting with a terrible ſtorm in the latitude of 46, they returned to St. Hellens the 20th to refit. The twelfth of February the fleet ſet ſail again, and on the twenty-fifth arrived in the river of Liſbon, where the King of Portugal with his two eldeſt ſons came on board the Royal Catherine, and after a ſhort ſtay the two Kings went on ſhore, where *Te Deum* was ſung for his Majeſty's ſafe arrival; and in the beginning of March all the Engliſh and Dutch auxiliary troops arrived in Portugal, being commanded by Duke Schomberg. Whereupon the Marquis de Chateauneuf, Ambaſſador of France to the King of Portugal, retired from thence.

He arrives in Portugal with a detachment of Engliſh and Dutch forces.

But the Engliſh and Dutch, who had promiſed themſelves ſuch mighty advantages from the King of Portugal's coming into the Grand Alliance, found themſelves miſerably diſappointed: not a third part of the horſes were provided for remounting their cavalry that had been promiſed them,

them, and thoſe under ſize and not fit for ſervice; then the Portugueſe Generals, and every Governor of a province who has the ſupreme military command lodged in him, inſiſted on commanding the Confederate Generals, and that their troops ſhould take the right upon all occaſions; nor would they ſuffer the Engliſh and Dutch to march in a body, but diſtributed them into their little ragged frontier towns that were not tenable, where many of them were made priſoners by the Duke of Anjou, who invaded Portugal this year with an army of two and twenty thouſand men. The Marquis das Minas pretended indeed to give a diverſion by marching into Caſtile; but the Duke of Berwick, who commanded the Spaniſh army, perfectly contemned him, and having ſat down before Caſtle-David, made the gariſon priſoners of war. Duke Schomberg, who commanded the Engliſh, being weary of his command in ſuch circumſtances, deſired to be recalled, and the Earl of Galway, a French refugee, who made no difficulty in ſacrificing the honour and intereſt of Britain to the Portugueſe afterwards, commanded on that ſide in his room.

In the mean time the Engliſh Admiral Sir GEORGE ROOK having diſembarked the Confederate troops, ſailed from the river of Liſbon and cruiſed off of Cape St. Vincent, for theſe curity of the Turkey and Levant fleets, and then returned to Liſbon. He ſet ſail again the latter end of April with forty ſhips of the line, and ſome land forces on board commanded by the Prince of Heſſe, for Barcelona, where they ſummoned the Governor: but he paying no regard to their ſummons, and ſome Catalans aſſuring the Admiral and the Prince, that there were five to one in the City for King CHARLES, they landed ſome forces, and ſent a ſecond ſummons, but with no better ſucceſs. Whereupon having thrown about threeſcore bombs into the city, the forces were re-imbarqued, and the fleet ſailed towards Toulon; near which place the Admiral received advice from Liſbon, that the Count de Toulouſe was come into the Mediterranean with the Breſt ſquadron, in order to join that of Toulon; and on the ſeventh of June the ſcouts made the ſignal of ſeeing the French fleet. The Admiral thereupon ſtood after them, but could not bring them to an engagement. Having loſt ſight of the French fleet, he made the beſt of his way to the Streights, where he was joined by another ſquadron of Engliſh men of war commanded by Sir CLOUDESLY SHOVEL, and it was reſolved to attack Gibraltar with their united force. The fleet got into the bay the twenty-firſt of July, and at three in the afternoon, the Marines, to the number of 1800, with the Prince of Heſſe at the head of them, were put on ſhore on the neck of land to the northward of the town, to cut off any communication with the country. The Admiral on the twenty-ſecond in the morning ordered ſome ſhips to cannonade the town under the command of Rear-Admiral BYNG and Rear-Admiral VANDERDUSSEN; and Captain HICKS in the Yarmouth, with ſome other ſhips, were to batter the ſouth mole-head: but the wind blowing contrary, it was put off till the twenty-third, when the ſhips being all in their places by break of day, the cannonading begun, and was performed with great fury, above fifteen thouſand ſhot being made in five or ſix hours time againſt the town. The enemy being beat from their guns, eſpecially at the ſouth mole-head, and the Admiral conſidering that the gaining that work would probably reduce the town, ordered Captain WHITACRE, with all the boats armed to poſſeſs himſelf of it, which was performed with great expedition; whereupon the enemy ſprung a mine that blew up the fortifications upon the mole, killed two lieutenants and forty men, and wounded ſixty more. However, they kept poſſeſſion of the great platform, and advancing to a redoubt between the mole and the town, made themſelves maſters of it, with a great many of the enemy's cannon. Then they ſent the Governor a peremptory ſummons, who on the twenty-fourth in the morning deſired to capitulate. Hoſtages therefore being exchanged, and the treaty concluded, the Prince of Heſſe took poſſeſſion of the town the ſame evening.

Gibraltar taken.

Sea-fight off of Malaga.

Soon after the taking of Gibraltar, the Breſt and Toulon ſquadrons being joined, and amounting to two and fifty ſhips of the line of battle, and twenty-four galleys, commanded by the Count de Tholouſe, encountered the Confederate fleet, conſiſting of fifty three-ſhips of the line, commanded by Sir GEORGE ROOK, on the thirteenth of Auguſt N. S. off of Malaga. The French ſhips were generally much larger, and being but juſt come out of harbour, much cleaner than thoſe of the confederates. The fight continued till night, and the fleets remained in ſight of each other a day or two afterwards, but neither ſide, it is evident, cared to renew the engagement; the French by their own account had been very roughly handled, and the Engliſh Admiral found that he had ſpent ſo much of his powder and ſhot in the taking of Gibraltar and in the engagement, that ſome of his ſhips had not three rounds left; and his being able to brave the French in theſe circumſtances, might well be looked upon equal to a victory. The French indeed pretended he declined fighting, that is, he did not purſue them; aud this is very true, he would have been a madman if he had, in that condition: but it is as certain they did not purſue him, ſince he remained two days in ſight of them after the engagement, and then ſailed no farther than Gibraltar, where they might have found him eight days afterwards, if they had had any ſtomach for fighting. It is plain therefore they had enough of it, eſpecially ſince they never attempted to retake Gibraltar, or entered upon any further action till they returned into their harbours.

The French, in their relation of this engagement, inform us, that Sir CLOUDSELY SHOVEL, who led the Van of the Engliſh, ſailed ſo far before the reſt of the fleet, that he was in danger of being ſurrounded by the enemy and cut off, which obliged Sir GEORGE ROOK to begin the fight at too great a diſtance; and this was the true reaſon he had not ſo complete a victory as might otherwiſe have been expected. We may obſerve further, that the French were never able to man above fifty or ſixty ſail of men of war of the line during the late wars, though they pretend they have no leſs than two or three hundred large men of war in their ports; and it is true their foreign trade can never furniſh them with ſeamen ſufficient to man more than ſixty capital ſhips, ſo that they are ſo far from being a match for the maritime powers, the Engliſh or Dutch, who are either of them able to fit out a navy of above a hundred ſail, as they actually did in the Dutch war, and in the laſt war with France; but as large ſquadrons were always taken up in protecting their coaſts and their trade, the grand fleet ſeldom conſiſted of more than fifty or ſixty ſail of men of war, which they ſaw was abundantly ſufficient to engage the whole force of France at ſea. And when LEWIS XIV became ſenſible of this, we find he laid up his grand fleet, and only fitted out ſquadrons to ruin our trade and foreign ſettlements; in which he was but too ſucceſsful. Another obſervation which cannot be paſſed by here, is, that notwithſtanding the Portugueſe are ſuppoſed able to fit out five and twenty or thirty men of war, they hardly joined our fleet with a ſingle ſhip during the war, or could protect their own coaſts or trade againſt the inſults of a French ſquadron, but Sir GEORGE ROOK was obliged to leave them eighteen or twenty ſail for their defence when he returned to England, as our Admirals did afterwards almoſt every year during the war. And I am ſatisfied, would the Portugueſe have conſented to have joined our fleets with a ſquadron of theirs, our Admirals have juſtly ſo mean an opinion of their marine force, that they would not have depended on them any more than our Generals could depend on the aſſiſtance of their horſe on ſhore.

But to return from this digreſſion, if it be one: The confederate fleet being returned to their ports, the French and Spaniards the following winter laid ſiege to Gibraltar by land, while Admiral POINTI, with a ſquadron of thirteen French men of war blocked it up by ſea; of which Admiral LEAKE, who commanded the Engliſh ſquadron left for the protection of the Portugueſe at Liſbon, having intelligence, ſet ſail for the Streights, and ſurpriſing POINTI with his ſquadron in the bay of Gibraltar, took three men of war, and run two of the largeſt on ſhore, which the enemy immediately quitted and ſet fire to. Whereupon the beſiegers, after they had lain ſix months before the place, and ruined beſt part of their army, thought fit to draw off their batteries and raiſe the ſiege.

King Charles ſails to Barcelona with the confederate fleet.

The Confederates receiving repeated intelligence that the Spaniards, and particularly the Catalans, were ready to revolt on the appearance of King CHARLES with a body of troops upon their coaſt, the grand fleet, commanded by Sir CLOUDESLY SHOVEL, with a detachment of land-forces under the command of the Earl of Peterborough, ſet ſail from Spithead to Liſbon, where they arrived the twentieth of June, and his Catholick Majeſty coming on board them, they ſailed to Gibraltar, where they took up the Prince of Heſſe Darmſtadt, and watering afterwards at the bay of Altea in Valencia, they found the people of that kingdom generally diſpoſed to declare for King CHARLES III; from whence the fleet ſteered for Barcelona, where they did not arrive till the twenty-ſecond of Auguſt, having been hindered by calms, contrary winds, and other accidents. The Prince of Heſſe, who went before with two frigates to learn the poſture things were in on that ſide, being returned to the fleet, and having acquainted the Generals that the town of Vich had already declared for his Catholick Majeſty, as other places ſeemed ready to do, the troops were landed to the eaſtward of the city without oppoſition, and on the twenty-ſeventh ſome ſhips which had been ſent to ſummon Denia, brought intelligence that the city had ſurrendered; whereupon the tents, artillery and ammunition being landed, his Catholick Majeſty went on ſhore the twenty-eighth of Auguſt, being received by a vaſt concourſe of Catalans, that cried out without ceaſing, *Long live King* CHARLES III. And it being agreed to attack Fort Montjoy to the weſtward of the town in the firſt place, though with very little hopes of ſucceſs, a bomb luckily ſet fire to the powder of the Fort, and blowing up the works made it an eaſy conqueſt; but the Prince of Heſſe Darmſtadt loſt his life in the attack.

The Earl of Peterborough afterwards ordered the trenches to be opened againſt the city, which was begun on the nineteenth of September, and the fleet bombarded it from the ſea, ſetting fire to the town in ſeveral places, which put the people in a great conſternation; whereupon Don VELASCO the Governor gave leave to the friars and the reſt of the clergy, with the nuns, to retire out of the place, and they were kindly received by King CHARLES.

Barcelona taken.

While the Confederates lay before the place, the Catalans came and offered their ſervice to his Catholick Majeſty, of whom two thouſand were mounted and armed, the reſt brought in proviſions and neceſſaries, and contributed very much towards taking the town, which ſurrendered on the fourteenth of October, N. S. and the next day the ſhops in Barcelona were opened as in time of peace, and all was in a profound tranquillity. King CHARLES, in his letter to the Queen of England on this great event, dated the twenty-ſecond of October, ſays, That all her Majeſty's officers and ſoldiers had behaved themſelves with uncommon gallantry, and taken a city with eight thouſand men, and ſome few miquelets, which thirty thouſand French were not able to do: that the cruelties of the late Viceroy, and a report that he intended to carry away ſeveral priſoners from thence, contrary to the capitulation, had incited the burghers and country people to take arms; and the gariſon being employed in loading their baggage in order to march out, were in danger of being cut in pieces, had not the Earl of Peterborough with her Majeſty's troops entered the town and prevented it; and it was with a great deal of difficulty that the Earl preſerved the Viceroy. And not only Barcelona, but Terragona, Lerida, Tortoſa, and all the towns in Catalonia, except Roſes, immediately ſurrendered to the Allies.

The ſeaſon of the year requiring the fleet to return home, four Engliſh and two Dutch frigates were left at Barcelona to attend King CHARLES; and Sir CLOUDESLY SHOVEL left twenty-five ſail of Engliſh, under the command of Admiral LEAKE, and fifteen Dutch, commanded by Admiral WASSENAER, to winter at Liſbon, and protect the Portugueſe.

The Catalans upon theſe ſucceſſes raiſed ſix regiments for King CHARLES, beſides a regiment of five hundred dragoons which his Majeſty formed out of the late gariſon of Barcelona that took ſervice under him, and conſtituted his guard; theſe were commanded by Count ZINZENDORF. At the ſame time Don RAPHAEL NEBOT, a Catalan, came over to the King with his whole regiment, conſiſting of five hundred horſe, who were joined by a hundred and fifty other horſe on the way. And a declaration being publiſhed inviting all good Spaniards to aſſiſt his Majeſty in the recovery of his throne, deputies came from ſeveral towns in Valencia to make their ſubmiſſion. Whereupon the Earl of Peterborough, with one thouſand horſe, five hundred foot, and a body of mi-

Valencia taken.

miquelets, marched to the capital city of Valencia, and by the aſſiſtance of the inhabitants made himſelf maſter of it, making the Viceroy and the Archbiſhop priſoners; and thereupon the whole kingdom of Valencia, except Alicant and Peniſola, revolted to King CHARLES: and had the Portugueſe made any diverſion, as they promiſed, or but permitted their Allies the Engliſh and Dutch to advance to the frontiers of Spain at this time, it is not improbable but all Spain had ſubmitted to King CHARLES; for the Grandees were ſo diſguſted at the influence they ſaw French counſels had in all their affairs, and at ſome promotions of the ſubjects of that nation, that when King PHILIP called the Grandees together to adviſe him in this exigence, they refuſed to aſſiſt him either with their purſes or advice. But notwithſtanding the moſt preſſing inſtances of the confederate Generals, the Portugueſe could not be drawn out of their quarters till the beginning of October, when they laid ſiege to Badajoz, and one would think only with a deſign to raiſe it; for they ſuffered themſelves to be ſurprized by Marſhal THESSE, who threw a ſupply of troops and proviſions into the town after ſome progreſs had been made in the ſiege: whereupon the Portugueſe retired, and marched into winter quarters. At this ſiege the Earl of Galway, who commanded the Britiſh troops, had his right hand ſhot off; whereupon he was carried to Elvas, whither the Portugueſe Generals ſoon followed him, for which they had not ſo good an excuſe.

Badajoz beſieged.

The Portugueſe being retreated into their own country, the Earl of Peterborough marched with fifteen hundred men to Valencia, and the city of Barcelona being drained of ſoldiers, by ſending detachments to Tortoſa, Lerida, Gironne, &c. King PHILIP on a ſudden drew all the troops he could together, both French and Spaniards, and inveſted Barcelona on the ſecond of April, N. S. 1706, before that city had any notice of his motions, or the breaches were well repaired; and had not the Count de Thoulouſe, who was to convoy the artillery and ammunition neceſſary for the ſiege, and block it up by ſea, been put back and detained a conſiderable time by contrary winds, the town had been retaken by the enemy before the allies could have relieved it. But the Lord Peterborough having found means to reinforce the gariſon, and haraſſing the enemy's camp with perpetual alarms, the town held out till the ſecond of May, when his Lordſhip ſent King CHARLES intelligence that the confederate fleet was approaching. On the ſeventh the Earl of Peterborough (who was Admiral as well as General) joined the fleet off Tarragona with ſeveral barks, and fourteen hundred land-forces in them, and his Excellency went on board the Prince George, hoiſting the Union flag, and on the eighth the fleet came to an anchor in Barcelona bay, to the inexpreſſible joy of the gariſon and inhabitants, for Fort Montjoy was taken the twenty-fifth of April, the Lord Donnegal who commanded there being killed, and the enemy preparing to give the town a general aſſault.

1706. Barcelona beſieged by King Philip.

Barcelona relieved.

The Earl of Peterborough going on ſhore with the troops he had on board, the town no longer apprehended themſelves in any danger, and on the twelfth of May, N. S. King PHILIP raiſed the ſiege with the utmoſt precipitation, leaving behind him a hundred and ſix braſs cannon, twenty-three mortars, all his ſick and wounded, and prodigious quantities of proviſion and ammunition; and it was obſerved, that the ſame morning about nine there was a great eclipſe of the ſun, which being the French device, ſuperſtitious people imagined portended no good to their nation. King PHILIP with his army retired into France, and the French fleet commanded by the Count de Thoulouſe had retired before, on notice of the arrival of the confederates on the coaſt of Catalonia.

While King PHILIP was beſieging Barcelona, and had withdrawn moſt of his forces from the ſide of Portugal, the Portugueſe with the confederate troops ventured to enter Caſtile, and lay ſiege to Alcantara the tenth of April; which being a place of no great ſtrength, capitulated the fourteenth, when it was expected the Portugueſe would have marched directly to Madrid, where King PHILIP's Queen and Court were in the utmoſt conſternation; but notwithſtanding all the remonſtrances of the Britiſh and Dutch Generals for marching to Madrid, the Portugueſe abſolutely refuſed to leave their own frontiers till they ſaw the fate of Barcelona determined: however, on intelligence that the confederate fleet had entered the Streights in their way to Barcelona, they laid ſiege to Cividad Rodrigo the twenty-firſt of May, which place ſurrendered the twenty-ſixth; and on the twenty-ſeventh the news of the raiſing the ſiege of Barcelona was brought into their camp; whereupon it was unanimouſly agreed by the Portugueſe and the reſt of the confederate Generals to march to Madrid, from which they were not then fifty miles diſtant: the army however, on account of ſome unpaſſable mountains, were obliged firſt to march northward as far as Salamanca, where they arrived the ſeventh of June. On the eighteenth of the ſame month they came to Eſpinal, where Deputies from the Eſcurial came to make their ſubmiſſion. Here, by ſome intercepted letters, they had advice of the victory obtained by the allies at Ramillies in Flanders the twelfth inſtant, and underſtood that the Spaniards generally looked upon King PHILIP's affairs as deſperate. That Prince however, after his diſgrace at Barcelona, arrived at Madrid by the way of France, and finding the Portugueſe bent their march towards that capital, he retired again, and joined his troops that were returning through Navarre, commanding the reſt of his forces that were diſperſed through Spain to follow him.

Alcantera taken.

Cividad Rodrigo taken.

Before he left Madrid, he propoſed it to the Grandees and the reſt of the nobility, that they would take the field with him; but they deſired to be excuſed, and moſt of them retired to their country-ſeats. The Spaniards ſeemed very indifferent which party ſucceeded, at leaſt they did not think it worth their while to hazard any thing for either Prince. They did not approve of French counſels, but were made to believe their religion was in danger from thoſe armies of hereticks in confederacy with King CHARLES.

The Allies being encamped at Nueſtra Signora de Ratamal, on the twenty-fourth of June a detachment of horſe was ſent to take poſſeſſion of Madrid, from whence there came a deputation the next day to make their ſubmiſſion in form, and moſt of the nobility and perſons of diſtinction came into the camp, to expreſs their devotion for the houſe of Auſtria. The army moving nearer to Madrid, the twenty-ſeventh King CHARLES was proclaimed in that city; whereupon Toledo and many other conſiderable towns declared for him; and even Cardinal PORTOCARERO wrote

The Allies take poſſeſſion of Madrid.

Toledo, &c. declare for King Charles.

to the Portugueſe General, the Marquis das Minas, offering his ſubmiſſion to King Charles, in whoſe name juſtice was adminiſtered in all courts of judicature at Madrid.

The confederate Generals upon this ſucceſs ſent courier after courier to King Charles, to haſten his march to Madrid, which at firſt he ſeemed inclined to; but the kingdom of Arragon declaring for him at the ſame time, he marched to the capital city of that province, under pretence of receiving the ſubmiſſion of that people, where he trifled away ſo much time, that the Duke of Berwick being reinforced, appeared in ſight of the Allies, and on the third of Auguſt ſent a detachment to take poſſeſſion of Madrid again, which the Confederates had quitted a little before, and withdrawn to a more advantageous camp, for they were now obliged to be upon the defenſive. But at length, on the ſixth of Auguſt, King Charles and the Lord Peterborough arrived in the camp of the Allies at Guadalaxara, bringing with them no more than five battalions and thirteen ſquadrons, which, though it did not put them in a capacity of acting offenſively, enabled them to make a handſom retreat; and the Earl of Peterborough was diſpatched to Italy to ſolicit further reinforcements, the French and Spaniards being at this time entirely driven out of Lombardy by the Allies, as they muſt have been out of Spain, if the Confederates had not, to humour the Imperialiſts and the Duke of Savoy, employed their ſea and land forces in that romantick project upon Thoulon, which will be mentioned in the next year's tranſactions.

Madrid loſt again.

But to return to the army at Guadalaxara: The Duke of Berwick having poſſeſſed himſelf of Madrid again, Toledo, Salamanca, and all the towns almoſt that had declared for the Allies in Caſtile, eſpouſed the part of King Philip again, whereby the retreat of the Portugueſe to their own country was cut off, and it was thereupon agreed to retreat into Valencia, to ſecure that country, Arragon and Catalonia, in the intereſt of King Charles, and preſerve a communication with the ſea-coaſts: the army accordingly made their retreat in good order, paſſing the Tagus at Fuente Duenas, without any conſiderable loſs, though the Duke of Berwick attended their rear during the whole march.

The Allies retire out of Caſtile.

Whilſt King Charles was retreating from Caſtile towards Valencia, a body of ten thouſand Engliſh and Dutch arrived in the river of Liſbon, commanded by the Earl Rivers. Theſe troops were at firſt deſigned to have made a deſcent in France the preceding ſummer, but having been detained ſeveral months by contrary winds, that enterprize was laid aſide, and they were ſent to reinforce the Allies in Spain. The court of Portugal, on their arrival at Liſbon, propoſed to join a body of their national troops with them, and that they ſhould march directly to Madrid through their country; but the Engliſh and Dutch having been on board ſix months, ſuffered incredible hardſhips in the voyage, and loſt moſt of their horſes, were in no condition to undertake ſuch an enterprize: nor had the Portugueſe any ſuch troops as they mentioned ready to join them, or artillery or ammunition provided for ſuch an undertaking. The Earl Rivers however thought fit to land his men, as well to refreſh them as to encourage the Portugueſe, whoſe frontiers lay pretty much expoſed on the retreat of the Allies towards Valencia.

But to return to King Charles: his army having gained the frontiers of Valencia and Murcia, he put gariſons into Cuença, Requena and Ciſuentes, ſent a detachment of his troops to Arragon, and diſpoſed the reſt in ſuch a manner, as to protect thoſe countries which continued in his intereſt.

I find the conduct both of King Charles and the confederate Generals that took poſſeſſion of Madrid, exceedingly blamed by ſome writers. They relate, that when the French retired in ſuch a precipitate manner from before Barcelona to the frontiers of France, it was the opinion of the Engliſh Generals, that King Charles ſhould have immediately gone on to Madrid by the way of Valencia, as being the neareſt, moſt ſafe, and moſt convenient way for the ſubſiſtence of the confederate troops. Several councils of war were held upon it, and it was reſolved in three of them *nemine contradicente*. According to thoſe reſolves, the Earl of Peterborough marched before with ſix thouſand men to Valencia, and ſoon after his Lordſhip arrived there, he received certain advice that the Earl of Galway was come with the confederate army under his command to Madrid; from whence every one concluded, that King Charles would have gone with all imaginable ſpeed to take poſſeſſion of that capital. The Earl of Peterborough, and thoſe who were with him, were mightily ſurpriſed, after a month's waiting at Valencia, to find that his Catholick Majeſty had been adviſed and prevailed upon by the Prince de L——n, and Count de C——es, to alter thoſe meaſures at Tarragona, where they had reſolved to go to Madrid by the way of Arragon, on pretence of conquering that kingdom, which had then declared for him. The Envoy of Portugal, and our Miniſter at his Majeſty's court, did both of them proteſt againſt this, and urged to have their reaſons entered in writing; the ſubſtance of which was, 1. That Arragon being not well furniſhed with proviſions, it would be very inconvenient for our troops to march that way. 2. That the enemy having then ſix thouſand good horſe ready to obſerve his motions, his Majeſty could not march that way without viſible hazard. 3. That though that road were ſafe, it would be the loſs of ſix weeks time before he could arrive at Madrid, and that time would be of great importance to him in ſuch a conjuncture. Thoſe about him who were for going by the way of Arragon, alledged, that it was not for his Majeſty's honour to go to Madrid in a hurry, without his equipage and retinue. To which they ſay Mr. Stanhope replied, That King William, when he made his deſcent upon England, went to London in a hackney-coach, attended with a few dragoons, otherwiſe he had loſt the crown. However, the other counſels prevailed, and King Charles purſued their advice, of going by way of Arragon. When the Earl of Peterborough heard of theſe meaſures, he ſent ſeveral letters with the unanimous opinion of his councils of war, that it would be beſt for his Majeſty to return and go by the way of Valencia: but his Lordſhip's letters, and the opinion of the councils of war, had no effect; his Majeſty went on to Saragoſſa, where the great expectations of thoſe who adviſed him to that road, terminated in being complimented with a *Torridore*, or bull-feaſt. When they ſaw too late that dangers approached, and that the direct way from thence to Madrid was not practicable, then they altered their meaſures again, took the road towards Valencia, and ſent to deſire that the Earl of Peterborough would meet them with all poſſible haſte.

The confederate army then in Caſtile ſeemed at the ſame time to have been under a ſtrange reſtraint. The Duke of Anjou had no more than ſix thouſand horſe, and ſcarce any regular foot on that ſide, when the confederate army came to Madrid, ſo that it was thought they might have forced the enemy to repaſs the Ebro, where they would ſoon have been in want of proviſions; or the confederate troops might have encamped and fortified themſelves, ſo as to have covered Madrid, and laid up magazines of corn: but inſtead of doing either of theſe, they marched and encamped at Guadalaxara, where in leſs than a month they were reduced to want of proviſions. And it ſeems their intelligence was not very good, ſince one morning they were ſurprized to ſee an army of twenty thouſand men encamped on the other ſide of the river over-againſt them, though they were informed that there was no enemy within thirty miles of them; and all this while the French troops that retired from before Barcelona had time to march round through France into Spain, ſo that they were ſuperior to the confederates in horſe, and well nigh a match to them in foot. Perceiving this advantage, they detached a body of horſe to repoſſeſs themſelves of Madrid, where they killed many of the Germans, and others of King Charles's party: upon this, Segovia, Toledo, Salamanca, and other places which had ſubmitted to his Catholick Majeſty, revolted again to the Duke of Anjou, and our communication with Portugal was cut off.

When matters came to this paſs, moſt of the Generals were for fighting, in order to recover that advantage which had been ſo unhappily loſt; but of forty-five General officers, the Earl of Peterborough alone was againſt running ſuch a riſque: his Lordſhip gave his opinion in writing againſt it, and convinced them that it was not ſafe to venture all upon the iſſue of a battle, ſince in caſe we ſhould be worſted, there could be no hopes of a retreat in a country where we had ſo many enemies.

This was the ſtate of affairs when the Earl of Peterborough came to Guadalaxara. His Lordſhip was for retaking Alcala, as a proper place for covering Madrid, and offered to attempt it with five thouſand men, by poſſeſſing himſelf of the paſs of Henarez, and either to fight ſuch of the enemy as oppoſed him, or to make a good retreat. His propoſal was approved of by every one, but by the delays laid in his way the opportunity was loſt, ſo that the confederate army was forced to break up, and to march higher into the country towards Madrid, for the conveniency of proviſions. His Lordſhip's baggage was taken by the enemy at Huet: the town offered to make good the damage, which he was too generous to accept of; yet he impoſed it upon them by way of puniſhment, to bring in all the corn of that diſtrict to the army, which was ſo conſiderable, that it ſerved them for bread for ſix weeks. His Lordſhip finding there were Generals enough for the reſt of the campaign, and that he had very little influence on their councils, retired to Valencia, and from thence went to Italy, as well to provide remittances of money for the forces in the Britiſh ſervice, as to endeavour to procure a reinforcement of troops from thence, which might very well have been ſpared there, ſince the French were driven out of Lombardy. And if the Duke of Savoy and the Imperial Generals would have come into theſe meaſures, Spain had been ſecured to the houſe of Auſtria in another campaign: that fatal project on Thoulon, for which every thing elſe was neglected the following ſummer, ruined King Charles's affairs in Spain, and occaſioned the war to be protracted ſix years longer, to the irreparable damage of the Allies, eſpecially of Britain, that bore as great a ſhare in it as all the reſt of the Confederates put together.

And now let us take a view of our acquiſitions by ſea this campaign. The Engliſh Admiral Leake it ſeems was no leſs ſucceſsful in the Mediterranean than the confederate Generals had been by land: for after he had relieved Barcelona, he attacked Carthagena, which ſurrendered to him about the middle of June; and on the eighth of Auguſt he took Alicant by ſtorm, after which the caſtle ſurrendered. About the middle of September he reduced the iſlands of Majorca and Yvica to the obedience of King Charles III. But the confederate army being retired out of Caſtile, Carthagena was retaken by King Philip's forces the following winter; and the Duke of Berwick alſo retook Cuença on the confines of Caſtile, being a conſiderable frontier town in the poſſeſſion of the Allies, and made the gariſon, conſiſting of two thouſand men, priſoners of war.

King Peter dies, and is ſucceeded by his ſon Don John.

Whilſt affairs were in this ſituation, and Sir Cloudesly Shovel and the Earl Rivers remained at Liſbon with the troops above-mentioned, Don Pedro King of Portugal died, viz. on the eleventh of December 1706, in the fifty-eighth year of his age. He had been married three times: his firſt wife was the Princeſs Louisa de Gusman, daughter to the Duke of Medina Sidonia, who died anno 1666. He had by her the Infanta Isabella, who was declared heireſs of the kingdom in 1674, and contracted to the Duke of Savoy in 1680; but died unmarried on the twenty-firſt of October 1690. His ſecond wife was Mary-Frances-Isabella of Savoy, daughter of the Duke of Nemours, who had been divorced from his brother the late K. Alphonso. He married her the ſecond of April 1668, and ſhe died the ſeventeenth of December 1683. His third wife was Maria-Sophia-Elizabeth, daughter of Philip-William Elector Palatine. He married her in 1687, and ſhe died in 1699, by whom he had iſſue, 1. A ſon born the thirtieth of Auguſt 1688, who died a few days after. 2. Don John-Francis-Joseph-Antonio, &c. his preſent Majeſty, born the twenty-ſecond of October 1689, and declared heir apparent to the crown by the three eſtates aſſembled at Liſbon the firſt of December 1697. 3. Francis-Xavier-Antonio-Urban, May the twenty-fifth 1691. 4. Antonio-Francis, born March the fifteenth 1695. 5. Theresa-Frances-Josepha, born February the twenty-fourth 1696: ſhe was contracted to the preſent Emperor, but died in 1704. 6. Emanuel, born Auguſt the third 1697. And, 7. Francisca-Xaviera-Josepha, born January the thirtieth 1699. And beſides theſe he had a natural daughter, married to the eldeſt ſon of the Duke of Cadaval, anno 1695.

The wives and iſſue of the late King.

As to the Infanta, the Princeſs Catharine, ſiſter of King Peter, born the fourteenth of November 1638, ſhe was married, as hath been intimated already, to Charles II, King of England, by a treaty concluded the twelfth of May 1662; the marriage being firſt magnificently ſolemnized by proxy at Liſbon, and afterwards conſummated at Portſmouth in England, whither the King went to meet her. The Queen-Regent of Portugal, her mother, gave her as a dower Tangier in Africa, and the iſland of Bombay in the Eaſt-Indies: the firſt of which was kept for ſome years at a great expence; but the Miniſtry of England being of opinion the advantages they ſhould reap by it would not countervail the charge of maintaining it, thought fit to demoliſh the works and leave it, anno 1684; and King Charles conferred the iſland of Bombay on the Engliſh Eaſt-India company, which they ſtill retain, it being the ſeat of the principal governor they have in India. Beſides theſe places, the Infanta had a fortune of three millions of livres, or three hundred thouſand pounds, according to ſome writers, but according to others two hundred and fifty thouſand pounds. She continued in England about ſeven or eight years after the death of King Charles, but in 1692 retired to Portugal, where ſhe died on the thirty-firſt of December 1705.

On the death of King Peter, his eldeſt ſon Don John ſucceeded to the crown, as has been intimated already. The French had great hopes on this event to have withdrawn Portugal from the grand alliance, and things were carried ſo far that ſome acts of hoſtility paſſed between the royal navy of England and the forts in the river of Liſbon, which were ordered to fire on the cruiſers Admiral Shovel ſent out of that river. But partly by the influence of the Engliſh fleet and forces, and partly by Engliſh treaſure, the Portugueſe were kept ſteady to the Allies; they were pleaſed to ſuffer the Engliſh to continue the war on that ſide at their own expence.

Earl Rivers's memorial on his leaving Liſbon with the Britiſh troops.

The men of war and tranſports being provided with water and other neceſſaries to continue their voyage, the troops under the command of the Earl Rivers were imbarked, and deſigned to ſail the ſecond of January for Alicant, according to the deſire of the King of Spain; but the night before the General received orders from England to the contrary. His Excellency held a Council of War, and therein it was reſolved that my Lord ſhould preſent a memorial to the new King to acquaint him with the conditional orders he had received. His Excellency had accordingly audience the fourth of his Portugueſe Majeſty, who received him with all poſſible marks of eſteem, and delivered his memorial, containing the conditions upon which he was ordered to land, which were in ſubſtance as follow.

1. That the King ſhould give him poſitive aſſurances that the Portugueſe troops in Valencia ſhould be recruited to nineteen battalions, each of ſix hundred effective men, and the cavalry remounted; and that the ſaid recruits and other neceſſaries to enable thoſe troops to take the field, ſhould be immediately ſent away. 2. That the ſubſidies paid by England and Holland for the pay of 13000 men, which they are obliged to maintain by the treaty, may be remitted directly to Valencia, or whereſoever that army is, in order that thoſe troops be punctually paid out of it by the orders of the commander in chief of her Majeſty's forces. 3. That if his Portugueſe Majeſty cannot provide ſhips to tranſport the ſaid recruits, his Excellency will take care to ſend them aboard Engliſh ſhips, his Majeſty paying the charges, and finding proviſions, or paying them. 4. That the late King having propoſed by his Envoy and the Marquis de Montandre in England, to join ten thouſand foot and between two and three thouſand horſe to the troops under the command of the Earl Rivers, to march directly to Madrid, his Excellency deſires a particular aſſurance from his preſent Majeſty that the ſame ſhall be performed; as alſo to know what meaſures are already taken for that purpoſe, what likelihood there is that a body of that number ſhall be ready, and in a condition to march at the time appointed, and in what manner, and which way it is propoſed they ſhould march towards Madrid. 5. His Excellency declares, that he has orders to agree beforehand, and concert with the King all things relating to the artillery, baggage, and proviſions, and expects that his Majeſty ſhould furniſh every thing for that ſervice, according to the treaty relating to the firſt forces that were ſent from England; and that the troops under his command may be furniſhed with proviſions for themſelves, and forage for their horſes at their own charge, but at the ſame price as the King's troops. 6. My Lord declares as to the point of command, which has been liable to ſo many inconveniences, that he will not be commanded by any body but his Majeſty alone. His Excellency deſires in the concluſion his Portugueſe Majeſty, to let him have an anſwer to all theſe points in four days, that he may take meaſures accordingly; and that in the mean time the neceſſary proviſions of ſtraw and barley for his horſes may be continued.

The Court of Portugal not thinking fit to comply with the demand in the Earl Rivers's memorial, Sir Cloudesly Shovel and the Earl, with the Engliſh troops aboard, ſailed from Liſbon the eighteenth of January, and arrived at Alicant the eighth of February. The Earl Rivers having landed his forces, and left them under the command of the Earl of Galway, returned to England, together with the Earl of Eſſex and Brigadier Gorges, who were embarked in the firſt deſign, but for reaſons beſt known to themſelves, declined remaining in Valencia. King Charles alſo not approving the conduct of the Generals, the Marquis das Minas and the Earl of Galway, thought fit the latter end of February, to declare his reſolution of leaving the army, and retiring into Catalonia; which he did ſoon after, taking with him a regiment of Dragoons, and another of Dutch foot. It was reported however that the army of the Allies ſtill amounted to thirty thouſand men, though it appears that at the battle of Almanza, which happened but a very little while afterwards, they were not eighteen thouſand effective men. Nor was the deficiency in point of troops their only misfortune, it is evident there were great miſunderſtandings between King Charles's Court and the Generals, which gave but a melancholy proſpect of the following campaign. We find the beſt account of the ſtate of the armies in Spain in a letter the Earl of Peterborough wrote from Italy to the Portugueſe Ambaſſador, that attended the Confederate army in Valencia at this time, in which he has theſe expreſſions: "Would to God, ſays the Earl, you were free from uneaſineſſes when I hope to be in quiet: it ſeems to me as if ſtorms were threatning Spain, and I am the more concerned, becauſe of the probability of your Generals continuing in a diſpoſition of raſh meaſures. It is certain they are only in a condition for a defenſive, and that ſuffices for the preſent, ſince the

The Earl of Peterborough's account of the ſtate of the war.

preparatives againſt France are ſo terrible in Italy and in Flanders. You know my opinion in the council of war held at Valencia; but the ſuccours which are coming, and the perſon of the Duke of Orleans, are certain proofs of the great efforts the enemy will make in the beginning of the next campaign. If we prevent their firſt impetuoſity, whilſt Naples, Sicily and Sardinia may be ſecured, peace will give us all we can deſire. I am obliged to give you notice that no endeavours can prevent the Imperialiſts from marching towards Naples, it is impoſſible to hinder that diverſion of their troops; it is our intereſt to give the neceſſary help towards bringing that affair to a ſpeedy concluſion: and methinks one might hope upon the ſucceſs of that enterprize, that thoſe troops might be ſollicited and obtained for the ſuccour of Spain.

But, my Lord, pray conſider the conſequences of a loſt battle in the ſpring: perhaps a diſgrace was leſs fatal in Flanders. By a ſuperiority of horſe, ſuch a misfortune may happen to the beſt foot in the world, which will be cut off entirely in caſe of a defeat, and all Spain at the ſame time loſt, for want of gariſons in the ſtrong places we poſſeſs. If we defend well what we have, their great number of horſe will conſume it ſelf for want of forage, or deſtroy that part of the country which is ill affected, and be called by their preſſing neceſſities elſewhere, ſince we have in Italy near ſeventy thouſand effective men, for the vigorous meaſures that are concerted.

I know my reaſons, though good, will have little force with the Generals; they have the laſt campaign in their thoughts, and have not perhaps the ſame tranquillity of mind and quiet, which, I thank God, I enjoy, being well content with the beginnings I have made, only wiſhing a happy concluſion to this great affair; aſſuring your Excellency that nothing private ſhall ever mix with my thoughts for the publick. But I juſtly lay a ſtreſs on the great credit you have with every body, and am well aſſured that the intereſt of your country requires meaſures of the utmoſt precaution, ſince your beſt troops are in Spain, and that a defeat would expoſe Portugal before ſuccours can arrive, ſince England has left herſelf almoſt unprovided with troops, and that the forces in Italy being deſigned for other ſervices, it will be difficult to obtain any of them, though the circumſtances preſſingly require it. I therefore intreat your Excellency, to think again of the conſequence of a loſt battle: God be praiſed we are not in a neceſſity of a victory, that is the circumſtance of France.

At preſent I have nothing to propoſe to your Excellency, nor to wiſh, but that the troops might not be fatigued in the impoſſible views of gaining Madrid, half the army being expoſed to deſtruction by diſeaſes and famine, or the whole, in a very improper time by an unequal battle. I will neglect nothing in my power to obtain in a favourable opportunity a ſuccour of troops for Spain, that in the after-ſeaſon we may puſh our affairs."

But the Marquis das Minas and the Earl of Galway being ſtrangers to theſe prudent counſels, took the field the ſixth of April N. S. and having deſtroyed ſome of the enemy's magazines on the frontiers of Caſtile, laid ſiege to the caſtle of Villena. Before the breach was acceſſible, they received intelligence that the Duke of Berwick was advanced as far as the plains of Almanza, with 76 ſquadrons of horſe, and 54 battalions of foot, and that the Duke of Orleans was on the march to join him with 7 or 8000 French, while the Allies had no proſpect of being reinforced by the troops from Catalonia, King Charles having declared his intention of marching with them to Rouſſillon, and deſired the Lord Galway to diſtribute the army on the frontiers of Valencia and Arragon for the ſecurity of thoſe provinces: (which was certainly not bad advice, in the circumſtances the confederates then were.) However, it was agreed in a council of war to march and attack the enemy, who waited for them in the plains of Almanza, the moſt advantageous ground they could have choſen, on account of their ſuperiority in horſe. But the Earl of Galway having ſupply'd his want of cavalry, as he thought, by interlining a brigade of foot with each wing of horſe, ventured to engage the enemy on the twenty-fifth of April N. S. about three in the afternoon. The Earl poſted himſelf at the head of the Engliſh dragoons on the left, and marched to attack the enemy's right wing of horſe, the Portugueſe being ordered to take the charge as it ſhould come to them gradually from the left. As ſoon as the left wing was advanced within an hundred paces of the enemy's horſe, they advanced out of their line to meet the charge, and by the weight of their ſquadrons forced thoſe of the Allies to retreat about fifty paces; but Colonel Southwell's and Wade's regiments of foot, who were on the left of that brigade which was interlined with the horſe of the firſt line, coming up and firing upon the enemy's flank and rear, and the cavalry at the ſame time receiving the charge in the front, drove them in diſorder through their own lines with great ſlaughter. By this time the Engliſh and Dutch foot, under the command of Lieutenant-General Earl and Baron Freishem, were ſharply engaged in the center, and broke through the enemy's firſt and ſecond line, driving them as far as the walls of Almanza: but the enemy's cavalry of the ſecond line falling in upon their flank, forced the Engliſh and Dutch infantry back with great loſs.

Battle of Almanza.

The enemy obſerving that the Portugueſe cavalry on the right did not advance with the left wing, detached ſome ſquadrons to attack them, their line following ſlowly to ſuſtain them; but the Portugueſe did not ſtay to receive them, for upon the firſt charge of the detached ſquadrons the whole right wing of the Portugueſe cavalry run away, and abandoned their infantry, who were moſt of them either killed or made priſoners.

The battle continued ſtill on the left wing, the enemy charging the Allies with freſh ſquadrons to very little purpoſe; for the Engliſh and Portugueſe horſe on that ſide being favoured by the fire of the Engliſh battalions that were interlined with them, broke the enemy ſeveral times. Whereupon they ſent for nine battalions, moſt of them French, and drew up before the front line of horſe, in oppoſition to the Engliſh brigade, and at the ſame time brought up ſeveral freſh ſquadrons to make another charge upon the left wing of horſe, that had already ſuffered very much, and loſt moſt of the officers who commanded the ſquadrons; Brigadier Carpenter was the only one that remained unwounded. The confederate troops in this condition were not able to ſuſtain the charge, but gave way;

and at the ſame time the nine French battalions charged the Engliſh brigade of foot in front and flank, and entirely broke them, giving no quarter for ſome time: the foot in vain cried to the horſe not to abandon them. Neither of the Generals, the Marquis das Minas or the Earl of Galway, ſtaid to ſee the end of the engagement, but left that brave handful of foot to the mercy of the enemy; whereupon Major-General SHRIMPTON, Brigadier MACARTNEY, Colonel BRITON, Colonel HILL, with ſome other officers who had engaged in the center, aſſembled the ſtragglers of the Engliſh regiments into a body, and joining ſome of the Dutch and Portugueſe, to the number of two thouſand men, retreated to the hills two leagues diſtant from the field of battle, repulſing the horſe that purſued them: but the next morning finding themſelves deſtitute both of ammunition and proviſion, and being ſurrounded by two lines of foot, they were obliged to ſurrender priſoners of war.

Brigadier KILLEGREW, who was wounded in the firſt charge, ſtill keeping the field, was killed in the ſecond. The Colonels DORMER, ROPER, LAWRENCE, GREEN and DE LOCHE, were killed at the head of their ſquadrons, after having behaved with the utmoſt gallantry; and Colonel PIERCE and Mr. HARA, ſon to the Lord Tirawley were wounded. Of the foot, the Colonels HAMILTON, WOOLLET and NEAL, who commanded regiments were killed, and the Lord MARK KERR, and Colonel CLAYTON wounded. As to the Earl of Galway and the Marquis das Minas, they fled with the cavalry that was left, amounting to about three thouſand five hundred, to the other ſide of the Ebro into Catalonia. The foot were all killed or taken priſoners, I could never hear of a ſingle company that eſcaped.

The day after the battle the Duke of Orleans joined the Duke of Berwick with a reinforcement of eight or ten thouſand men; and the enemy having taken Xativa, Alcyra, and ſome other places which the Allies had gariſoned on the frontiers of Valencia, the cities of Saragoſſa and Valencia, with the reſt of the towns in Arragon and Valencia, ſubmitted to the conquerors, were obliged to pay large ſums for their revolt, deprived of their privileges, diſarmed and treated in a very barbarous manner, and the town of Xativa in particular was burnt and razed to the ground, and many of the inhabitants maſſacred for their diſaffection to King PHILIP. The Spaniſh Generals on the ſide of Portugal took Serpa and Moura this campaign; and nothing remaining in the hands of the Allies but Alicant and Denia in Valencia, the Duke of Orleans marched to the frontiers of Catalonia, where the confederate Generals having thrown their troops into the ſtrong towns, burnt the country that the enemy might find no ſubſiſtence. Theſe were ſome of the unhappy effects of the battle of Almanza, which the Allies might have prevented if the enterprizes on Thoulon and Naples had been deferred, or if the Marquis das Minas and the Earl of Galway had remained upon the defenſive till thoſe expeditions had been over. The campaign ended on the ſide of Catalonia with the taking of Lerida by the Duke of Orleans; and on the frontiers of Portugal King PHILIP's forces took Cividad Rodrigo by ſtorm. And the Dukes of Orleans and Noailles had probably made an entire conqueſt of Catalonia, if they had not been obliged to detach part of their troops to France upon the Duke of Savoy's laying ſiege to Thoulon.

Lerida taken by the Duke of Orleans.

1708. Tortoſa and Denia retaken.

The following year 1708, the Duke of Orleans made himſelf maſter of Tortoſa in Catalonia, and of Denia in Valencia. But the Imperialiſts having ſent Count Staremberg to Spain from Italy with a reinforcement of eight or ten thouſand men, the forces of France and King PHILIP were content to be upon the defenſive afterwards in that country. With theſe forces Sir JOHN LEAKE, the Engliſh Admiral, convoyed the Queen of Spain, the late Princeſs of Wolfembuttle, from Vado in Italy to Catalonia, where the marriage was conſummated between her and King CHARLES. After which Sir JOHN LEAKE taking ſome land-forces on board, reduced the iſland of Sardinia to the obedience of King CHARLES: and before the end of September the iſland of Minorca, with the fine harbour of Port-Mahon, ſurrendered to that Admiral and General STANHOPE. In the mean time a contract of marriage was made between the King of Portugal and the Archducheſs MARY-ANNE of Auſtria, ſecond ſiſter to the Emperor and King CHARLES; and her Majeſty arriving from Holland at Spithead the twenty-fourth of September, was convoyed to Liſbon by Admiral BYNG, where ſhe arrived the ſixteenth of October, N. S. And though King CHARLES's forces as well as the King of Portugal's had been conſiderably recruited and augmented this campaign, yet thoſe Courts were ſo taken up with the preparations for ſolemnizing theſe marriages, and rejoicings afterwards, that the military operations in theſe countries ſeemed to be at a ſtand.

King of Spain marries the Princeſs of Wolfembuttle.

King of Portugal marries the Archducheſs Mary.

1709.

The campaign of 1709 begun unfortunately for the Allies on the ſide of Portugal: for the Portugueſe and Spaniſh armies being encamped on the banks of the river Caya oppoſite to each other, and the Marquis de Bay making a motion towards Campo Mayor, the Portugueſe Generals reſolved to attack him, contrary to the opinion of the Earl of Galway. Whereupon all the horſe and a body of Portugueſe foot had orders to march immediately with five field-pieces and begin the engagement, while the reſt of the army followed to ſupport them. But the Spaniſh cavalry no ſooner charged the Portugueſe horſe, but they fled and abandoned their foot, as they had done at the battle of Almanza. Whereupon the enemy immediately took the five field-pieces and fell upon the foot in the flank. Brigadier PIERCE's Engliſh brigade was ordered to march and favour the retreat of the Portugueſe foot; which they did with ſo much reſolution, that they recovered the field-pieces again. The Portugueſe Generals however were ſo far from ſupporting them, that they quitted the field, leaving this fine brigade to be ſurrounded by the enemy's whole army, and made priſoners, together with Major-General SANKEY, the Earl of Barrimore, and Brigadier PIERCE himſelf. The Earl of Galway, it is ſaid, had a horſe ſhot under him, but he made a ſhift to eſcape out of the field with the Portugueſe Generals, as he had done at Almanza. The Marquis de Bay afterwards purſued the Portugueſe army; but they retreated beyond Elvas, and poſted themſelves in an advantageous camp, where it was not eaſy to attack them.

A whole brigade of Engliſh made priſoners near Badajox.

In Catalonia King CHARLES's army being ſuperior to that of his rival, paſſed the Segra, and made themſelves maſters of Balaguer. There happened no farther action in Spain or Portugal this

Balaguer taken by King Charles.

this year, unleſs the ſiege of the caſtle of Alicant, which continued, with ſome intermiſſions, from the time the town was taken laſt year till the middle of April 1709. The Spaniards, finding it impoſſible to reduce it any other way, were reſolved to blow it up by a great mine, in which they lodged twelve thouſand barrels of powder. They ſummoned the Governor and acquainted him with his danger, and propoſed that two of his officers ſhould come out and view the mine, which they did accordingly, and upon their report the Governor held a Council of War, wherein it was reſolved not to ſurrender; and the French ſprung their mine, which made an incredible noiſe, but had no great effect upon the caſtle, only the Governor Major-General Richards and Colonel Syburgh, happening to be a little too near the place where the mine was, were unfortunately buried in the ruins, with ſeveral other officers. The command devolving upon Lieutenant-Colonel d'Albon, he reſolved to hold out till he was relieved, and to that end reduced his men to ſhort allowance. And on the fifteenth of April Sir George Byng and Major-General Stanhope, appeared before Alicant with a ſquadron of men of war and four thouſand land-men on board; but the Spaniſh army being reinforced, and the coaſt very tempeſtuous, it was not thought adviſeable to land, and they contented themſelves with ſending a flag of truce on ſhore, and capitulating to withdraw the gariſon from the caſtle and deliver it up, which the Spaniards agreed to; and purſuant to this capitulation the gariſon, conſiſting of about five hundred men, marched out the eighteenth of April N. S. with two pieces of cannon, and all other marks of honour, and embarqued on board the fleet.

Alicant caſtle ſurrendered by the Engliſh.

1710.

A further reinforcement of troops being ſent from Italy to Catalonia in the year 1710, King Charles advanced with his army to attack King Philip, who was then alſo at the head of his troops in Arragon: and coming up with the enemy on the 27th of July in the evening near Almenara, he gained a conſiderable advantage over King Philip's horſe, but the foot retired by the favour of the night. In this action Count Francis of Naſſau Auverkirk, one of the Generals of the Allies, was killed by a cannon-ſhot from their own guns; and the Earl of Rochfort, another of their Generals, being cloſely engaged with the enemy, was mortally wounded by a ſword.

Battle of Almenara

King Philip after this defeat retired under the cannon of Lerida, where not being able to ſubſiſt his army, he retreated to Saragoſſa, and being purſued thither by King Charles, he could not avoid coming to an engagement. The confederates being drawn up in order of battle within cannon-ſhot of the enemy, Count Staremberg with the reſt of the Generals went to obſerve their diſpoſition, found them poſted with the Ebro on their left, the town of Saragoſſa on their rear, and their right wing of horſe drawn up upon the brow of a ſteep hill, with a battery of eight pieces of cannon in their front. The day being far ſpent, and a great part of our foot not come up, it was thought fit to defer the attack till the next day. On the twentieth at break of day both armies plaid their cannon, and General Stanhope, who commanded our left wing, diſcovered that the enemy had marched moſt of their horſe from their left wing to their right; upon which he obtained of Marſhal Staremberg four battalions of foot, which he placed at the left of our horſe, and ſix ſquadrons of Portugueſe horſe which were brought from our right he drew up beyond the four battalions, in order to ſtretch our left wing as far as poſſible towards the extent of their right. It is to be obſerved that the enemy lay in an oblique line from the Ebro up the hill, ſo that their troops on the hill lay much nearer to us than thoſe on the deſcent from it and on the plain. At twelve o'clock at noon our ſignal of battle was made, and our whole army being drawn up in two lines marched at once to attack the enemy in full front, except the four battalions which General Stanhope had interlined with the horſe, whom he ordered to advance and take poſt on the brow of the hill, by which means he gained time for his wing of horſe to form after they were got up. Our left wing from their ſituation coming firſt to the enemy, began the battle, which encreaſed towards the centre, and ſo continued to the right till the whole were engaged. But notwithſtanding a diſpoſition ſo properly made, and the goodneſs of our troops, the enemies with their ſuperior numbers and advantage of ground ſeemed at firſt to have the better of the day; which probably they would have maintained, if all our Generals commanding on the left had not ſeaſonably led on freſh troops to ſupport and rally ſuch as they ſaw puſhed or diſordered, by which the advantage ſoon began to incline to the arms of his Catholick Majeſty. While the affair was obſtinately diſputed on the left, our foot being deeply engaged, made a great ſlaughter of the enemy: And at the ſame time their left wing of horſe making little reſiſtance, within the ſpace of two hours we gained a complete and glorious victory. We took all their cannon and moſt of their colours; ſo that out of forty battalions not above four thouſand eſcaped, and of ſixty ſquadrons about the like number; all the reſt being killed or taken priſoners. The King during the whole action gave the neceſſary orders, and with his royal preſence continued to encourage the troops. His Majeſty entered the town of Saragoſſa the ſame night, where he was received with the acclamations of the people, and all imaginable expreſſions of joy. The ſame night the citadel of Saragoſſa capitulated, and the gariſon ſurrendered themſelves priſoners of war.

Battle of Saragoſſa.

This victory coſt the Allies two thouſand men, and the enemy at leaſt three thouſand, as was given out, beſides five or ſix thouſand that were made priſoners. The Allies alſo took ſeventy-two colours and ſtandards, two and twenty pieces of cannon, and part of the enemy's baggage. King Philip made all the haſte he could to Madrid, where he arrived the twenty-fourth of Auguſt; and notwithſtanding this misfortune, the Caſtilians gave him ſtill freſh proofs of their loyalty and affection. But apprehending the Allies would bend their march that way, he thought fit to ſend the Queen and the Prince of the Aſturias to Valladolid, whither all the grandees and officers of ſtate attended them, though he offered to diſpence with their attendance; ſuch were the affections of the Caſtilians towards that Prince at this time, to which nothing had more contributed than King Charles's abandoning them to the mercy of their enemies, when they had made their ſubmiſſion and declared for him on his firſt taking poſſeſſion of Madrid.

The affection of the Caſtilians for King Philip.

The Portugueſe army deſired to join that of King Charles near Madrid.

After the battle of Saragoſſa, the Count de Aſſumar, Ambaſſador of Portugal with King Charles the third, and the Count D'Attalaya, General of the Portugueſe troops in the army of King Charles, ſent an expreſs to Liſbon to repreſent to the King of how great importance it was to the common cauſe that his Majeſty's army ſhould advance towards Caſtile, and ſecond the efforts of King Charles. Whereupon the Portugueſe General the Count de Villaverde was ordered to take the field, which he did, and in his march wrote to the army of his Catholick Majeſty that he would move to join them by the way of Menda and Truxillo. He marched firſt to Barcarota, and then to Xeres de los Cavalleros, the laſt of which places being of no defence he poſſeſſed himſelf of; but without attempting any thing further, retired to the frontiers of Portugal. It was given out he was obliged to it by four thouſand of the enemy's horſe, though it does not appear the enemy had any ſuch forces on that ſide as might reaſonably give him the leaſt ſollicitude. At the ſame time came letters again from the Counts of Aſſumar and Attalaya, ſolliciting that the Portugueſe army might advance to the bridge of Almaraz. And theſe letters were accompanied by others from General Stanhope to the Earl of Galway, preſſing to be joined by him at Almaraz, where he would be with four thouſand horſe. He alſo repreſented in the moſt urgent terms that this junction was of the greateſt importance, his Catholick Majeſty having been obliged to weaken his army very much by leaving bodies of troops in divers places, ſo that it was judged neither ſafe nor proper for him to purſue the Duke of Anjou, who had retired precipitately into the Old Caſtile to draw together what forces he could. Upon the arrival of theſe ſollicitations and remonſtrances all the Miniſters of the Allies at Liſbon met together, and agreed to make their joint application to the King, that he would be pleaſed forthwith to cauſe his army to march and join that of his Catholick Majeſty. But the Miniſters of this Court anſwered them, that the junction propoſed was utterly impracticable, not only becauſe of the perplexity given them by the enemy's four thouſand horſe on the frontiers, but likewiſe becauſe the Portugueſe cavalry was in no condition for ſervice, wanting all neceſſaries. Another letter came from General Stanhope, in which he deſired that at leaſt he might be joined by the forces in Portugal that were in the pay of the Queen of Great Britain. Whereupon the Miniſters of the Allies renewed their ſollicitations, arguing the indiſpenſable neceſſity of ſending to Almaraz the troops in her Britannick Majeſty's pay, and preſſing this Court to reinforce them by only a thouſand horſe and three thouſand foot. Likewiſe M. le Fevre, who after the departure of the Earl of Galway reſided at Liſbon as Secretary to the embaſſy of Great Britain, offered to ſupply, on the account of the Queen his Sovereign, the proviſions and money neceſſary for the ſaid march. To procure the ſpeedier anſwer, the ſaid Miniſters of the Allies went all in a body to the Secretary of State, and had a conference with him and other the Portugueſe Miniſters; but notwithſtanding all the arguments they could uſe, the Portugueſe Miniſtry refuſed abſolutely to comply with their deſires, excuſing themſelves from undertaking that their army ſhould do any more than make ſome ſiege on the frontiers.

They refuſe to join King Charles.

The allies take poſſeſſion of Madrid again.

King Charles however having ſtaid ſome time at Saragoſſa to refreſh his troops, ſet out for Madrid, and on the twentieth of September arrived in the neighbourhood of Alcala de Henarez, and the next day General Stanhope, with a detachment of the army, took poſſeſſion of Madrid. On the 28th King Charles made his triumphant entry into that city, and having performed his devotions at the church of Nueſtra Signora d'Atocha, his Majeſty took up his quarters at a country-ſeat belonging to the Conde d'Aquilar. The city of Madrid having agreed to furniſh his Majeſty with a ſubſidy of forty thouſand crowns a month for the ſubſiſtence of his army, a detachment was ſent to take poſſeſſion of Toledo, which lying upon the Tagus, was looked upon as an advantageous poſt for facilitating the intended conjunction with the Portugueſe.

King Charles retires again to Barcelona.

In the mean time King Philip having ſent a detachment of his troops to take poſſeſſion of Almaraz, and thereby render the conjunction of the Portugueſe and the confederates impracticable, General Stanhope rejoined the confederate army that had been employed in fortifying Toledo, deſigning to have taken up winter-quarters in Caſtile; but King Philip's army being reinforced from all parts, and become ſuperior to that of the Allies, it was thought adviſable to retreat to Arragon; and King Charles taking with him a regiment of dragoons and another of foot, marched away a little before the army decamped to Barcelona, in order to obſerve the motions of the French on the ſide of Rouſſillon. His Majeſty arrived at Barcelona the ſixteenth of December, and a few days after he underſtood that the Duke de Noailles had laid ſiege to Gironne.

Battle of Brihuega.

The army of the Allies, in their march from Caſtile towards Arragon, divided themſelves into two bodies, the Germans and the Portugueſe under Count Staremberg took one road, and General Stanhope with the Engliſh forces another, the better to ſubſiſt the troops in their march, as is generally ſaid; but others impute it to Stanhope's pride, who did not care to be commanded by Staremberg. The eighth inſtant, General Stanhope with the Britiſh troops, conſiſting of eight battalions, and as many ſquadrons, halted at Brihuega, where he was ſurprized the ninth by King Philip's army, which ſurrounded the place: the Engliſh defended themſelves with great obſtinacy till the tenth in the morning, and then having ſpent all their ammunition, were forced to ſurrender priſoners of war.

Battle of Villa Vicioſa.

Count Staremberg having advice of the diſtreſs the Britiſh troops were in at Brihuega, marched to their relief; but was met by King Philip and the Duke of Vendoſme at Villa Vicioſa, about a league from Brihuega, the tenth inſtant in the evening, whereupon a battle was fought, and General Staremberg gave ſufficient demonſtration of his military ſkill, by defeating the Spaniards when he was not half their number. However, underſtanding that the Britiſh troops in Brihuega were made priſoners of war the morning before, and not being in a condition with the ſmall body of troops he had with him to proſecute his victory, he continued his march towards Arragon, without being diſturbed by the enemy, and having withdrawn the confederate troops out of the gariſons in that Kingdom, he marched afterwards into Catalonia, and arrived

Gironne ſurrendered to the French and Balaguer.

arrived at Barcelona the beginning of February, with about eleven thouſand effective men. A little after, advice came that Gironne had ſurrendered to the Duke of Noailles, and the gariſon Count Staremberg had left in Balaguer, conſiſting of two battalions and a hundred horſe, abandoned that place alſo upon the approach of the enemy, and retired to Barcelona; ſo that King Charles, who a little before was maſter of the greateſt part of the kingdom of Spain, had now no more in his poſſeſſion than the province of Catalonia, and that not entire.

The Count de Salvaterra, a Spaniſh General, in a letter concerning the actions of Brihuega and Villa Vicioſa, which was intercepted by the Allies, has theſe expreſſions, viz. ‘ General Staremberg gained a great deal of honour, which ought not to be denied him, though an enemy: his troops behaved to admiration, eſpecially his foot, which I don't believe the world can match, whether we conſider their bravery in fighting, or that gallant air with which they made their retreat, the like perhaps never ſeen before, as all that were preſent muſt own. As for us, though we all endeavoured to do our duty, yet our ſucceſs muſt be attributed chiefly to God and the juſtice of the King's cauſe, and under heaven to General Stanhope's ill conduct, for if we had not taken that body under his command, God only knows what would have become of us.'

This was the laſt conſiderable action that happened in Spain during the late war, for the Duke of Savoy, (now King of Sardinia) having ſome diſputes with the Emperor concerning the extent of his dominions in Italy, refuſed to make any diverſion on that ſide: the States-General never recruited or re-eſtabliſhed the troops they had agreed to maintain in Spain and Portugal in conjunction with Britain; and neither the Imperialiſts or Portugueſe had any troops ſcarce on foot in either of thoſe kingdoms, but what were maintained by the Queen of England; ſo that the war was become an inſupportable burthen to Great Britain, and the fixing King Charles upon the Spaniſh throne in theſe circumſtances, altogether impracticable. Add to this, that King Charles was ſoon after elected Emperor, which very much altered the ſtate of affairs; for it is evident from the Grand Alliance, and all our treaties with the late Emperors on this ſubject, that it never was intended the Empire and Spain ſhould be united under one head. Upon all theſe conſiderations therefore, the Queen of England was induced to liſten to propoſals of peace made her by the French King, and to enter into a treaty for the evacuation of Catalonia and the reſt of Spain; for the particulars whereof, I refer the reader to the former part of this volume. But the diſadvantages Britain lay under in carrying on the war in Spain and Portugal, and the neceſſity there was of concluding a peace when the Confederates refuſed to furniſh their reſpective quota's of troops or money, according to the ſeveral treaties made with us, are evident to a demonſtration, from the repreſentation made by the Commons of Great Britain to the Queen in the year 1711, part of which I have inſerted, to juſtify the conduct of that glorious Princeſs in the laſt years of her reign, which has been ſo vilely aſperſed by ſuch men as found their account in continuing the war, and their creatures.

A repreſentation of the ſtate of the laſt war.

This repreſentation ſets forth, ‘ That as in the progreſs of the war in Flanders a diſproportion was ſoon created to the prejudice of England, ſo the very beginning of the war in Portugal brought an unequal ſhare of burden upon us; for although the Emperor and the States-General were equally parties with your Majeſty in the treaty with the King of Portugal, yet the Emperor neither furniſhing his third part of the troops and ſubſidies ſtipulated for, nor the Dutch conſenting to take an equal ſhare of his Imperial Majeſty's defect upon themſelves, your Majeſty hath been obliged to furniſh two thirds of the entire expence created by that ſervice. Nor has the inequality ſtopped there, for ever ſince the year 1706, when the Engliſh and Dutch forces marched out of Portugal into Caſtile, the States-General have entirely abandoned the war in Portugal, and left your Majeſty to proſecute it ſingly at your own charge; which you have accordingly done, by replacing a greater number of troops there than even at firſt you took upon you to provide. At the ſame time your Majeſty's generous endeavours for the ſupport and defence of the King of Portugal, have been but ill ſeconded by that Prince himſelf; for notwithſtanding that by his treaty he had obliged himſelf to furniſh twelve thouſand foot, and three thouſand horſe upon his own account, beſides eleven thouſand foot and two thouſand horſe more in conſideration of a ſubſidy paid him, yet according to the beſt information your Commons can procure, it appears that he hath ſcarce at any time furniſhed thirteen thouſand men in the whole.

‘ In Spain the war hath been yet more unequal and burdenſom to your Majeſty than in any other branch of it; for being commenced without any treaty whatſoever, the Allies have almoſt wholly declined taking any part of it upon themſelves. A ſmall body of Engliſh and Dutch troops were ſent thither in the year 1705, not as being thought ſufficient to ſupport a regular war, or to make the conqueſt of ſo large a country, but with a view only of aſſiſting the Spaniards to ſet King Charles upon the throne, occaſioned by the great aſſurances which were given of their inclinations to the houſe of Auſtria; but this expectation failing, England was inſenſibly drawn into an eſtabliſhed war, under all the diſadvantages of the diſtance of the place, and the feeble efforts of the other Allies. The account we have laid before your Majeſty upon this head is, that altho' the undertaking was entered upon at the particular and earneſt requeſt of the Imperial Court, and for a cauſe of no leſs importance and concern for them than the reducing the Spaniſh monarchy to the houſe of Auſtria, yet neither the late Emperors, nor his preſent Imperial Majeſty, have ever had any forces there on their account till the laſt year, and then only one regiment of foot, conſiſting of 2000 men. Though the States-General have contributed ſomething more to this ſervice, yet their ſhare alſo hath been inconſiderable; for in the ſpace of four years, from 1705 to 1708, both incluſive, all the forces they have ſent into that country have not exceeded twelve thouſand two hundred men; and from the year 1708 to this time, they have not ſent any forces or recruits whatſoever. To your Majeſty's care and charge the recovery of that kingdom hath been in a manner wholly left, as if none elſe were intereſted or concerned ‘in it. And the forces which your Majeſty hath ſent into Spain in the ſpace of ſeven years, from 1705 to 1711, both incluſive, have amounted to no leſs than fifty-ſeven thouſand nine hundred ſeventy three men, beſides thirteen battalions and eighteen ſquadrons, for which your Majeſty hath paid a ſubſidy to the Emperor. How great the eſtabliſhed expence of ſuch a number of men hath been, your Majeſty very well knows, and your Commons very ſenſibly feel: but the weight will be found much greater, when it is conſidered how many articles of unuſual and extraordinary charge have attended this remote and difficult ſervice, all which have been intirely defrayed by your Majeſty, except that one of tranſporting the few forces which were ſent by the States-General, and the victualling of them during their tranſportation only. The accounts delivered to your Commons ſhew, that the charge of your Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels employed in the ſervice of the war in Spain and Portugal, reckoned after the rate of four pounds a man per month, from the time they ſailed from hence till they returned, were loſt, or put upon other ſervices, hath amounted to ſix millions, five hundred and forty thouſand, nine hundred and ſixty-ſix pounds, fourteen ſhillings; the charge of tranſports on the part of Great Britain, for carrying on the war in Spain and Portugal, from the beginning of it till this time, hath amounted to one million, three hundred thirty-ſix thouſand, ſeven hundred and nineteen pounds, nineteen ſhillings and eleven pence; that of victualling land-forces for the ſame ſervice, to five hundred eighty-three thouſand, ſeven hundred and ſeventy pounds, eight ſhillings and ſix pence; and that of contingencies and other extraordinaries for the ſame ſervice, to one million, eight hundred and forty thouſand, three hundred fifty-three pounds.

‘We ſhould take notice to your Majeſty of ſeveral ſums paid upon account of contingencies and extraordinaries in Flanders, making together the ſum of one million, one hundred and ſeven thouſand ninety-ſix pounds: but we are not able to make any compariſon of them, with what the States-General have expended upon the ſame head, having no ſuch ſtate of their extraordinary charge before us. There remains therefore but one particular more for your Majeſty's obſervation, which ariſes from the ſubſidies paid to foreign Princes. Theſe at the beginning of the war, were borne in equal proportion by your Majeſty and the States-General; but in this inſtance alſo, the balance hath been caſt in prejudice of your Majeſty; for it appears that your Majeſty hath ſince advanced more than your equal proportion, three millions one hundred fifty-five thouſand crowns, beſides extraordinaries paid in Italy, and not included in any of the foregoing articles, which arrive to five hundred thirty-nine thouſand five hundred fifty-three pounds.

‘We have laid theſe ſeveral particulars before your Majeſty in the ſhorteſt manner we have been able, and by an eſtimate grounded on the preceding facts, it doth appear, that over and above the quota's on the part of Great Britain anſwering to thoſe contributed by your Allies, more than nineteen millions have been expended by your Majeſty during the courſe of this war, by way of ſurpluſage, or exceeding in balance, of which none of the Confederates have furniſhed any thing whatſoever.’

Poſterity will certainly be amazed, when they come to find that the nation carried on a war on ſo unequal a foot, with no other view than that of aggrandizing our Allies, and enriching ſome private families at home; (for there is not a man of that party who were for continuing the war, that at this day ſeems to have the leaſt dread of the French, though they have enjoyed ſeventeen or eighteen years peace, and are conſequently much more formidable now, than they were at the end of the laſt war.) What ſevere reflections therefore muſt they make on their anceſtors, when it ſhall appear that they might have had a peace ſeven years before upon their own terms, and ſaved the nation forty millions of treaſure, beſides what they loſt by the interruption of their trade; eſpecially when they find ſuch a load of debts tranſmitted to them, and the revenues of the kingdom ſo anticipated that it may be difficult for them to find funds to maintain even a defenſive war? They will ſurely be more ready to condemn the conduct of the Britiſh Court for continuing the war ſo long, than for putting an end to it ſo ſoon, notwithſtanding all the clamours that have been raiſed upon that head. They will reflect alſo, it is to be hoped, in our favour, that miſcarriages are not always to be aſcribed to a nation in general, but frequently to a few deſigning ſelfiſh ſpirits that happen to ſurround the throne, and are practiſed in the pernicious art of diſguiſing truth, and caſting a miſt before the eyes of their Princes. But to proceed.

1713. Peace of Utrecht.

By the treaty of peace concluded at Utrecht the thirty-firſt of March O. S. or the eleventh of April N. S. 1713, between the Allies and France, the moſt material articles relating to Portugal were, That the French King ſhould relinquiſh both ſides of the river of Amazons in South America to his Portugueſe Majeſty, and quit all claim to the navigation of the ſaid river, and never ſuffer any French Miſſioners to come into the ſaid territories, or any other belonging to the crown of Portugal; and the Queen of Great Britain was by both parties accepted as guarantee of the ſaid articles. And by another treaty made between Spain and Portugal in February 1714-15, the Spaniards and Portugueſe mutually agreed to relinquiſh all places, that had been taken by the forces on either ſide during the war, but as to prizes, each party was to remain in poſſeſſion of what they had reſpectively acquired; which treaty was in like manner guaranty'd by the Queen of Great Britain. 1714.

1715. The Portugueſe ſend a ſquadron to the aſſiſtance of the Venetians.

The war between the Confederates and the French was ſcarce ended, when another was begun between the Turks and Venetians, in which the latter loſt the Morea. The Portugueſe aſſiſted the Pope and the Venetians with a ſquadron of men of war, and the Spaniards promiſed another ſquadron, but employed them afterwards in the reduction of Sardinia; ſo that the Turks were maſters at ſea during the whole courſe of the war, and were very near making themſelves maſters of the iſland of Corfu: but the Emperor gaining two conſiderable victories over the infidels by land, and taking Temeſwaer and Belgrade, the Turks were glad to accept of peace, being permitted however to retain their conqueſts in the Morea, whereby the Venetians loſt great part of their territories on the Terra Firma, while the

Imperialiſts kept poſſeſſion of their conqueſts, which they had extended upwards of an hundred miles into the enemy's country.

A Patriarch in Portugal.

The readineſs the Portugueſe had ſhewn in reinforcing the Venetian fleet, and defending the coaſts of Italy in the late war with the Turks, probably induced his Holineſs to oblige his Portugueſe Majeſty in dividing the Archbiſhoprick of Liſbon, and erecting the chapel royal into a patriarchal and metropolitical church; ever ſince which, the city of Liſbon has been divided into two grand diſtricts, the one called Eaſt, and the other Weſt Liſbon.

Don Emanuel the King's brother, leaves the kingdom.

Don EMANUEL, brother to the King of Portugal, having privately withdrawn himſelf from that court about this time, went on board a ſhip and ſailed to Holland. He afterwards entered into the Emperor's ſervice againſt the Turks; nor did he return again to Liſbon till the year 1726. His Portugueſe Majeſty, ſo ſoon as he had notice that Don EMANUEL was gone, prevailed on the Captain of an Engliſh man of war to purſue the ſhip he was in; but the veſſel being two days ſail before the Engliſh Captain, he was obliged to return back without him. The reaſon of this Prince's leaving the court ſo abruptly, was ſaid to be to prevent his being forced to enter into orders; for it was uſual formerly, both in the courts of Spain and Portugal, to procure ſome eccleſiaſtical preferment for the Princes of the blood, whereby they were eaſily maintained at the charge of the Church, and rendered in a great meaſure incapable of forming deſigns againſt the State.

Academies of ſciences eſtabliſhed.

Portugal now remaining in a profound peace, the King, in imitation of France and other polite nations, thought fit to eſtabliſh academies for the improvement of arts and ſciences, having a particular regard to hiſtory, in which that people have made great advances of late years; though the court of inquiſition, which dreads nothing more than the reſcuing the nation from ignorance and ſuperſtition, has been a great obſtacle in their way: Truth is an hereſy which thoſe pious fathers ever proſecute with the greateſt rage.

1722. Two Engliſh merchants condemned for exporting gold.

I don't meet with any thing elſe remarkable in Portugal till the year 1722, unleſs it be the arrival of their fleets from India and Brazil annually, with vaſt treaſures of gold and ſilver on board, beſides other rich merchandizes; but this year I find two Britiſh merchants, Mr. WINGFIELD and Mr. ROBERTS, proſecuted at Liſbon, and condemned to die, for exporting gold to England, which it ſeems is capital by the laws of Portugal: however, upon the interpoſition of Mr. WORSELY, the Britiſh Envoy, and the court of Great Britain, they were pardoned and their effects reſtored them. But ſince it is ſo very hazardous to export gold from Portugal to England, it is ſomething ſtrange that we meet with ſo much Portugueſe gold here as we do.

1723. An earthquake.

In the month of December 1723, there happened a terrible earthquake in the province or kingdom of Algarva, which though it laſted but three minutes, did incredible miſchief: they relate, that ſeveral towns were demoliſhed, and a river entirely ſwallowed up for ſome hours, by the gaping of the earth.

1724. A company for ſupplying Brazil with ſlaves.

A company was erected in Portugal in the year 1724, compoſed of men of quality and fortunes, for ſupplying their ſettlements in Brazil with Negroes; to whom his Majeſty granted the ſpace of two hundred miles and upwards on the coaſt of Africa, for the purchaſing of ſlaves; prohibiting the Portugueſe, or any other nation, to trade within thoſe limits.

The ſame year Don MIGUEL and Don JOSEPH, two baſe ſons of his late Portugueſe Majeſty, whom he had naturalized, croſſing the river of Liſbon with their attendants in a boat, were overſet by a ſudden guſt of wind: Don JOSEPH had the good fortune to ſave himſelf by getting upon the keel, but his brother and moſt of the ſervants were drowned.

A great ſtorm.

In the ſame river on the nineteenth of November this year, aroſe ſuch a violent ſtorm about ſix in the evening, that before eight, ſixty ſhips were driven on ſhore, of which twenty were rendered unfit for ſea; all the wharfs of Liſbon were damaged by the ſtorm, and the cuſtom-houſe-key, with the goods upon it, was waſhed away: the houſes of Liſbon ſuffered very much, and moſt of the churches loſt their ſteeples or towers: the havock in the neighbouring country is inexpreſſible; many houſes were blown down, and almoſt all the trees that ſtood expoſed to the wind torn up by the roots.

Priſoners in the inquiſition allowed counſel.

The court of Rome, to the ſurprize of the Inquiſitors in Portugal, was about this time pleaſed to order, that the priſoners in the inquiſition ſhould be allowed counſel and ſollicitors to defend them, as in other courts; whereupon thoſe fathers had the aſſurance to libel his Holineſs moſt unmercifully.

A diſpute of another nature happened about the ſame time between the courts of France and Liſbon. It ſeems the Abbot DE LIVRY, the French Ambaſſador at Liſbon, inſiſted that the Secretary of State, who is uſually prime Miniſter in that Kingdom, ſhould pay his Excellency the firſt viſit; which the Secretary refuſing to comply with, the Ambaſſador was ordered to leave Liſbon, without having an audience of his Portugueſe Majeſty.

Double marriage between Spain and Portugal.

In December 1727, a contract of marriage was ſigned between Don JOSEPH, Prince of Brazil, and the eldeſt Infanta of Spain, Donna MARIA-ANNA-VICTORIA, (formerly contracted to LEWIS XV, of France;) and a few days after another contract of marriage was concluded between Don FERDINAND, Prince of the Aſturias, and Donna MARIA, Infanta of Portugal; and on the twenty-ſeventh of January following, the ceremony of the eſpouſals of the laſt couple was performed at Madrid, the King of Spain repreſenting the Prince of Brazil here, as the King of Portugal did the Prince of Aſturias in the other that was celebrated at Liſbon the ſixth of the ſame month.

1728. Diſputes between the court of Rome and Portugal.

About the ſame time there aroſe warm diſputes between the courts of Rome and Portugal, on the Pope's refuſing to give a Cardinal's cap to Monſieur BICHI, who had reſided ſome time as Nuntio in Portugal, and ſhewn more complaiſance for his Portugueſe Majeſty than for his Holineſs; and the contention grew ſo hot at length, that it was expected the King of Portugal would have thrown off the Pope's ſupremacy; for he actually prohibited all the Clergy of his dominions, to apply any more to the Datary of Rome for their Bulls of confirmation, &c. The Patriarch of Liſbon gave diſpenſations for marriages, and final judgment in all eccleſiaſtical cauſes which were brought before him by way of appeal. The King ſet many of the priſoners in the inquiſition at liberty, and prohibited the inquiſitors to proceed in any cauſe without the concurrence of commiſſioners appointed by his Majeſty: which ſteps ſo alarmed the court of Rome, that I am informed means have been found to ſoften his Portugueſe Majeſty's reſentment and prevent his throwing off the Pope's ſupremacy.

1729. The double marriages ſolemnized in perſon.

About the middle of January 1728-9, the exchange of the contracted Princeſſes above named being agreed on, the King and Queen of Spain, with the royal families and a vaſt retinue, came to Badajoz, as the King and Queen of Portugal, with their court, did to Elvas. Theſe cities are on the confines of the two kingdoms, which are ſeparated by the little river Caya, that runs from north to ſouth, and falls into the Guadiana near Badajoz. A building was erected on the Caya, having one large door on the ſide of Spain, and another on the ſide of Portugal. At one and the ſame inſtant the King of Spain entered the eaſtern door, as the King of Portugal did that on the weſt, with their reſpective royal families. After reciprocal compliments, and hearing the articles of both marriages read, the King of Portugal and his party took the Princeſs of Brazil, and returned to Elvas, where the Prince and Princeſs of Brazil ſolemnized their marriage in perſon the ſame evening. The King of Spain alſo having received the Princeſs of the Aſturias of her father, returned to Badajoz, where the Prince and Princeſs of Aſturias celebrated their marriage alſo in perſon that evening.

The two Kings, their Queens, the Princes and Princeſſes, had two interviews afterwards at the houſe of exchange, viz. on the twenty-third and twenty-fifth of January, at the laſt of which they took leave of each other, and returned to their reſpective capitals, where rejoicings were made ſuitable to the occaſion. At the return of the King and royal family to Liſbon, all the ſtreets through which they paſſed were hung with tapeſtry, and there were no leſs than twenty triumphal arches erected there, five of which were prepared at the expence of the Engliſh, French, Dutch and Hamburgh merchants, the other fifteen being erected at the charges of the ſeveral companies of tradeſmen, and the King's officers. That of the Engliſh was far the moſt magnificent, in which they laid out above two thouſand pounds ſterling. The coaches, moſt of which belonged to the nobility, were eighty-four in number, the greateſt part of them covered with embroidered velvet, trimmed with gold fringe, and one of them was of maſſy ſilver, adorned with jewels. The rejoicings continued three days ſucceſſively, and every evening fire works were played off, and ſome days after the people were entertained with a bull-feaſt. And here I ſhall take an opportunity of giving ſome account of the royal family of Portugal.

The preſent royal family.

His preſent Majeſty, King JOHN V, was born the twenty-ſecond of October 1689, and ſucceeded his father in January 1707. He married MARY-ANNE of Auſtria, the daughter of the late Emperor LEOPOLD, and ſiſter of the preſent Emperor CHARLES, on the twenty-ſeventh of October 1708, by whom he had iſſue, 1. MARY-MAGDALEN-JOSEPHA-TERESA-BARBA, born the fourth of December 1711, and married to the Prince of Aſturias as above related. 2. Don PEDRO, born the nineteenth of October 1712, who died the twenty-ninth of October 1714. 3. Don JOSEPH-PEDRO-JOHN-LEWIS, the preſent Prince of Brazil, born the ninth of June 1715, and married to the Infanta of Spain anno 1729, as above. 4. Don CARLOS, born the ſecond of May 1716. 5. Don——— born the fifth of July 1717. 6. Don ALEXANDER, born anno 1724, who died in 1728: and another Infanta ſtill living, the time of whoſe birth I do not meet with. His Portugueſe Majeſty has ſtill three brothers living, viz. Don ANTONIO, Don FRANCISCO, and Don EMANUEL, the laſt of whom loſt the King's favour on his retiring out of the kingdom without his conſent, as has been related above, and though he obtained his pardon, is not yet reſtored to full favour.

CHAP. X.

Treats of the civil government of Portugal, the prerogatives and ſucceſſion of the crown; the King's titles, arms, revenues, and forces.

CHAP. X. The court of Liſbon reſembles that of Madrid.

THE civil government of Portugal ſo exactly reſembles that of Spain already treated of, that there will be occaſion to ſay little on this head. The Court of Liſbon affects to conform it ſelf to that of Madrid, or rather to ſhew that ſhe is in no way inferior to her neighbour. Others obſerve, that the Kings of Portugal do in reality look upon themſelves as the only rightful Sovereigns of all Spain, and therefore chuſe to imitate the cuſtoms of that country; they affirm that the females of Caſtile cannot transfer the ſucceſſion to a foreign Prince by marriage, and conſequently the Princes of the houſe of Portugal, who are not deemed foreigners, ought to have ſucceeded to the crown of Spain, when the male branch in that kingdom became extinct. But to proceed.

The court of Portugal as well as Spain became abſolute by purchaſing the leading men in the Cortes or three Eſtates.

The King of Portugal, as well as the King of Spain, is looked upon to be an abſolute Prince: the Cortes, or three Eſtates, having long ſince ſold their part in the legiſlature to the crown, and only ſerve to confirm or record ſuch acts of ſtate as the court reſolves upon, to declare the next heir to the crown when the King is pleaſed to nominate him, or to ratify treaties with foreign Princes who ſtill eſteem their conſent of any weight. The courts of Spain and Portugal for many years have kept their people in ſubjection by purchaſing their leaders; which was the reaſon, that though the revenues of each crown were very conſiderable, the ſtate in both nations was very poor. But ſince King PHILIP V aſcended the throne of Spain, and that court has been governed by French counſels, the ſalaries of abundance of officers, and a multitude of penſions, have been ſtruck off; and that Prince, in imitation of his grandfather LEWIS XIV, has of late years tyrannized over the nobility as well as the commons by the aſſiſtance of a ſtanding army, and entirely deprived every province in that kingdom of their liberties and privileges. This reformation, as it is ſtiled in the court of Spain, has not yet been imitated in that of Portugal; great part of the revenues of this crown are ſtill diſtributed among the Nobility and Grandees, which renders the government as well as the people exceeding poor and neceſſitous, though the King conſidered in his private capacity may be very rich.

A rich court, but a poor ſtate.

The publick revenues.

The cuſtoms and duties on goods exported and imported are a conſiderable part of the publick revenues, and are uſually farmed out by the crown from three years to three years. Theſe duties are

Cuſtoms very high.

very high in Portugal, and could not be advanced without the utter ruin of the people. Foreign merchandizes pay twenty-three per cent. on importation, and fiſh from Newfoundland twenty-five per cent. Fiſh taken in the neighbouring ſeas and rivers pay forty-ſeven per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are ſold is ten per cent. The duty on ſnuff alone amounts to fifty thouſand crowns. Beſides which the King draws a conſiderable revenue from the ſeveral orders of Knighthood, of which he is Grand Maſter. And the Pope, in conſideration of the large ſums he draws out of this kingdom on other accounts, gives the King the money ariſing by ſeveral bulls from the Holy See; as thoſe for granting indulgences, licences to eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c. And it is computed that the royal revenues, clear of all penſions and ſalaries, may amount to three millions five hundred thouſand crowns. The nobility are not taxed but upon extraordinary emergencies, and then not very high.

Naval force.

From all which it may very well be preſumed, that the Portugueſe are not able to raiſe great fleets and armies: If they have five and twenty men of war of the line they are ſcarce able to man or pay them, and a ſquadron of Engliſh or Dutch of half the number would not be afraid to engage them. They ſerve chiefly for convoys to their Brazil fleets, and are very often uſed as merchant-ſhips to import goods or treaſure from thence.

Land-forces.

As to their troops on ſhore, that ſerve to gariſon their wretched frontier towns, they may amount to fourteen or fifteen thouſand men; but ſuch a miſerable militia ſure were never ſeen, half ſtarved, and not half cloathed. In the late war you might ſee them begging an alms of a common ſoldier belonging to their confederates the Engliſh and Dutch; and yet ſo intolerably proud were theſe poor deſpicable creatures, that they inſiſted on taking the right of the Engliſh, and commanding their Generals; every Governor of a province had the command of the Engliſh and Dutch troops that happened to ſerve within his juriſdiction, though the Allies paid both their own troops and the Portugueſe; which was the occaſion of innumerable loſſes and diſgraces on that ſide. For the Portugueſe, after the war had continued eight or ten years, proved to be the ſame unſkilful cowardly militia they were at firſt, conſtantly run away at the firſt charge, eſpecially their horſe, and ſuffered the Engliſh or Dutch to be cut in pieces or made priſoners: ſuch bleſſed confederates did they prove in the late war. Nor were the Spaniards much better troops till a French Prince aſcended the throne; but they have of late been ſo well diſciplined, cloathed and paid, that they are not only much ſuperior to thoſe of Portugal, but perhaps at preſent equal to any ſoldiers in Europe. The Portugueſe were above being inſtructed in military diſcipline by the Allies, but King PHILIP obliged his officers to conform themſelves to the French in this particular more than any other: And as the Spaniſh foot are better bodies of men, more abſtemious, and endued with more patience, poſſibly they may at this day be an over-match for their maſters the French, ſuppoſing the numbers equal.

Intereſt of Portugal to live at peace with all nations.

It ſeems therefore to be the intereſt of Portugal always to remain in peace with Spain; ſhould the French or the Maritime Powers engage in their behalf, it might be difficult to prevent their being made a province to Spain again in caſe a war ſhould break out between thoſe two crowns, the Spaniards being ſo much improved of late years, and the Portuguſe ſo much ſunk in their courage, diſcipline and conduct. And they will certainly avoid falling out with the French and the Maritime Powers, who might any of them cut off their communication with Brazil, Africa and the Indies, from whence their gold and other rich merchandizes are imported.

The intereſt of the Maritime Powers and the French to be at peace with Spain and Portugal.

On the other hand, it can never be to the advantage of England, France, or the States-General, to be in a ſtate of war either with Spain or Portugal, which take off ſo much of the manufactures of their reſpective countries. It is indeed the intereſt of each of theſe powers that the other ſhould be in no good terms with Spain and Portugal, for what the one loſes in this commerce the other gains; if the Engliſh do not ſerve the Spaniards and Portugueſe with woollen manufactures, the French and Dutch will, though perhaps much worſe, or at a dearer rate; nay, theſe nations will buy our goods, and get a larger gain by ſelling them to Spain and Portugal, and their American plantations and ſettlements, than we do by the firſt ſale of them. We ought therefore to be exceeding cautious how we quarrel with theſe two nations, eſpecially at this time, when they ſeem to be ſo firmly united by double marriages; and if we fall out with one, we muſt fall out with both:

Danger to Britain from the union of the French and Spaniards in America.

It ought to be conſidered farther, that the French having of late taken poſſeſſion of Florida, to which they have given the name of Louiſiana, and being before maſters of Canada or New France, they now lie on the back of all our American plantations and ſettlements from Carolina in the ſouth to Nova Scotia on the north, and by the aſſiſtance of the Spaniards and the Indians, their friends, may, and probably will, in time deprive us of our ſettlements there, and ruin our plantation trade, if we have not our eyes about us.

Territories ſubject to Portugal.

I ſhall conclude this head with enumerating the ſeveral countries, territories and iſlands that are ſubject to the crown of Portugal, which, beſides thoſe of Portugal and Algarva, already deſcribed, are, the country of Brazil in America: A vaſt tract of land, extending along the ſea-coaſts of South America, but not of equal breadth; much the moſt conſiderable of all their foreign plantations at preſent, as it yields them great quantities of gold, tobacco, ſugars, cotton, ginger, indigo, hides, and other valuable merchandize. In Africa they have the fortreſs of Maſagan, in the kingdom of Morocco; part of the Guinea coaſt; Angola on the coaſt of Congo; with the iſlands of Loanda, Villa de San Pao, Zofala on the Caffra coaſt; Zanguebar, Mozambick and Quiloa on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa. And in the Atlantick Ocean they have the weſtern iſlands of Azores or Terceras, that of Madera, the iſlands of Cape Verde, and others of leſs note. In Aſia they ſtill poſſeſs Goa, Diu, Daman and Chaul on the coaſt of India, with a large extent of country, and the iſland of Macao on the ſouthern coaſt of China; the laſt of which is now under the dominion of the Chineſe, though inhabited chiefly by the Portugueſe.

The empire of the Portugueſe in Aſia and Africa 150 years ago.

And here I cannot but obſerve what a noble empire the Portugueſe poſſeſſed in Aſia and Africa about an hundred and fifty years ago: They were maſters of Ormus and the Perſian Gulph; of all the coaſts of India, Siam and Malacca; of the ſea-coaſts on the iſlands of Sumatra, Java and Ceylon; of the iſlands of Moluccas and Banda, where the fine ſpices only grow. They had planted their religion in the iſlands of Japan, and made ſuch numbers of proſelytes there, that the Sovereigns of that country were apprehenſive of a general revolt of their ſubjects; which occaſioned the extirpation of the Portugueſe and of the Chriſtian religion in thoſe iſlands. They had planted their religion alſo throughout the vaſt empire of China, and might have maintained it there, had not the Jeſuits interfered with them, and occaſioned their falling under the diſpleaſure of that court. There are now indeed no remains of Chriſtianity to be found in Japan, the Portugueſe intereſt is loſt in China, and the Dutch have expelled them from all their valuable ſettlements on the continent and iſlands in Aſia, except Goa and two or three inconſiderable places. But they were ſo long poſſeſſed of the trade of theſe countries, and had ſuch numerous ſettlements here, that we find their language, with ſome corruption, ſtill prevailing on the ſea-coaſts of the continent and iſlands of Aſia, and a mixed breed of Portugueſe and Indians, who ſtill imitate thoſe of Europe in their religion, habits and cuſtoms; and they ſtill have their Biſhops and Clergy in thoſe parts, who are permitted to exerciſe their functions under many of the Indian Sovereigns. On the eaſtern and weſtern coaſts of Africa alſo their religion and language are every where to be met with; tho' the Dutch it is true are now maſters of the beſt diſcoveries on the weſtern coaſt, and the Portugueſe have very little power in that part of the world. Their King indeed ſtill calls himſelf Sovereign of all the vaſt dominions I have enumerated, which brings me to mention his ſtile and titles; which are.

The King's titles.

JOHN V, by the grace of God King of Portugal and the Algarvas on this ſide: And beyond the ſea in Africk Lord of Guinea; and of the navigation, conqueſt, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, India, Brazil, &c.

Arms.

The arms of Portugal are, Argent, five eſcutcheons, Azure, placed croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many beſants of the firſt, placed ſaltierwiſe, and pointed Sable, for Portugal. The ſhield bordered Gules charged with ſeven towers, Or, three in chief and two in each flanch. The creſt is a crown, Or, under the two flanches, and the baſe of the ſhield appears at the end of it; two croſſes, the firſt Flower de Luce Verte, which is for the order of Avis, and the ſecond Pattee Gules, for the order of Chriſt. The motto is changeable, each King aſſuming a new one, but it is frequently theſe words, *Pro Rege & Grege*, i. e. *For the King and the People*.

The great Officers of State being the ſame as in Spain, I ſhall not trouble the reader with a tedious account of them, or of the ſeveral degrees of nobility, in which the kingdom of Portugal exactly reſembles that of Spain.

Orders of Knighthood.

The orders of Knighthood are, 1. That of Avis, ſo called from a town of that name near Ebroa, founded by ALPHONSUS I, anno 1146, to honour thoſe who diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the wars againſt the Moors. 2. The order of Chriſt, founded on the ſame account by DIONYSIUS, ſon of ALPHONSUS III, anno 1319, upon the abolition of the Knights Templars. 3. The order of St. James, being the ſame with that in Spain. And, 4. The Knights of St. John.

Councils and Courts of judicature.

They have ſeveral Councils or Courts eſtabliſhed for ſeveral branches of buſineſs; as the Council of State, which takes cognizance of all matters foreign or domeſtick which relates to the State. 2. The Council, called the Deſembargo do Paco, which receives appeals from all inferior courts, and has alſo a power of enacting, repealing and altering the laws. 3. The Court of Treaſury, or Da Fazenda. 4. The Council for foreign affairs, which determines all matters relating to the foreign plantations. 5. The Council of War, which takes cognizance of all military affairs and operations by ſea or land. 6. The Caſa dos Contos, which court has the juriſdiction of all officers and others concerned in collecting or farming the publick revenues. Beſides theſe, they have two ſupreme courts for civil affairs, the one eſtabliſhed at Liſbon, and the other at Porto. Tho' as the kingdom is divided into twenty-four Comarca's or diſtricts, each Comarca has it's peculiar Judges for civil and criminal cauſes, and every conſiderable town it's Regidor, Corregidor, or Alcaid, as in Spain. But the Viceroy or Governor of each province preſides in all the courts within his juriſdiction, and is the ſupreme civil as well as military officer there. There is alſo a Viceroy of Goa in the Eaſt-Indies, and another of Brazil in America, who are inveſted with almoſt regal power.

CHAP. XI.

Treats of the religion and eccleſiaſtical government in Spain and Portugal; and of their univerſities, laws and language.

CHAP. XI.

Chriſtianity planted in Spain and Portugal by the Apoſtles.

THE Chriſtian religion it is evident both from ſacred and prophane hiſtory was planted in Spain in the time of the Apoſtles themſelves; but it is not altogether ſo certain that St. JAMES Major was of the number of thoſe who preached the Goſpel to that people, notwithſtanding the Spaniards look upon him to be the founder of their Church, and have written as many treatiſes to prove the ſeveral voyages he made thither, and the miracles he wrought amongſt them, as would fill a moderate library. But whoever firſt preached the Goſpel here, met with ſuch ſucceſs, that the whole nation almoſt was ſoon converted to Chriſtianity; and they reckon up no leſs than forty-nine Biſhops in the reign of CONSTANTINE. Their eccleſiaſtical hiſtorians however lament that this, as well as other Chriſtian churches, was early infected with Arianiſm; and that the Goths alſo were Arians, who made a conqueſt of Spain in the fifth century; tho' they became orthodox ſome little time after. But what Doctor GEDDES ſeems to have demonſtrated is ſtill more ſurprizing, viz. that the church of Spain never had acknowledged the ſupremacy of the Pope or Biſhop of Rome, when the Moors made a conqueſt of this country in the year 714. He proves alſo that the adoration of images, praying to angels and ſaints, purgatory, the doctrine of the ſeven ſacraments, tranſubſtantiation, the denying the cup in the ſacrament to the people, private maſſes, the adoration of the ſacrament, the prieſt's putting the bread into the mouths of the communicants, being preſent at the celebration of the ſacrament, and not communicating, and auricular confeſſion, to be doctrines and practices not known in the Spaniſh church in the beginning of the eighth century, when it was diſperſed by the Moors conqueſt of Spain; and that the Spaniſh Kings had an eccleſiaſtical ſupremacy equal to that which is now in the crown of England: That when the Biſhop of Rome did in the beginning of the eighth century firſt attempt to introduce his ſupremacy

The Spaniſh Church infected with Arianiſm.

But never acknowledged the Pope's ſupremacy for the firſt 800 years.

Or was tainted with the Errors of the Roman Catholicks into Spain, that ſupremacy was rejected and condemned by the Spaniſh church in a Council of all her Biſhops.

The modern ſtate of religion in Spain and Portugal.

I proceed now to enquire into the modern ſtate of religion in theſe kingdoms of Spain and Portugal, which is properly my province; and every one knows that the Spaniards and Portugueſe at this day profeſs themſelves to be of that ſect or perſuaſion of Chriſtians that are uſually denominated Roman Catholicks.

The title of Catholick King.

Devotion of the people.

Penances.

Lent.

The title of Catholick King, it is ſaid, was firſt given to their Princes, by the Council held at Toledo in the year 590, when RECAREDUS the Gothick King of Spain renounced the Arian hereſy, with all his people. And that title, after it had lain dormant about nine hundred years, was again revived by Pope ALEXANDER VI, and conferred on King FERDINAND about the year 1500, in conſideration of the ſervices he had done the Holy See in deſtroying the empire of the Moors in Spain; and his ſucceſſors have enjoyed that title ever ſince; with a great deal of reaſon, as my author apprehends, no Princes having ſhewn more zeal for popery than the Kings of Spain and Portugal, who have ſuffered the Inquiſition to reign, or rather rage, in their territories for ſo many years. Nor are the people leſs devoted to their religion than their Sovereigns: It is not uncommon for the women, it is ſaid, to reſort to the churches or chapels ſeven or eight times a day; though their enemies ſuggeſt that this proceeds rather from an inclination to ramble abroad and meet their gallants than out of pure devotion, that ſex being in a manner priſoners to the other, and never ſuffered to ſtir abroad unleſs to prayers. None of the Saints, and even God himſelf does not ſeem to have a greater ſhare of their devotion than the bleſſed Virgin; not a man but carries about him a ſcapulary or image of the Virgin, which has touched ſome ſhrine of hers that is held to have a power of working miracles. They are much taken with the pomp and ſhew obſerved in their divine worſhip, and that profuſion of wealth that appears in the furniſhing and adorning their churches; and they apprehend they merit by afflicting and tormenting themſelves. In the holy week before Eaſter they practiſe great auſterities; ſome will procure themſelves to be faſtned to a croſs in their ſhirts, with their arms extended in imitation of our Saviour, uttering the moſt diſmal groans and lamentations: Others will walk with naked feet over rocks and mountains to ſome diſtant ſhrine to perform their devotions. During Lent they eat nothing but the entrails of beaſts, as they do on Wedneſdays and Fridays all the year inſtead of fiſh, at Madrid, and ſuch other parts of the country where fiſh are not to be had. At this holy ſeaſon we find Friars and Prieſts in all the great ſtreets and publick places preaching to the people, applying themſelves rather to their paſſions and affections than their reaſon: The Preacher frequently beats his breaſt and weeps, and the croud imitate him; and he is eſteemed the beſt Preacher who by his whining and lamentations can produce the greateſt floods of tears. On Good-Friday annually there is a ſermon preached to common ſtrumpets at Madrid, who are dragged out of their lodgings to hear ſome Friar preach repentance to them; who if he thinks his arguments have no effect upon them, deſcends from his pulpit and preſents a crucifix to them, ſaying, Behold your Saviour and embrace him; and thoſe who are willing to leave their infamous courſes will kiſs and embrace it: After which theſe creatures are either ſent to ſome nunnery, or married to people that are not very nice in their choice; but the greateſt part of them uſually are obſtinate, and chuſe to follow their former courſe of life.

Proceſſions during Lent.

Solemn proceſſions are frequent among the Spaniards and Portugueſe, but the moſt conſiderable is that on Good-Friday, when all the religious orders attend, with the members of the tribunals, councils, and companies of tradeſmen in their cities, and even the King himſelf ſometimes, attended by all his Court, with wax-torches in their hands. The nobility and perſons of diſtinction are followed by their ſervants with lighted flambeaux; every thing has a mournful air; the King's guards have their arms and drums covered with black, and beat a dead march, as at the funeral of ſome General; the trumpets and other muſical inſtruments ſound diſmally, and all the colours and croſſes are covered with black crape; machines and pageants are erected, whereon all the parts of our Saviour's paſſion are repreſented: True penitents in theſe proceſſions laſh and cut themſelves unmercifully, hoping to take heaven by this holy violence on themſelves; while others, it is ſaid, are no leſs ſevere on their naked bodies, to ſhew their paſſions for their miſtreſſes, all the ladies in the place ſtanding in the balconies to ſee the proceſſion. But this is ſuch a piece of gallantry as I believe was ſcarce ever heard of in a Proteſtant country. There are other penitents who drag heavy croſſes after them, and perform other grievous penances, and theſe, people of quality maſked, and attended by their ſervants likewiſe maſked, who ſupport and aſſiſt them in their dolorous paſſage; for ſome, it is ſaid, have loſt their lives by overacting their parts. Nor is it uncommon to begin theſe exerciſes a fortnight or three weeks before Eaſter, and continue them every Wedneſday and Friday at leaſt till that feſtival. At theſe proceſſions in the city of Seville it is not uncommon to ſee five or ſix hundred ſuch penitents, who have the reputation of chaſtiſing themſelves more roughly than thoſe of Madrid: Other towns endeavour to imitate theſe great cities; and it is ſaid, the ladies of Liſbon will be offended if the men ſeem to favour themſelves, and do not obſerve the blood follow the whip: For the devotion of theſe gentlemen, whether it be directed to heaven, or their miſtreſſes, is ſuppoſed to be proportionable to the wounds and laſhes they receive from their own hands.

Proceſſions on the grand feſtivals.

Theſe are the exerciſes of the devout Spaniards and Portugueſe on days of faſting and humiliation; but on great feſtivals and rejoicing days the ſcene is very different; for then they expoſe the richeſt ſhrines, and all the treaſures of their churches, to publick view: They are dreſſed in their beſt habits, and there are people that play on muſical inſtruments, and dance in the proceſſions, and before their images; but here alſo in the hotteſt weather, when the ſun ſhines out in it's full brightneſs, they carry lighted torches in their hands, which, together with the ſun-beams over their heads, almoſt melt the ſuperſtitious croud. The balconies and windows are hung with tapeſtry, &c. and the ladies dreſſed in their richeſt clothes and jewels, are permitted to ſtand and ſee the proceſſion without a lattice before them; and upon theſe occaſions it is, that the young inamorato's of both ſexes have an opportunity of ſhewing themſelves, and diſcovering their paſſion to the greateſt advantage; for, as has been intimated already, VENUS and CUPID in theſe hot countries ſeem to have as many adorers as any Saint amongſt them, many of them frequenting their churches and proceſſions chiefly to have an opportunity of carrying on their amours.

Religious plays.

Their feſtivals uſually conclude with a play wretchedly acted, containing a repreſentation of the life and actions of ſome real or pretended Saints, taken from their legends, wherein they uſe even our Bleſſed Saviour with great familiarity, and ſeem calculated rather to ridicule than promote Chriſtianity.

Eccleſiaſtical government.

The Eccleſiaſtical government here does not differ much from that of other Roman Catholick countries. The Kings of Spain and Portugal, by a grant of the Popes, nominate to all Archbiſhopricks and Biſhopricks; of which there are in Spain eight Archbiſhopricks and thirty-eight Biſhopricks: And in Portugal three Archbiſhopricks and ten Biſhopricks, as appears by the table at the end of this chapter.

Inquiſition.

The Inquiſition reigns here, it muſt be confeſſed, with a more uncontroulable power than in any other kingdom or ſtate. It was firſt inſtituted in the thirteenth century, for ſuppreſſing the hereſy of the Vaudois and Albigenſes, as 'twas called; and was received in Spain about the year 1557, in the reign of King FERDINAND and Queen ISABELLA, in order to awe the new-converted Jews and Moors, and keep them from relapſing into their former infidelity. It was eſtabliſhed in Portugal for the ſame end about the year 1523, in the reign of King JOHN III. It is called, The Holy Office, and the Holy Houſe; and conſiſts of an Inquiſitor-General, the Supreme Council, Inquiſitors, Aſſeſſors, Qualificators, a Secretary, an Advocate-Fiſcal, a Treaſurer, Familiars and Goalers.

All men ſubject to it.

The Inquiſitor-General is named by the King, and confirmed by the Pope, acting as his delegate: His juriſdiction is ſo abſolute and extenſive, that no ſubject is exempted from it; the members of the ſupreme Court or Council are all named by him, but approved by the King before they can act, and are uſually Secular Prieſts; and their Aſſeſſors, Divines, Civilians and Canoniſts, with whom they adviſe. The Qualificators are employed in reviſing and altering books that are publiſhed, and are uſually Dominican Friars. The Secretary is properly the Regiſter; and the Advocate-Fiſcal the Attorney or Proſecutor. The Treaſurer takes into his cuſtody all the priſoner's goods and perſonal eſtate when he is apprehended; and the Familiars are properly the ſerjeants and bailiffs belonging to this office; tho' the nobility and perſons of the beſt quality uſually enter themſelves of the number of Familiars, as it is a protection againſt the civil Magiſtrate, and entitles them to the ſame plenary indulgences as perſons engaged in a cruſade againſt infidels and enemies of the Chriſtian name. It is computed that theſe amount to upwards of twenty thouſand in Spain alone. As to the Alguazils or Goalers, they are forbidden to permit their priſoners to ſend to their friends, or receive any manner of ſupport or intelligence from them, or indeed to converſe with any mortal but their tormentors. The Inquiſitors and their officers take an oath never to diſcover any thing tranſacted in that court, and puniſh nothing more ſeverely than the breach of that oath. As theſe Courts of Inquiſition in a great meaſure deprive the Biſhops of their juriſdiction, they are entitled to ſome privileges in lieu of it: As firſt, their being exempted themſelves from the authority of this Court; and, 2. Their concurrence ought to be obtained, before any perſon belonging to their reſpective dioceſes is condemned. But theſe proviſions are not much regarded of late; Biſhops have been confined to their houſes on ſuſpicion of hereſy, till the Pope's licence has been obtained to proceed againſt them; and where Biſhops have refuſed to conſent to the condemnation of a priſoner, the Court of Inquiſition has paſſed ſentence without them.

The manner of proſecuting thoſe who are apprehended by the Inquiſition.

This Court proceeds in a ſummary way on an information brought by any perſon whatever: If the informer names any witneſſes beſides himſelf, they are ſent for privately, and before they are examined take an oath not to diſcover to any perſon their having been with the Inquiſitors, nor to ſpeak of any thing they ſay, ſaw or heard within that Court.

All people, tho' never ſo infamous, and tho' they ſtand convicted of perjury, are, in favour of the faith, and in deteſtation of hereticks, admitted by the Inquiſition to be witneſſes; mortal enemies only excepted.

This exception is of little benefit to the priſoner, by reaſon of his not knowing who they are that have informed and witneſſed againſt him.

The depoſitions of the informer and witneſſes, if there be any, being thus privately taken, a Familiar is ſent for, and being come, he has the following order put into his hands.

By the command of the Reverend Father N. and Inquiſitor of heretical pravity, let N. be apprehended and committed to the priſons of this Holy Office, and out of which he ſhall not be releaſed, but by the expreſs order of the ſaid reverend Inquiſitor.

If ſeveral perſons are to be taken up at the ſame time, the Familiars are commanded ſo to order things, that they may know nothing of one another's being apprehended; and at this the Familiars are ſo expert, that a father and his three ſons and three daughters, who lived together at the ſame houſe, were all carried priſoners to the Inquiſition, without knowing any thing of one another's being there, until ſeven years afterwards, when they that were alive came forth in an Act of the Faith.

The priſoner being apprehended, and carried with all poſſible ſecrecy to the Inquiſition, is delivered to the Goaler.

The priſons of the Inquiſition are little dark rooms, and which have no other furniture but a hard quilt and a uſeful pot. The priſoners are not ſuffered to ſee any perſon beſides their keeper, who brings them their diet, and with it a lighted lamp, which burns about half an hour; neither muſt their keeper, without leave from the Inquiſitors, entertain any diſcourſe with them.

After the priſoner has ſpent two or three days and nights in his melancholy apartment, he is carried by his keeper before the Inquiſitors, who before they aſk him any queſtion, make him take an oath to return true anſwers to all their interrogatories; and if he has ever been guilty of any hereſy, to confeſs it to them.

The firſt queſtion the priſoner is aſked, is, Whether he knows why he was taken up by the Inquiſition? And if he anſwers that he does not know, he is then aſked, Whether he knows for what crimes the Inquiſition uſed to impriſon people? If he anſwers for hereſy, he is admoniſhed upon the oath he has taken to confeſs all his hereſies, and to diſcover all his teachers and complices. If the priſoner denies that he ever held any hereſy, or had ever any communication with any hereticks, he is gravely told, that the Holy Office does not uſe to impriſon people raſhly or without having good grounds for what they do; and that therefore he would do well to confeſs his guilt, and the rather, becauſe the Holy Office, contrary to the cuſtom of all other courts, is ſevere to thoſe that deny, and merciful to all that confeſs their guilt.

If the priſoner perſiſts in denying that he ever held any hereſies, his Goaler is called in and commanded to carry him back to the place from whence he came; and the priſoner is admoniſhed ſtrictly to examine his own conſcience, that the next time they ſend for him he may be prepared to make true and full confeſſion of all his hereſies, teachers and complices. The priſoner having been allowed two or three days more to do this in, he is brought before the Inquiſitors a ſecond time, and is aſked whether he comes prepared to confeſs; and if he anſwers, that he cannot, without accuſing himſelf or others falſly, make any ſuch confeſſion as they deſire of him; they do then aſk him where he was born, and what his parents were, and where he went to ſchool, and who were his ſchool-maſters, and where he has lived all his time, and with whom he has converſed moſt, and who has been his confeſſor, and when he was laſt at confeſſion and at the ſacrament, with twenty more ſuch queſtions. And being told, that they have ſufficient proof of his being a heretick, they command him, ſince he cannot repent of his hereſies unleſs he confeſſeth them all, to go back to his priſon, and there pray to God for grace to diſpoſe him to make a true and full confeſſion, to the ſaving of his ſoul, which is all they ſeek after. And being again allowed two or three days to pray and conſider on what the Inquiſitors have ſaid to him, he is brought before them a third time; and in caſe he perſiſts in pleading not guilty, he is then aſked ſome queſtions concerning the heretical doctrines he ſtands charged withal; for example, whether he believes Chriſt to be bodily preſent in the Sacrament, and that it is lawful to adore images, and to pray to Saints and Angels; and if he affirms that he did always firmly believe theſe and all the other doctrines of the Romiſh Church, he is aſked, if he always believed theſe doctrines, how he came to ſpeak againſt them? and if he denies that he ever did, he is then told, that ſince he is ſo obſtinate in his hereſies, of which they have a ſufficient proof before them, they will order their Advocate-Fiſcal to form his proceſs and to convict him of them. But in caſe the Inquiſitors have not ſufficient evidence, notwithſtanding, to draw a confeſſion from the priſoner, they have told him oftner than once that they had, they then fall a note lower, and tell the priſoner, that though they may not have ſufficient proof of his heretical words and actions to convict him of them, that yet they have ſufficient to put him on the rack to make him confeſs them. And having fixed the day when he is to undergo the tortures, he, when that diſmal day comes, if he does not prevent it by ſuch a confeſſion as is expected from him, is led to the place where the rack is, attended by an Inquiſitor and a publick Notary, who is to write down the anſwers the priſoner returns to the queſtions which ſhall be put to him by the Inquiſitor while he is upon the rack. During the time the executioner is preparing that engine of unſpeakable cruelty, and is taking off the priſoner's clothes to his ſhirt and drawers, the Inquiſitor is ſtill exhorting the priſoner to have compaſſion both on his body and ſoul, and by making a true and full confeſſion of all his hereſies to prevent his being tortured; but if the priſoner ſaith, that he will ſuffer any thing rather than accuſe himſelf or others falſly, the Inquiſitor commands the executioner to do his duty, and to begin the torture; which in the Inquiſition is given by twiſting a ſmall cord hard about the priſoner's naked arms, and hoiſting him up from the ground by an engine to which the cord is faſtned; and as if the miſerable priſoner's hanging in the air by his arms were not torment enough, he has ſeveral quaſſations or ſhakes given him, which is done by ſcrewing up his body higher and letting it down again with a jirk, which disjoints his arms, and after that the torture is much more exquiſite than it was before.

When the priſoner is firſt hoiſted from the ground an hour-glaſs is turned up, and which, if he does not prevent it, by making ſuch a confeſſion of his hereſies as the Inquiſitor that is preſent all the while, and is continually aſking him queſtions, expects from him, muſt run out before he is taken down; to promiſe to make ſuch a confeſſion if they will take him off the rack, not being ſufficient to procure him that mercy, no more than his crying out that he ſhall expire immediately if they do not give him ſome eaſe; that, as the Inquiſitors tell us, being no more than all that are upon the rack do think they are ready to do.

If the priſoner endures the rack without confeſſing any thing, which few or none, though never ſo innocent, are able to do, ſo ſoon as the hour-glaſs is out he is taken down, and carried back to his priſon, where there is a Surgeon ready to put his bones in joint. And though in all our Courts the priſoner's having endured the rack without confeſſing the crimes for which he was tortured, clears him, and makes void all the evidence that was againſt him; yet in the Inquiſition, where whatſoever humanity and right reaſon have eſtabliſhed in favour of the priſoner is left to the diſcretion of the Judge, it is commonly otherwiſe; the priſoners that will not confeſs any thing being uſually racked twice; and if they ſtand it out, though few of them can do that, thrice.

But if the priſoner makes the confeſſion the Inquiſitor expects he ſhould on the rack, it is writ down word for word by the Notary, and is, after the priſoner has had a day or two's reſt, carried to him to ſet his hand to it; which if the priſoner does, it puts an end to his proceſs, the want of ſufficient evidence to have convicted him being abundantly ſupplied by this extorted confeſſion thus ſigned by him. But in caſe the priſoner when it is brought to him refuſeth to ſign it, affirming it to be falſe, and to have been extorted from him by the extremity of the torture, he is then carried to the rack a ſecond time to oblige him to repeat and ſign the ſame confeſſion.

It is a very hard matter for any one that is a priſoner in the Inquiſition for Hereſy to eſcape the rack, ſince neither the profeſſing and maintaining the doctrines to be true wherewith he is charged, nor the denying of them, can ſecure him from it; the firſt being commonly racked to make them diſcover their teachers and accomplices, and the ſecond to oblige them to confeſs their own guilt. And if a priſoner does confeſs his having ſpoke ſome heretical words, but to ſave his eſtate ſtands in his having ſpoke them raſhly and in a paſſion without an heretical mind, he is racked to make him diſcover whether it was ſo or not, or whether his thoughts were not the ſame with his words. If a priſoner either makes no confeſſion at all, or does not confeſs the particular heretical words or facts wherewith he ſtands charged, and with which the Inquiſitors will never acquaint him, he is aſked, whether he has any thing beſides his denial to offer in his own defence, and if he has, to make uſe of it: For now the Advocate-Fiſcal, upon their having evidence enough againſt him, is ordered to form his proceſs. Here if the priſoner alledgeth, that unleſs they will be pleaſed to let him know the particular words or facts he ſtands charged withal, and who the perſons are that have informed him and witneſſed againſt him, that it will not be poſſible for him to make any defence; he is told, that cannot be done, becauſe to let him know the particular heretical words or facts might lead him to the knowledge of the informers and witneſſes, who by the fundamental laws of the Inquiſition muſt never directly or indirectly be diſcovered to him.

Now for this ſingular and inhuman cuſtom of not letting the priſoners know the particular facts they ſtand charged withal, nor who they are that have informed and witneſſed againſt them, the Inquiſitors have nothing to ſay but that it is neceſſary to the ſecurity of the lives of the accuſers and witneſſes, which if they were known would be in ſo great danger, that none would dare to venture to inform or bear witneſs againſt hereticks in their court. Which pretence, though it might have ſome ground when courts of Inquiſition were firſt erected, no city, no not Rome it ſelf, having ſubmitted quietly to them when they were firſt introduced; it is now notorious to all the world, and to none more than to the Inquiſitors themſelves, that it is altogether groundleſs; and eſpecially in Spain and Portugal, where the Inquiſition is not only eſtabliſhed by law, but by a wonderful faſcination is ſo fixed in the hearts and affections of the people, that one that ſhould offer the leaſt affront to another for having been an informer or witneſs in the Inquiſition, would be torn in a thouſand pieces: and did the priſoners that have been in the Inquiſition but know certainly who the perſons were that had informed and witneſſed againſt them, they durſt not for their lives ſpeak one word againſt them, or ſhew them the leſs reſpect on that account.

Now for a Court to continue a cuſtom ſo ſingularly unjuſt and cruel, and upon a pretence all the world knows to be altogether groundleſs, is a confidence not to be matched any where that I know of.

The priſoner being thus denied the knowledge of the things and perſons, without which it is ſcarce poſſible for him, though never ſo innocent, to make any defence, he is, notwithſtanding that, graciouſly aſked by the Inquiſitors, whether he deſires to have an Advocate and Proctor to help him to make it? If he ſaith he would, he is not to name them, but muſt take thoſe the Inquiſitors ſhall appoint, and who, before they have ſeen their client, muſt take the following oath:

I *N.* Doctor of both laws, do, in the preſence of the Lords Inquiſitors of this place againſt heretical pravity, having my hand on the Holy Goſpel of God, promiſe and ſwear ſincerely and faithfully to defend and maintain the cauſe of N. a priſoner in the priſons of this holy office, who ſtands accuſed and impeached for cauſes mentioned in it's acts, but ſo not as to uſe any trick or cavil, or to inſtruct my ſaid client to conceal the truth in judgment. And I do further promiſe and ſwear, That if I ſhall by any way diſcover my ſaid client to be guilty of the crime or crimes wherewith he ſtands charged, that I will thereupon immediately diſmiſs his cauſe: and if by having ſearched narrowly into his caſe I ſhall diſcover that he has had complices in his hereſies, that I will inform againſt them to this holy office. All which I do promiſe upon pain of perjury, and of an excommunication, from which I cannot be abſolved by any but by this holy office. So help me God and theſe Holy Goſpels.

The ſame oath is taken by the priſoner's Proctor, as the Inquiſitors call him; though in truth both he and the Advocate are the Inquiſitors engines, made uſe of to fiſh what they can out of the priſoner againſt himſelf and his friends, rather than any thing elſe.

The priſoner being thus fitted with an Advocate and Proctor, and who are not ſuffered to know any thing more of his accuſers and of the witneſſes againſt him than he himſelf knows, he is aſked by them whether he would have any queſtions put by the Inquiſitors to thoſe that have informed and witneſſed againſt him, or would have them examined upon any points. And in caſe the priſoner furniſheth his Advocate with any ſuch queſtions or points, they are put by him into form, and delivered to the Inquiſitors.

The priſoner is aſked alſo whether he has any witneſſes of his orthodoxy; and if he names any, they are ſent for and heard by the Inquiſitors. And as theſe witneſſes do go to the Inquiſition with trembling hearts, ſo they are extremely cautious not to ſay any thing concerning the priſoner that ſhall imply their having lived in any intimacy with him, for fear of bringing themſelves under a ſuſpicion of hereſy; and by the laws of the Inquiſition no relation of the priſoner's within the fourth degree can be a witneſs for him. When the priſoner's Advocate and Proctor are diſmiſſed, they take an oath that they have no copy of the defence the priſoner made for himſelf, and that they ſhall never ſpeak of it to any perſon whatſoever; neither is the priſoner ever ſuffered to ſee the depoſitions of his own fearful witneſſes, no more than the depoſitions of thoſe that are againſt him.

Beſide the fore-mentioned, there is another common proceſs in the Inquiſition, which is againſt thoſe that have murdered themſelves, or died a natural death in their priſons. The proceſs againſt the firſt is ſhort, his having murdered himſelf being judged ſuch an evidence of his guilt as is ſufficient to convict him of the hereſies wherewith he was charged. The proceſs againſt the ſecond is carried on by the Advocate Fiſcal in the ſame manner as it would have been had the priſoner been alive; and the priſoners relations and friends, or any other that have any thing to offer in defence of the deceaſed, are by a publick edict ſummoned to appear before the Inquiſitors within forty days to give their evidence; and if upon this ſummons none do appear to offer any thing in vindication of the deceaſed, as I believe few are ever ſo hardy as to do, the deceaſed after the expiration of that term of days is acquitted or condemned in the ſame manner that he would have been had he been alive; and if he is condemned his whole eſtate is forfeited, and his body and effigies are burnt at the next act of the faith, as are the bodies and effigies of thoſe that had murdered themſelves.

But the power of the Inquiſition extends not only to thoſe that died in the priſons, but to the bodies, eſtates and good names of all that after their deceaſe ſhall be convicted of having died hereticks: and though as to the eſtates of thoſe that are convicted of having died hereticks they can go no farther than forty years, as to the taking their bones out of the grave, and burning them, and the depriving them of their good name, there is no limitation of time. When a competent number of priſoners are convicted of hereſy, either by their own voluntary or extorted confeſſion, or upon the evidence of certain witneſſes, a day is fixed by the chief Inquiſitor for a goal-delivery, which is called by them an Act of the Faith, and which is always upon a Sunday. In the morning of the day the priſoners are all brought into a great hall, where they have the habits put on they are to wear in the proceſſion, which begins to come out of the Inquiſition about nine of the clock in the morning.

Auto de Fé.

The firſt in the proceſſion are the Dominican Friars, who carry the ſtandard of the Inquiſition, which on the one ſide hath their founder Dominick's picture, and on the other ſide a croſs betwixt an olive-tree and a ſword, with this motto, *Juſtitia & Miſericordia*. Next after the Dominicans come the penitents, ſome with benitoes and ſome without, according to the nature of their crimes; they are all in black coats without ſleeves, and bare-footed, with a wax candle in their hand. Next come the penitents who have narrowly eſcaped being burnt, who over their black coat have flames painted with their points turned downward, to ſignify their having been ſaved, but ſo as by fire; this habit is called by the Portugueſe, *Fuego revolto*, or flames turned up-ſide-down. Next come the negative and relapſed that are to be burnt, with flames upon their habit pointing upwards: and next come thoſe who profeſs doctrines contrary to the faith of the Roman church, and who beſides flames on their habit pointing upward, have their picture, which is drawn two or three days before, upon their breaſts, with dogs, ſerpents and devils all with open mouths painted about it.

Pegna, a famous Spaniſh Inquiſitor, calls this proceſſion, *Horrendum ac tremendum ſpectaculum*; and ſo it is in truth, there being ſomething in the looks of all the priſoners, beſides thoſe that are to be burnt, that is ghaſtly, and diſconſolate beyond what can be imagined; and in the eyes and countenance of thoſe that are to be burnt, there is ſomething that looks fierce and eager.

The priſoners that are to be burnt alive, beſides a Familiar, which all the reſt have, have a Jeſuit on each hand of them, who are continually preaching to them to abjure their hereſies; but if they offer to ſpeak any thing in defence of the doctrines they are going to ſuffer death for profeſſing, they are immediately gagged, and not ſuffered to ſpeak a word more.

This I ſaw done to a priſoner preſently after he came out of the gates of the inquiſition, upon his having looked up to the ſun, which he had not ſeen before in ſeveral years, and cried out in a rapture, 'How is it poſſible for people that behold that glorious body, to worſhip any being but him that created it?' After the priſoners came a troop of Familiars on horſeback; and after them the inquiſitors and other officers of the Court upon mules; and laſt of all comes the Inquiſitor-General upon a white horſe led by two men, with a black hat and a green hatband, and attended by all the nobles that are not employed as Familiars in the proceſſion.

In the Terreiro de Paco, which may be as far from the Inquiſition as White-Hall is from Temple-Bar, there is a ſcaffold erected, which may hold two or three thouſand people; at the one end ſit the Inquiſitors, and at the other end the priſoners, and in the ſame order as they walked in the proceſſion; thoſe that are to be burnt being ſeated on the higheſt benches behind the reſt, and which may be ten foot above the floor of the ſcaffold.

After ſome prayers and a ſermon, which is made up of encomiums on the Inquiſition, and invectives againſt hereticks, a ſecular Prieſt aſcends a deſk, which ſtands near the middle of the ſcaffold, and who having firſt taken all the abjurations of the penitents, who kneel before him one by one in the ſame order they walked in the proceſſion, at laſt he recites the final ſentence of the Inquiſition upon thoſe that are to be put to death, in the words following:

"We the Inquiſitors of heretical pravity, having with the concurrence of the moſt illuſtrious N. Lord Archbiſhop of Liſbon, or of his deputy N. called on the name of the Lord Jesus Christ, and of his glorious mother the Virgin Mary, and ſitting on our tribunal, and judging with the Holy Goſpels lying before us, that ſo our judgments may be in the ſight of God, and our eyes might behold what is juſt, in all matters between the magnifick Dr. N. Advocate-Fiſcal, on the one part, and you N. now before us, on the other, we have ordained that in this place, and on this day you ſhould receive your definitive ſentence.

"We do therefore by this our ſentence put in writing, define, pronounce, declare and ſentence thee N. of the city of Liſbon, to be a convicted, confeſſing, affirmative and profeſſed heretick, and to be delivered and left by us as ſuch, to the ſecular arm; and we by this our ſentence do caſt thee out of the eccleſiaſtical court, as a convicted, confeſſing, affirmative and profeſſed heretick, and we do leave and deliver thee to the ſecular arm, and to the power of the ſecular court; but at the ſame time do moſt earneſtly beſeech that court ſo to moderate its ſentence, as not to touch thy blood or to put thy life in any danger."

Is there in all hiſtory an inſtance of ſo groſs and confident a mockery of God and the world as this of the Inquiſitors, earneſtly beſeeching the civil magiſtrates not to put the hereticks they have condemned and delivered to them to death? For were they in earneſt when they make this ſolemn petition to the ſecular Magiſtrates, why do they bring their priſoners out of the Inquiſition and deliver them to thoſe Magiſtrates in coats painted over with flames? Why do they teach, that all hereticks, above all other malefactors, ought to be puniſhed with death? And why do they never reſent the Secular Magiſtrates having ſo little regard to their earneſt and joint petition, as never to fail to burn all the Hereticks which are delivered to them by the Inquiſition, within an hour or two after they have them in their hands? And why in Rome, where the ſupreme civil and eccleſiaſtical authority are lodged in the ſame perſon, is this petition of the Inquiſition, which is made there as well as in other places, never granted? Certainly not to take any notice of the old canon, which forbids the Clergy to have any hand in the blood of any perſon whatſoever, would be a much leſs diſhonour to the Inquiſition, than to pretend to go on obſerving that canon, by making a petition, which is known to be ſo contrary to their principles and deſires.

The priſoners are no ſooner in the hands of the Civil Magiſtrate, than they are loaded with chains before the eyes of the Inquiſitors, and being carried firſt to the ſecular goals, are within an hour or two brought from thence before the Lord Chief Juſtice, who without knowing any thing of their particular crimes, or of the evidence that was againſt them, aſks them one by one in what religion they do intend to die; if they anſwer that they will die in the communion of the Roman Church, they are condemned by him to be carried forthwith to the place of execution, and there to be firſt ſtrangled, and afterwards burnt to aſhes: But if they ſay they will die in the Proteſtant, or in any other Faith that is contrary to the Roman, they are then ſentenced by him to be carried forthwith to the place of execution, and there to be burnt alive.

At the place of execution, which at Liſbon is the Ribera, there are ſo many ſtakes ſet up as there are priſoners to be burnt with a good quantity of dry furz about them: The ſtakes of the profeſſed, as the Inquiſitors call them, may be about four yards high, and have a ſmall board, whereon the priſoner is to be ſeated, within half a yard of the top; the negative and relapſed being firſt ſtrangled and burnt, the profeſſed go up a ladder between the two Jeſuits that have attended them all day, and when they are come even with the forementioned board they turn about to the people, and the Jeſuits ſpend near a quarter of an hour in exhorting the profeſſed to be reconciled to the Church of Rome, which if the profeſſed refuſe to be, the Jeſuits come down, and the executioner aſcends, and having turned the profeſſed off the ladder upon the ſeat, and chained their bodies cloſe to the ſtake, he leaves them, and the Jeſuits go up to them a ſecond time, to renew their exhortation to them, and at parting tell them, ‘That they leave them ‘to the devil, who is ſtanding at their elbow, ‘to receive their ſouls, and carry them with ‘him into the flames of hell-fire, ſo ſoon as they ‘are out of their bodies.’ Upon this a great ſhout is raiſed, and as ſoon as the Jeſuits are off the ladders, the cry is, ‘Let the dogs beards be ‘made, let the dogs beards be made.’ Which is done by thruſting flaming furzes faſtened to a long pole againſt their faces; and this inhumanity is commonly continued till their faces are burnt to a coal, and is always accompanied with ſuch loud acclamations of joy, as are not to be heard upon any other occaſion; a bull-feaſt or a farce, being dull entertainments to the uſing a profeſſed heretick thus inhumanly.

The profeſſed's beards having been thus made, as they call it in jollity, fire is ſet to the furz which are at the bottom of the ſtake, and above which the profeſſed are chained ſo high, that the top of the flame ſeldom reacheth higher than the ſeat they ſit upon; and if there happen to be a wind, and to which that place is much expoſed, it ſeldom reaches ſo high as their knees: ſo that though there be a calm, the profeſſed are commonly dead in about half an hour after the furz is ſet on fire; yet if the weather prove windy, they are not after that dead in an hour and a half, or two hours, and ſo are really roaſted, and not burnt to death. But though out of hell there cannot be a more lamentable ſpectacle than this, being joined with the ſufferers, ſo long as they are able to ſpeak, crying out, *Miſericordia por amor de Dios*, Mercy for the love of God; yet it is beheld by people of both ſexes, and of all ages, with ſuch tranſports of joy and ſatisfaction, as are not on any other occaſion to be met with.

And that the reader may not think that this inhuman joy may be the effect of a natural cruelty, that is in thoſe people's diſpoſition, and not of the ſpirit of their religion, he may reſt aſſured, that all publick malefactors beſides hereticks, have their violent deaths no where more tenderly lamented than among the ſame people, and even when there is nothing in the manner of their deaths that appears inhuman or cruel.

Within a few days after the execution, the pictures of all that have been burnt, and which were taken off their breaſt when they were brought to the ſtake, are hung up in St. Domingo's Church, whoſe weſt-end, tho' very high, is all covered over with theſe trophies of the Inquiſition, hung up there in honour to Dominic, who to fulfil his mother's dream, was the firſt inventor of that court. Dominic's mother, when ſhe was ready to be brought to bed of him, having dreamed, that ſhe was delivered, not of a human creature, but of a fierce dog, with a burning torch in his mouth. See Dr. Geddes's Miſcellaneous Tracts, Vol. I. p. 391, to 413.

Archbiſhopricks and biſhopricks.

I proceed next to enumerate the ſeveral archbiſhopricks and biſhopricks in Spain and Portugal, and enquire into their reſpective revenues.

Abp. of Toledo, and his ſuffragans.

The Archbiſhop of Toledo is ſtiled Primate of Spain; he is great Chancellor of Caſtile, and Counſellor born of the Council of State. His archbiſhoprick contains 802 pariſhes, his revenue amounting one year with another to 300000 ducats, and that of the Primatical Church to 150000 ducats, out of which there ought to be deducted 66000 ducats which is paid annually to the King. The ſuffragans are, firſt, that of Segovia, comprehending 438 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 24000 ducats per annum. 2. Valladolid, which comprehends 132 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 12000 ducats per annum. 3. Oſſuna, which comprehends 450 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 16000 ducats per annum. 4. Siguenza, which comprehends 516 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 40000 ducats per annum: he is Lord Chief Juſtice of the town of Siguenza. 5. Cuença, which comprehends 384 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 50000 ducats per annum. 6. Cartagena, which comprehends 89 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 24000 ducats per annum. 7. Jaen, which comprehends 84 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 20000 ducats per annum. 8. Cordoua, which comprehends 92 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 40000 ducats per annum.

Abp. of Terragona.

The Archbiſhop of Terragona. His dioceſs contains 197 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 20000 ducats per annum. The ſuffragans are, firſt, that of Barcelona, comprehending 206 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 10000 ducats per annum. 2. Tortoſa, which comprehends 160 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 15000 ducats per annum. 3. Lerida, which comprehends 212 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 12000 ducats per annum. 4. Vich, which comprehends 206 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 6000 ducats per annum. 5. Urgel, which comprehends 420 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 9000 ducats per annum. 6. Gironne, which comprehends 339 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 3000 ducats per annum. 7. Elna, which comprehends 100 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 4000 ducats per annum. 8. Solſona, which comprehends 15 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 4000 ducats per annum.

Abp. of Seville.

The Archbiſhop of Seville. His archbiſhoprick contains 234 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 100000 ducats per annum. The ſuffragans are, firſt, that of Cadiz, which comprehends 14 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 12000 ducats per annum. 2. Guadix, which comprehends 37 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 8000 ducats per annum. 3. Canaries, which comprehends 50 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 10000 ducats per annum.

Abp. of St. James de Compoſtella.

The Archbiſhop of St. James de Compoſtella. His archbiſhoprick contains 1803 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 60000 ducats, per annum, and that of the Archiepiſcopal Church as much; out of which there ought to be deducted 18000 ducats which he annually pays to the King. The ſuffragans are, firſt, that of Aſtorga, which comprehends 913 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 10000 ducats per annum. 2. Avila, which comprehends 437 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 20000 ducats per annum. 3. Salamanca, which comprehends 240 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 24000 ducats per annum. 4. Coria, which comprehends 317 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 20000 ducats per annum. 5. Placentia, which comprehends pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 50000 ducats per annum. 6. Badajox, which comprehends 53 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 16000 ducats per annum. 7. Tuy, which comprehends 146 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 10000 ducats per annum. 8. Mondonedo, which comprehends 356 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 4000 ducats per annum. 9. Orenſa, which comprehends 954 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 10000 ducats per annum. 10. Cividad-Rodrigo, which comprehends 63 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 10000 ducats per annum. 11. Lugo, which comprehends 60 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 10000 ducats per annum. 12. Zamora, which comprehends 256, pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 20000 ducats per annum.

Abp. of Saragoſſa.

The Archbiſhop of Saragoſſa. His archbiſhoprick comprehends 347 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 50000 ducats per annum. The ſuffragans are, firſt, that of Hueſca, which comprehends 196 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 13000 ducats per annum. 2. Taracona, which comprehends 350 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 20000 ducats per annum. 3. Albarazin, which comprehends 25 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 6000 ducats per annum. 4. Jaca, which comprehends 199 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 3000 ducats per annum. 5. Balbaſtro, which comprehends 170 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 8000 ducats per annum. 6. Teruel, which comprehends 77 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 12000 ducats per annum.

Abp. of Valencia.

The Archbiſhop of Valencia. His archbiſhoprick contains 230 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 40000 ducats per annum. The ſuffragans are, firſt, that of Segorba, which comprehends 120 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 10000 ducats per annum. 2. Orihuela, which comprehends 60 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 10000 ducats per annum.

Abp. of Grenada.

The Archbiſhop of Grenada. His Archbiſhoprick contains 194 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 40000 ducats per annum. The ſuffragans are, 1. That of Almeria, which contains 60 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 4000 ducats per annum. 2. Malaga, which comprehends 108 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 2000 ducats per annum.

Abp. of Burgos.

The Archbiſhop of Burgos. His archbiſhoprick contains 1756 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 40000 ducats per annum. The ſuffragans are, 1. That of Pampeluna, which comprehends 1156 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 25000 ducats per annum. 2. Calahorra, which comprehends 1013 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 20000 ducats per annum. 3. Placentia, which comprehends 881 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 24000 ducats per annum.

Biſhopricks of Leon and Oviedo.

The biſhopricks of Leon and Oviedo hold immediately of the Holy See. Leon contains 1020 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 12000 ducats per annum. Oviedo contains 1048 pariſhes, the revenue whereof is 12000 ducats per annum.

Abp. of Liſbon.

The archbiſhoprick of Liſbon; the revenue whereof is 40000 cruſadoes. The ſuffragans are, 1. Miranda, the revenue whereof is 10000 cruſadoes per annum. 2. Portalegre, the revenue whereof is 500l. per annum. But the late patriarchate eſtabliſhed at Liſbon has made a great alteration in the eccleſiaſtical government of this archbiſhoprick.

Abp. of Braga.

The archbiſhoprick of Braga; the revenue whereof is 40000 cruſadoes per annum. The ſuffragans are, 1. Coimbra, the revenue whereof is 40000 cruſadoes per annum. 2. Lamego, the revenue whereof is 18000 cruſadoes per annum. 3. Viſeu, the revenue whereof is 16000 cruſadoes per annum. 4. Porto, the revenue whereof is 15000 cruſadoes per annum.

Abp. of Evora.

The archbiſhoprick of Evora; the revenue whereof is 60000 cruſadoes per annum. The ſuffragans are, 1. Elvas, the revenue whereof is 10000 cruſadoes per annum. 2. Leria, the revenue whereof is 18000 cruſadoes per annum. 3. Faro, the revenue whereof is 5000 cruſadoes per annum. And, 4. Tavira, the revenue whereof I have not met with.

Convents.

There are alſo in Spain alone 2141 convents, in which it is computed there are about 45000 Monks and Nuns; and a proportionable number in Portugal.

There

Univerſities of Spain and Portugal.

There are in Spain no leſs than 22 Univerſities, which have been mentioned already in the deſcription of the ſeveral cities of that kingdom. I ſhall only obſerve here therefore, that thoſe of Salamanca, Valladolid and Alcala are the chief: And tho' my French author is pleaſed to affirm, that they excel all the Univerſities in Chriſtendom except that of Paris; it will be found, that thoſe of Oxford and Cambridge are much ſuperior to any of them in the number of learned men, in the elegancy of their buildings, and in their revenues.

The Univerſity of Coimbra is much the moſt conſiderable in Portugal, ſaid to conſiſt of five thouſand Students; but then they admit children before they can well read, ſo that our grammar-ſchools may be reckoned equal to many of their colleges.

Laws.

They do not apply themſelves ſo much to philoſophy, divinity, or phyſick in theſe Univerſities as to the civil and canon law, which prevails very much in theſe countries. And beſides theſe every one ſtudies the cuſtoms of his particular province, by which the Magiſtrates are often governed in their deciſions.

Language.

The Spaniſh language is derived from the Latin, and ſaid to come the neareſt to it at this day of any language in Europe: The dialects however are very different in the ſeveral provinces, as in other countries; that of Caſtile is ſaid to be the pureſt, and that of Portugal, which was lately a province of Spain, the worſt. But in all of them we find a great many Arabick words and terminations, which they learnt from the Moors, who were long maſters of the country. They obſerve particularly that all Spaniſh words which begin with the ſyllable Al, are of Arabick extraction, as Alguaſil, a Bailiff or Jaylor, Algibe, a Cittern, &c.

Academies.

I ſhall counclude with obſerving, that in Portugal as well as other European kingdoms, they have of late begun to eſtabliſh ſeparate Academies, for the propagating arts and ſciences, as if they apprehended theſe were neglected in their Univerſities. The late King of Great Britain was more indulgent to Oxford and Cambridge, chuſing rather to eſtabliſh profeſſors of modern hiſtory there with handſom ſtipends, than to ſet up diſtinct ſocieties in oppoſition to thoſe Univerſities.

CHAP. XII.

Treats of their foreign trade and navigation; and of their ſeveral ſorts of coin.

CHAP. XII.

Foreign trade.

AS to the trade of this kingdom, their navigation and foreign commerce, theſe have already been treated of under other heads. I ſhall only here obſerve in general therefore, that the merchandize they export conſiſts either in the produce of their ſoil, or of what they firſt import from their plantations and ſettlements in Aſia, Africa, and America. The product of their ſoil is chiefly red and white port wines, oil, oranges, lemons, figs, cheſnuts, almonds, raiſins, ſalt, and ſweetmeats. Their importations from Aſia conſiſt of ſiks, muſlins, calicoes, tea, gold-duſt, and ſuch other goods as our Engliſh Eaſt-India-Company import hither. And from Africa they import chiefly gold, ſlaves, and elephants teeth. But the moſt extenſive and the richeſt of all their ſettlements are thoſe of Brazil in America, from whence in ſome years they import upwards of two millions ſterling in gold and ſilver, beſides vaſt quantities of ſugar, tobacco, ſnuff, brazil and other dying wood, hides, cotton, indigo, fuſtick, tallow, train-oil, parrots, rum, and many other leſſer articles; and it is ſaid the Portugueſe do not tranſport leſs than five and twenty or thirty thouſand ſlaves annually from the coaſt of Africa to Brazil, which may one with another be worth fifteen or ſixteen pounds ſterling a head in Brazil. They are employed chiefly in their ſugar-works, tobacco plantations, or their mines; tho' a great many are taught ſome trade or mechanick arts, which make them moſt valuable to their maſters, and many more ſerve the Portugueſe as menial ſervants. Theſe ſlaves are purchaſed generally of the African Princes, being priſoners taken in war or ſtolen from their friends. But I ſhall treat more particularly of this branch of their trade when I come to the deſcription of Africa and America.

From England in return for their wines, fruits, and the produce of their plantations, they receive our woollen manufactures, lead and tin; part of which are uſed in Portugal, and part of them ſent to Brazil; and ſome years Portugal takes off a great deal of our corn and fleſh from Ireland. The Dutch alſo furniſh them with linen and woollen cloth and ſtuffs, corn, copper, iron, and all manner of naval ſtores that are found in the northern kingdoms of Europe. The Portugueſe trade pretty much with France; but the Engliſh have the greateſt ſhare of traffick with this country, as appears by the following account of the ſhipping that reſorted to Liſbon in the year 1721, viz. 329 ſhips from Great-Britain and Ireland, 72 ſhips from Holland, 71 from France, 13 from Hamburgh, 7 from Denmark, 2 from Sweden, 1 from Malta; beſides 359 ſhips that arrived there belonging to the ſeveral ports of Portugal, and their Brazil fleet. The number of veſſels outward-bound from Liſbon the ſame year were, 302 ſhips of Britain, 69 of Holland, 63 of France, 24 of Spain, 3 of Hamburgh, 8 of Genoa, 6 of Denmark, 2 of Sweden, 1 of Malta, and 116 Portugueſe, including their Brazil fleets and ſhips ſent to India. And in all our accounts ſince, we find the Engliſh ſhipping in the port of Liſbon double or treble the number of any other nation. This is generally held to be the moſt advantageous trade we have next to that wtih our plantations; and yet even here I am informed the courſe of exchange is uſually againſt us. Certain it is we receive a great deal of gold from Portugal, but I perceive it is clandeſtinely or by connivance of the government, for their laws puniſh the exportation of it with death, as appears by the condemnation of the two Britiſh merchants abovementioned for ſending gold to England. And this brings me to give ſome account of the Portugueſe coins.

Shipping.

Coins.

The uſual way of accounting in Portugal is by rees or cruſado's; the firſt their ſmalleſt braſs coin, 3000 whereof are equal to a pound ſterling, and the other a ſilver coin of two ſhillings and eight pence value, or thereabouts. Of braſs coins there are ſingle rees, thoſe of a rees and half, of five rees and ten rees. The ſilver coins are, a vintein of 20 rees, the half toſtao of 50 rees, the whole toſtao of 100 rees, the piece valued at 250 rees, the cruſado valued at 400 rees, and another piece valued at 500 rees; beſides which, they ſtamp the number 600 on the Spaniſh pieces of eight, to ſignify that they ſhall be taken for 600 rees. And their moſt uſual gold coins are, the moidore, valued at 4000 rees, and the half moidore, quarter moidore, &c.

The continuation of the Hiſtory of Germany, which ſhould have come in page 50.

1726. IN December the Spaniards aſſembled their forces in Andaluſia, and blocked up Gibraltar, and on the two and twentieth of February following, they began to beſiege it in form, and the Engliſh merchants effects in Spain were all ſeized. However, a treaty of pacification being concluded between the Allies of Vienna and 1727. thoſe of Hanover on the 31ſt of May, 1727, the ſiege of Gibraltar was raiſed, and the traffick of the Oſtend Company for the Eaſt Indies was ſuſpended; and on the other hand, his Britiſh Majeſty agreed to order his Admirals to return with their ſquadrons from the Weſt Indies and the coaſts of Spain.

1728. Treaty of Seville. And by another treaty concluded at Seville in 1728 between Great Britain and Spain, the Court of Great Britain agreed to aſſiſt the Spaniards to introduce ſix thouſand of their forces into Italy, to ſecure the eventual ſucceſſion of Don Carlos to the Duchies of Tuſcany and Parma, to which treaty both the French and Dutch acceded.

The Emperor was extremely incenſed at this article for introducing Spaniſh forces into Italy, foreſeeing, that if the Spaniards once got footing there again, they would never reſt till they had driven him out of Naples, and the reſt of his Italian territories; he oppoſed therefore the putting that treaty in execution with all his might, and would accept of no expedients that were offered him for a great while. But the Britiſh fleet (with land forces on board) under the command of Sir Charles Wager, joining the fleet of Spain, in the ſummer of 1731, convoyed ſix thouſand Spaniſh troops to Leghorn, and landed them there, in a manner forcing the Emperor to ſubmit to that article. The grand motive which influenced the Engliſh to act in this manner, it is ſaid, was the procuring the favour of the Queen of Spain, that they might be let into a ſhare of the trade of that kingdom, from which they had been in a manner excluded ever ſince the year 1717, when Sir George Byng deſtroyed the Spaniſh fleet upon the coaſt of Sicily. We had indeed patched up a peace with Spain afterwards; but they continued to act in a hoſtile manner againſt Britain, taking and plundering our ſhips, and inſulting our people as often as they had opportunity; and though we put ourſelves to ſo great an expence, to carry the Spaniſh forces into Italy, and diſobliged the Emperor, our greateſt and beſt ally, I do not perceive the Spaniards have altered their conduct towards the ſubjects of Britain, but continue their depredations to this day; and, as had been foreſeen, made uſe of the firſt pretence that offered to expel the Emperor from his Italian dominions. His oppoſing the advancement of King Stanislaus to the throne of Poland, was held to be a ſufficient motive for their entring into a confederacy with the French and the King of Sardinia, againſt the Emperor; and accordingly, within a month or two after the election of Augustus III. to that throne, the French, Spaniards, and Savoyards, invaded the Milaneſe, and over-run the greateſt part of that province, while another army of the French paſſed the Rhine, and took fort Kehl; from whence the Emperor rightly judged, that they muſt have laid this ſcheme, and provided forces for theſe purpoſes, long before the death of the late King of Poland.

The Emperor being thus ſurprized and diſtreſſed by his enemies, both in Italy and Germany, applied himſelf to the Engliſh and Dutch, for their reſpective quota's of troops they had engaged to furniſh him with, when they guaranteed to him the poſſeſſion of his hereditary dominions; and obſerving their backwardneſs to aſſiſt him, his miniſter preſented a memorial to the maritime powers on that ſubject, of the following tenor:

He put them in mind, that when the Emperor was engaged in the defence of Chriſtendom againſt the Turk in the year 1717, Spain took hold of that opportunity to attack him. He was then in a good ſtate of defence; and the union between the two branches of the houſe of Bourbon did not at that time ſeem ſo terrible as at preſent they manifeſtly appeared to be: a war would not then have been near ſo burthenſom to him, as it was at this time; eſpecially, conſidering that he was then ſupported by Great Britain in a manner which he can never forget: nevertheleſs, he yielded to the inſtances made to him, for re-eſtabliſhing as ſoon as poſſible the peace of Europe: he renounced the right he had to the greateſt and moſt conſiderable part of the Spaniſh monarchy: for the common good of Europe, he took upon himſelf the guarantee of the order of ſucceſſion eſtabliſhed in Great Britain, in France, and in Spain. And in fine, he conſented that (by way of reward) for the unjuſt attack made upon him, the eſtates of Tuſcany and Parma ſhould be ſettled eventually upon a Prince of the houſe of Bourbon. This laſt article gave him more concern than all the reſt; not that he had any deſign to unite theſe eſtates with thoſe he had already poſſeſſed, but becauſe he foreſaw, that as ſoon as the two branches of the houſe of Bourbon ſhould become united betwixt themſelves, that addition of power would facilitate to them the means of diſturbing the peace of Europe, and oppreſſing it's liberties, while, at the ſame time, it would be an obſtacle to his Imperial Majeſty's employing his forces in aſſiſting to preſerve either the one or the other. His Imperial Majeſty then declared what he apprehended upon this head, and the many precautions expreſſed in the fifth article of the quadruple alliance, are ſo many authentick proofs of his foreſight. But his well-grounded fears were appeaſed by the guarantees that were by the very ſame treaty promiſed him.

The Emperor moſt religiouſly fulfilled thoſe engagements he had taken upon himſelf: he obtained the conſent of the empire, for confirming what had been ſtipulated in favour of Don Carlos.

The Emperor, on his part, fulfilled all the engagements he had entered into, confiding entirely in thoſe guarantees, which were expreſly contained, not only in the treaty, but in the declaration relating to the Spaniſh gariſons. He ſuffered thoſe very gariſons to be introduced, and he evacuated Parma and Placentia before the acceſſion of the Lords the States General was ſigned at the Hague.———By ſuch ſignal marks of ſincerity and moderation, he flattered himſelf with having ſatisfied every deſire which the Queen of Spain could at leaſt for ſome time conceive: but it happened quite otherwiſe; they took care to ſtart one difficulty after another; and the more his Britannick Majeſty laboured in employing his good offices for ending all diſputes, to the advantage of Don Carlos, the more buſy they were from thence, to take occaſion to inſinuate to the Imperial court, that the Emperor would find his account more in an union with the houſe of Bourbon, than in the guarantees of the two maritime powers: that without ſuch an union they would keep his Italian territories in continual fears and alarms; and that they would take particular care to chuſe the moſt convenient time for giving the blow, when it ſhould not be in the power of his Imperial Majeſty's allies to make good thoſe engagements, upon which he ſo much depended.

While the court of Spain made uſe of theſe artifices without ſucceſs, that of France purſued a method ſomething different, but ſuch as tended to the ſame end.——She let ſlip no opportunity to diſunite and ſow diſcord among thoſe who ought always to join in defence of the liberties of Europe.———She moved heaven and earth againſt that order of ſucceſſion which had been eſtabliſhed in the auguſt houſe of Auſtria. Long before the death of the late King Augustus, the duchy of Milan was offered to the King of Sardinia, the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, to the Infante Don Carlos, and the reſt of the Emperor's kingdoms and hereditary countries, were parcelled out in ſeveral different ways, according as the miniſters and emiſſaries of France found it proper for their purpoſes.

And when the French King found he could not accompliſh his ends by theſe inſidious offers, he turned his whole forces againſt his Imperial Majeſty: the King of Sardinia attacked him in the moſt perfidious manner; and the court of Spain joined with the reſt, in making war upon him with all poſſible vigour. The blow was in a great meaſure unforeſeen by the Emperor; and yet, by a manifeſt ſort of contradiction, they ſuppoſe him to have been inclined for war, while at the ſame time they reproach him for being no way prepared for it: and after having ſwallowed up ſo many provinces one after another, after having purſued the moſt rapid ſucceſſes with the utmoſt vigour; after having moved heaven and earth, in order to deprive the Emperor of the aſſiſtance of his allies; after having ſollicited all the courts of Europe againſt him, and after having endeavoured as much as poſſibly they could, to ſtir up even the Turk againſt him, the enemies of this Prince cannot certainly, with any ſort of countenance, pretend to ſet up for having an inclination for peace, when the contrary appears by ſo many inconteſtable proofs; at leaſt, the Emperor cannot imagine that any one will allow himſelf to be ſo impoſed on: it would be a misfortune greater than any has yet befallen him, if ſuch profeſſions, ſo inconſiſtent with their actions, ſhould meet with the leaſt credit.

Among thoſe who have ſo often experienced, how dangerous it is to truſt the profeſſions of France, the Emperor would do injuſtice to the great penetration of his Britannick Majeſty, and to the wiſdom and foreſight of my Lords the States General, if he ſhould apprehend in the leaſt, that ſuch artifices could make any impreſſion on their minds. The views of France become more and more manifeſt: it is known to all Europe, that the troubles with which it has been agitated for ſo many years, are originally owing to the unbounded ambition of the Queen of Spain, and to her impetuous deſire to aggrandize her poſterity at any rate; and there is no one ſo unjuſt, as not to abhor the enormous and perfidious behaviour of the King of Sardinia towards the Emperor: in ſuch circumſtances, is it poſſible that his Imperial Majeſty can fail of having the aſſiſtance of his allies? or that, for re-eſtabliſhing the balance of power, they can deſire him to make new ſacrifices, which, upon the firſt occaſion that offers, will be a freſh provocation for the inſatiable appetites of his unjuſt and perfidious aggreſſors? This the Emperor can by no means believe, ſince it is not the method preſcribed by treaties for remedying ſo great evils. By thoſe treaties, indeed, it is ſaid, that good offices may be employed before giving their aſſiſtance, which may be demanded in caſe of an attack by either of the contracting parties; but the interpoſition of their good offices is limited to the term of two months, and can have nothing elſe for their object, but the reſtitution of what has been unjuſtly taken away, and the reparation of the damages that have been ſuffered. Nothing would have been more agreeable to the Emperor, than ſuch an interpoſition of the good offices of the two maritime powers. From thence he would have promiſed himſelf all the good effects which he could have deſired; and in this ſenſe he agrees, that they might have prevented the events of the war, from rendering it more difficult to bring about a friendly accommodation: but the ſame term is expired, many months having paſſed ſince the rupture made by the three powers before-mentioned.

The Emperor has, without ceaſing, ſolicited again and again, for a performance of thoſe guarantees which have been promiſed him; he knows too well the value of them ever to be capable of giving them up, or ſo much as inclined to deſiſt from the demand. The obtaining of theſe guarantees was his only motive for conſenting to the eſtabliſhing a Prince of the houſe of Bourbon in Italy; for evacuating Parma and Placentia; for allowing Spaniſh gariſons to be introduced into the fortified places of Tuſcany; and for his rejecting all the offers of the court of Spain, founded upon the ſecret inſinuations of that of France. It is in vain for people to flatter themſelves with re-eſtabliſhing the publick tranquility, and rendering it more ſecure for the future by a new treaty, till the preceding treaties be made effectual. His Imperial Majeſty neither deſires, nor wiſhes any thing more than to ſee them fulfilled in all their articles; and after the efforts which he has made, for preſerving the liberty of Europe, it cannot be denied, but that it may be very eaſy to warrant it againſt any attempts for a long time to come, provided only that he be effectually ſupported. As the Emperor is not in a condition to make always the ſame efforts, the two maritime powers can never have an opportunity, when it will coſt them leſs to eſtabliſh firmly and ſpeedily, a laſting peace in Europe, and to ſecure the advantages of their commerce in ſuch a manner, that they may be no longer ſubject to the caprices of the court of Spain.

If France, inſtead of turning her arms againſt the Emperor, had turned them againſt the two maritime powers, had ſwallowed up their provinces one after another, and in the midſt of great proteſtations of her inclinations for peace, had puſhed on the war with the utmoſt vigour, the Emperor would not certainly have given any credit to what they ſaid; nor would he have imagined, that he could have ſufficiently ſhewed his zeal for the publick good, or his friendſhip for the parties attacked, by offering, after many months, his mediation, inſtead of performing thoſe guarantees in which he ſtands engaged. But the engagements which reſult from treaties are reciprocal; they are of equal force with reſpect to every one of the contracting parties, and that ſtable and ſolid ſyſtem, by which only the tranquility, the happineſs, and the liberty of Europe can be ſecured, muſt vaniſh, as ſoon as people begin to depart from thoſe meaſures which have been ſettled by an unanimous conſent, and which have been judged to be neceſſary for ſo ſalutary an end. The Emperor's deſire to ſee the publick tranquility reſtored as ſoon as poſſible, cannot therefore be greater than it is, nor his love of peace more ſincere: ſo many ſacrifices which he has upon more than one occaſion determined to make, and of which he now feels the fatal, though not the unforeſeen, effects, are convincing proofs of it. We have only to conſider what methods may be proper to be taken, for ſpeedily and fully ſecuring ſuch a tranquility as may be really deſirable; that is to ſay, ſuch a one, as may not any way prejudice the balance of power in Europe, which is already but too much weakened; and conſequently ſuch a tranquility as may be expected to continue for ſome time.

Theſe methods have no need of any farther examination or diſcuſſion; they are clearly expreſſed and aſcertained by treaties. What ſecurity can the Emperor have with reſpect to future events, if he finds no ſecurity in the preſent conjuncture; which is perhaps the moſt critical and the leaſt doubtful of any that can ever happen? It is upon theſe methods that his Imperial Majeſty muſt inſiſt; from them he cannot depart, without doing an injury to himſelf, to his dignity, and to his glory; without failing in that duty which he owes to his faithful ſubjects; and, in ſhort, without neglecting the publick good of Europe.

Beſides theſe motives, which are in themſelves ſo preſſing, the proper intereſt of the two maritime powers themſelves, and the real friendſhip which his Imperial Majeſty has for them, cannot permit him to purſue any other meaſure. The court of Spain have but too fully verified what they have more than once inſinuated to the court of Vienna: by the troubles which they have from time to time found means to excite, they have prevented the Emperor's being ever in a condition to taſte the fruits of a profound tranquility; the continual perturbations of Europe have engaged him in exceſſive expences: by the number and power of his enemies, he found himſelf obliged to make efforts which it is not poſſible for him to repeat often: theſe efforts he made only to facilitate to the two maritime powers the means of putting affairs again upon a good footing, without putting themſelves to any great charge, and without ſubjecting themſelves to any riſque.

If the efforts which he has made, are to be not only rendered uſeleſs, but made to ſerve for procuring new advantages to the houſe of Bourbon, the two maritime powers muſt thereby render uſeleſs the beſt and moſt faithful ally they have; and France will obtain what ſhe deſires, which is, to be able to keep all his Imperial Majeſty's territories in a continual alarm, without it's being poſſible for them to ſupport the liberty of Europe, already in too tottering a condition. This is what lies moſt heavy upon his heart.

Unfortunately! the Emperor has never been deceived in what he has foreſeen, or foretold, with reſpect to the conſequences of the increaſe of power in the houſe of Bourbon: at preſent, he foreſees conſequences more fatal and leſs remote than any he has ever foreſeen: he deſires to prevent them, and he will endeavour it to the utmoſt of his power. He does not ſeek to aggrandize himſelf; all his views are bounded in being able to employ his forces for the preſervation of his territories, for that of the empire, whoſe intereſts are ſo dear to him, and for the repoſe of others. The greateſt part of the advantage ariſing from thence, will accrue to his allies, from whom he is, and always will be, inſeparable. It ſticks on them to break thoſe bands, with which all Europe is threatned, by the houſe of Bourbon: the fulfilling thoſe guarantees, which have been ſtipulated by treaties, is the only method for ſecuring ſo great an advantage; and that is what the Emperor demands in the moſt friendly, and the moſt emphatical manner he can think of.

After the accompliſhment of what is ſtipulated by thoſe guarantees, the Emperor will be ready to join in the method of a friendly accommodation. Upon that occaſion, as on every other, he will make it appear, that his deſire of peace is as ſincere, and as real, as that which France pretends to is deceitful, and belied by her own conduct. In taking matters upon this foot, it is to be feared, that the events of war may render it more difficult to bring about a friendly accommodation. On the contrary, they muſt conduce thereto, and then the Emperor will, with alacrity, and readineſs, give ear to any propoſitions that may be conſiſtent with his honour, with the quiet of his territories, with the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, and conſequently, with the eſſential intereſts of the two maritime powers: ſo that by way of anſwer to the repreſentations made by the miniſters of his Britannick Majeſty, and my Lords the States General of the United Provinces of the Low Countries, the Emperor is not againſt their taking the method of employing their good offices, if by that method they can religiouſly perform all that is required by treaties; and if, by that method, the execution of them be no longer retarded.

But at the ſame time, the Emperor believes, that at this time of day, to content themſelves with employing only their good offices, will expoſe all Europe to a much greater danger; and that as affairs ſtand at preſent, it is in vain to flatter themſelves, with being able, by any ſuch method, to ſatisfy what he has a right to demand, by virtue of thoſe engagements, which have been entered into by treaties; a full performance of which the Emperor with confidence expects from the two maritime powers, he being ready upon all occaſions to give them ſignal marks of a moſt complete return, and of a friendſhip the moſt conſtant and ſincere.

Notwithſtanding this moving repreſentation of the Emperor's, the Engliſh and Dutch could not be induced to take a part in the war, but continued to offer their mediation; which the Spaniards and their allies very little regarding, made an entire conqueſt of Naples and Sicily, and of all the reſt of the Emperor's territories in Italy, except the town of Mantua. At the ſame time, the French army on the Rhine beſieged and took that important fortreſs of Philipſburg *; whereupon the Engliſh drew up the following plan of a future peace, which they prevailed on the Dutch to approve of, and afterwards communicated to the contending parties. This plan being of the following tenor.

1. That King STANISLAUS ſhall retain the titles of King of Poland, and great Duke of Lithuania, with all the honours and prerogatives annexed to thoſe auguſt titles and rank, to whatever place he ſhall retire.

2. That he ſhall have the free enjoyment of all his eſtates, and thoſe of the Queen his conſort.

3. That there ſhall be a general amneſty for all that is paſt in relation to the preſent troubles, for all perſons of whatſoever rank or condition they be; particularly, that all the provinces, cities, or towns (eſpecially Dantzick) where King STANISLAUS may have retired ſince his election, ſhall be reſtored to the ſame ſtate and condition in which they were before the preſent troubles, with relation to their rights, liberties, privileges, honours, and dignities. That King STANISLAUS ſhall abdicate the throne of Poland, and the Poles except AUGUSTUS for their King. On the other hand, that the Emperor ſhould reſign to Don CARLOS, the Kingdoms of Naples and Sicily; and to the King of Sardinia, Tortona, and Novarra, with their reſpective diſtricts, and the Vigevanaſco in the duchy of Milan: provided that France, and her allies, ſhall, bona fide, reſtore whatever elſe they may have taken from the Emperor, or the empire, ſince the beginning of this war; and that the Infante Don CARLOS, on his part, ſhall yield up to the Emperor, all his right to Tuſcany, and the duchies of Parma and Placentia, to be poſſeſſed by the Emperor, in full property; with a particular exception, however, to the city of Leghorn; which, for freedom of commerce, ſhall be a free city and port, and independent on any other Sovereign but their own magiſtrates: and, moreover, the Infante ſhall engage, as King of Naples and Sicily, that the trade of the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, and their High Mightineſſes, ſhall be forthwith put upon the ſame foot, as in the reign of CHARLES II. of Spain, of glorious memory: and as the Emperor cannot enter into the poſſeſſion of Tuſcany, nor have any of the revenues thereof during the life of the grand Duke, and the infante will be poſſeſſed of the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily; in the mean time, an equivalent in money, for the Emperor, ſhall be treated of in the enſuing negotiation: and, that France ſhall guarantee the pragmatick ſanction, as other powers have done; extending it only to thoſe countries the Emperor now poſſeſſes, or is to poſſeſs, by virtue of this plan. And, laſtly, the mediating powers propoſed a general armiſtice or ceſſation of arms, during the negotiation.

The Emperor did not abſolutely agree to theſe articles, tho' he ſeemed inclined to come into them; but the French rejected them with the utmoſt contempt, as appears by the following anſwer of the French King to the Britiſh miniſter. "Nothing intereſts me in the preſent war "ſo much as Poland; my honour is highly con"cerned in it: it is indifferent to England what "Prince reigns there, having no intereſt there"in: the conqueſts which my allies have made "in Italy, is more immediately their concern "than mine; as ſoon as they ſhall be ſatisfied "about them I ſhall be content: but in the "mean time, I will do my utmoſt endeavour "in Germany to weaken my enemies. I have "already declared, that I would not keep poſ"ſeſſion of any of the places that I ſhould take. "England may be aſſured of it from the pro"miſe I have made her: ſhe would have given "me infinite ſatisfaction in her mediation, if "ſhe had not at the ſame time armed herſelf; "but I would have her know, that no power "in Europe ſhall give law to me. And this "you may communicate to your maſter." Whereupon, the Britiſh miniſter at the Hague, Mr. WALPOLE, propoſed to the States General to augment their forces, as Great Britain had done, that they might be in a condition to compel the parties that refuſed to comply to hearken to their pacifick propoſals: but the Dutch would not come into the meaſures of Great Britain: and the Emperor, apprehending that he might make as good terms for himſelf, as thoſe the maritime powers had propoſed in their plan; and both the Emperor and France being highly incenſed at the conduct of Great Britain and Holland; the Emperor, on account of their refuſing him the aſſiſtance they were obliged to give him by their treaties, and ſuffering Naples and Sicily to be torn from him, which they had confirmed to him, by guaranteeing the pragmatick ſanction; and the French, being provoked with Britain for equipping a fleet, whereby ſhe prevented their ſupporting STANISLAUS on the throne of Poland. The contending parties agreed to enter into a treaty, without regarding the mediation of the maritime powers, and to ſhew their reſentment of their paſt conduct, by ſome articles in the enſuing treaty, which they concluded in the year 1736. The ſecret articles whereof will be kept a ſecret from us, probably, till we have the mortification to ſee them executed,

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* The duke of Berwick, JAMES FITZ JAMES, marſhal of France, and grandee of Spain, commanded the French army at this ſiege. He was the natural ſon of King JAMES II. King of Great Britain, by Mrs. ARABELLA CHURCHILL, ſiſter to the late duke of Marlborough. He was killed by a cannon ball in the trenches before Philipſburg, on the twelfth of June 1734, being then ſixty three years of age and upwards, and left behind him three ſons, viz. duke FITZ JAMES, the eldeſt, now duke of Berwick; the duke of LIRIA, in Spain, his ſecond ſon; and the third is an eccleſiaſtic in the church of France.

A late writer obſerves, that the marſhal duke of Berwick was a ſoldier of fortune, and as ſuch made war his trade, which he ſtudied with an unwearied application; and, as he never wanted courage, ſo none exceeded him in military knowledge. As he conſidered war as a ſcience, he left little to chance, or even bravery, but depended more upon ſkill and diſcipline, which gained him the battle of Almanza. He was reſerved, even to his general officers, rarely conſulting them, nor ſo much as communicating the orders he had received, or the deſigns he projected, but as they had their own parts to execute in them. He was never a great favourite at the court of France, which is ſomething to be wondered at, conſidering the uſe he was made of on every occaſion; for, as a ſoldier of fortune, he had no obligations but for his appointments, and yet attached himſelf to France, preferable to any other nation. As the marſhal took care to be obeyed by the officers and ſoldiers of the armies he commanded, ſo was he himſelf always obſequious to the orders of this court: as one inſtance thereof, he appeared in arms againſt Spain with alacrity, after he had received the higheſt honours from the Prince now reigning.

Thoſe they have been pleaſed to publiſh, were of the following tenor.

1. That France reſtore to the empire all the places taken from it during the war. 2. That the Emperor keep the Mantuan, Parma and Placentia, and the Milaneſe; the King of Sardinia to have Vigevanaſco, Rovaro, and its dependencies. 3. That the duchy of Tuſcany, after the deceaſe of the preſent Duke, be given to the Duke of Lorrain, and Lorrain annexed to the monarchy of France, but without any vote in the empire. 4. That King Stanislaus ſhould be acknowledged King of Poland by all Europe, and enjoy all the honours of a crowned head; after which, to reſign that kingdom to King Augustus, who ſhall reſtore to him all the eſtates in Poland, which belong to him or his Queen. 5. That King Stanislaus have, by way of equivalent for Poland, the immediate poſſeſſion of the duchy of Barr, and of Lorrain, after the Duke of Tuſcany's death. 6. Don Carlos to be acknowledged King of Naples and Sicily, and to have Del Preſidii, with the iſle of Elbe; but Leghorn to be declared a free port. 7. That France guarantee the pragmatick ſanction.

Theſe were the preliminary articles: what articles have been ſince concluded are ſtill a ſecret to us: however, we find the preliminaries have been carried into execution. King Augustus III. is left in the quiet poſſeſſion of the throne of Poland: the countries and towns taken by France, and her Allies, from the Emperor, are reſtored to him, except the Kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, which are yielded to Don Carlos; and a ſmall part of the Milaneſe, which is transferred to the King of Sardinia: the Duke of Lorrain has taken poſſeſſion of the duchies of Tuſcany, Parma, and Placentia (the Grand Duke of Tuſcany being dead) and King Stanislaus is poſſeſſed of the duchy of Lorrain, which devolves on France at his death, and may, on many conſiderations, be deemed theirs during the life of that Prince. I proceed in the next place to give ſome account of the war the Emperor is ſince entered into with the Turks.

The Muſcovites engaged in a war with the Infidels, in the year 1736, as has been intimated in the ſtate of Ruſſia; but the Emperor having then but juſt concluded a peace with France and her allies, did not think himſelf in a condition to take part in it, but offered his mediation to accommodate the differences between thoſe two powers: however, the Porte imagining the Emperor not altogether impartial, and obſerving he was drawing his troops together on the frontiers of Hungary, refuſed to accept his Imperial Majeſty's mediation. And the following year, 1737, declared war againſt the Emperor; who having by this time aſſembled a formidable army, commanded his General, count Seckendorf, to advance into Servia, and lay ſiege to the city of Niſſa, which the Turks not being able to relieve, ſurrendered to the Imperial General, who afterwards blockaded Widdin. In the mean time the Turks defeated ſeveral bodies of the Imperialiſts in Boſnia, and afterwards laid ſiege to Niſſa, which was retaken by them the ſame campaign, the Imperial Generals making no attempt to relieve it; ſome imputing theſe misfortunes to the want of neceſſary ſupplies in the Imperial army, and others, to the ill conduct of the General. But however that was, General Seckendorf was apprehended by the Emperor's orders, the latter end of the campaign, and a very heavy charge exhibited againſt him; the governor of Niſſa (General Doxat) was tried before a council of war, for delivering up that fortreſs to the Turks, before there was a neceſſity for it, and condemned to be beheaded; which ſentence was executed upon him, though he was univerſally acknowledged to be a brave and experienced officer, and had been in the Emperor's ſervice upwards of forty years.

The Infidels, after the taking of Niſſa, advanced to Meida and Orſova, making themſelves maſters of the former: and this campaign of 1738, attacked Orſova a ſecond time, and carried it; but the Imperialiſts advancing towards them, and gaining ſome advantage, they thought fit to abandon Orſova again: however, the Turks being reinforced ſoon after, returned to the ſiege of Orſova a third time, and the Imperialiſts were obliged to retire before them in their turn. The Duke of Lorrain, the Imperial General, about the ſame time was taken ill of a fever, and returned to Vienna for the recovery of his health, from whence it was conjectured, there was little hopes of the Imperialiſts defeating the Turks; and indeed they have actually retaken Orſova, according to our laſt advices. The Emperor appears to be but ill ſupported in this war; neither the Princes of Germany, nor any other European powers, deſire to ſee him aggrandized by conqueſts in Turkey. Should he be at the expence of any conſiderable ſiege, he would be obliged, probably, upon the concluſion of a peace, to reſtore it again. The Princes of the Empire, 'tis evident, are far from furniſhing their reſpective quota's towards this war: they know that all the conqueſts which are made, will be the Emperor's ſole property: they ſhall have no ſhare in them, whatever they contribute towards them; and ſince the frontiers of Hungary are now ſo well ſecured by the late conqueſts of Belgrade and Temeſwaer, they do not ſeem to be ſo much under the apprehenſions of the ravages of the Turks, as they are of the Emperor's power.

The Imperial Generals diſplaced.

The Emperor aſcribing his ill ſucceſs in this war chiefly to the bad conduct of his Generals, diſmiſſed them from their poſts, and ordered them to be arreſted and brought to their trials; and ſoon after ſignified to Count Wallis, that he had made choice of him to command the army againſt the Turks: to which the Count anſwered, That before he could accept the honour his Imperial Majeſty intended him, he muſt inſiſt upon the following conditions being promiſed him, viz. That no officer, from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſhould, under any pretence whatſoever, not even that of ſickneſs excepted, abſent himſelf from the army without his permiſſion: that the hoſpitals and magazines ſhould be ſupplied with all neceſſaries, and that every regiment ſhould be provided with expert ſurgeons: from whence we may ſuppoſe, there was a deficiency in every one of theſe reſpects during the preceding campaigns; and to this probably the ill ſucceſs of the campaigns was principally owing, though Count Seckendorf was loaded with the whole blame of the firſt.

Count *Wallis* made General.

Conditions demanded by Count *Wallis*.

He hangs ſome commiſſaries for cheating.

Theſe conditions being promiſed, the General's commiſſion, with moſt ample inſtructions, to make ſuch marches as he ſhould think proper, and to give battle when he ſhould think fit, were made out; and upon the ſecond of April he ſet out from Vienna for Hungary, to take upon him the command of the army. Upon his arrival at Belgrade, he went to viſit the magazines, and in one magazine of corn, he found hardly one third part of the corn ſpecified in the account delivered by the Commiſſaries General; and in another of powder, he found the greateſt part of it was of a very bad quality; whereupon the Commiſſaries, who had the particular care of theſe two magazines, were ſeized, and not being able to juſtify themſelves, they were both immediately hanged up, as an example to others to be more careful of what was committed to their charge.

Grand army takes the field.

As ſoon as the General arrived at Belgrade, he began to take meaſures for opening the campaign; and for this purpoſe, orders were ſent to the troops to march to the ſeveral incampments appointed for them. The main body of the army, which conſiſted of thirteen battalions, ſixteen companies of grenadiers, and thirteen regiments of cavalry, were ordered to aſſemble at a camp marked out for them between Segedin and Arradt; ten battalions and two companies of grenadiers had orders to repair to a camp marked out at Futack near Peterwaradin; and twelve battalions, and twenty three companies of grenadiers, were ordered to encamp at Semlin, and were to be joined by a large detachment, from the garriſon of Belgrade, if occaſion required. Theſe troops began accordingly to encamp about the beginning of May, and by the beginning of June the whole army was encamped, conſiſting, as was computed, of 75,000 men, viz. 50,000 under the command of Count WALLIS in the camp near Peterwaradin, and 25,000 under the command of Count NEUPERG, in the camp between Segedin and Arradt; beſides the army under the command of Prince LOBKOWITZ in Tranſilvania, which conſiſted of about 25,000 men.

It marches to Semlin.

From Peterwaradin the grand army marched to a new camp at Semlin, where Prince WALDECK, with the van of the army, arrived the 9th of June, and was followed by the reſt a few days after. At the ſame time the body of troops under the command of Count NEUPERG began to approach towards the Danube, in order to be ready to paſs that river, and join the grand army, if occaſion required.

From thence to Mirava.

On the 27th and 28th of the ſame month the grand army paſſed the Save, and encamped within a league of Belgrade; when they had certain information that the Prime Viſier with his army, conſiſting of 90,000 men, was incamped between Niſſa and Jagodina. In this camp the army remained but a very few days, having marched the beginning of July, to a new camp marked out at Mirava. Whilſt they were here, viz. July 7th, a Turkiſh Aga, eſcorted by fifty Spahis, arrived at the camp, with letters for Count WALLIS, which were ſuppoſed to contain ſome propoſitions for a ſuſpenſion of arms; but thoſe propoſitions were too high for being at that time approved of by the Imperial court; and on the 10th there happened a moſt violent ſtorm of hail, ſome of the hailſtones being of ſuch a prodigious ſize, that ſeveral ſoldiers were wounded, and one ſentinel killed by them; and during the ſhower the wind was ſo violent, that the bridges upon the Danube and Save were broken down, many of the tents overturned, and the whole camp put into confuſion. Soon after the grand army arrived at this camp, Count NEUPERG, with the body of troops under his command, came and encamped at Czerlock, where Count WALLIS went to confer with him; and on the 13th of July the army received orders to hold themſelves in readineſs to march, and the Commiſſaries at war viſited all the regiments, and ordered the ſick to be ſent to Belgrade. On the 15th the Quarter-Maſter-General ſet out from the camp, to go and mark out a new camp on the other ſide of the Danube towards Semendria.

The battle of Crotſka.

The Turks advancing as far as Crotſka, Count WALLIS determined to attack them before they ſhould have fortified their camp, but was forced to clear his way through defiles, buſhes and vineyards, to come at them; and the regiment of HOHENZOLLERN, which formed the van-guard, advancing too forward, was hemmed in by the Turks, and cut to pieces: the Turks, improving this advantage, fell upon the reſt of the forces with incredible fury, and putting them into confuſion, compelled them to retire; but Count NEUPERG joining the Imperial army with his body, conſiſting of 13,000 Men (who left their coats behind them, that they might make the more haſte to the aſſiſtance of their friends) Marſhal WALLIS made a ſtand and renewed the engagement, which continued with great obſtinacy till night parted them, when the Imperialiſts retired under the cannon of Belgrade: in this engagement it is ſaid Prince CHARLES of Lorrain gave great proofs of his bravery.

The Imperialiſts defeated.

The killed and wounded.

The Imperialiſts relate, that there were killed of the German infantry near four thouſand, and almoſt as many wounded, and of the cavalry upwards of ſeventeen hundred were killed, and eight hundred wounded; and of the Infidels it is computed, there were almoſt as many killed and wounded, the battle laſting nineteen hours.

While the armies were thus engaged on ſhoar, there was a battle between the Imperial and Turkiſh fleets on the Danube, in which the Germans are ſaid to have had the advantage, but retired however to Belgrade, when they ſaw their army retreat into the lines before that city: the Imperial army on the 25th of July paſſed the Danube by the bridge of Belgrade, and encamped at Ponza, leaving 12 battalions in Belgrade; ſo that there were then 15 battalions in the place, all choſen troops; and as the communication was preſerved between the town and the army, and the forts Ratſcha and Sabotſch upon the Save, the taking of Belgrade was rendered exceeding difficult.

Belgrade inveſted.

The Grand Vizir however inveſted the place immediately after the battle of Crotſka, viz. on the 26th of July, on the ſouth ſide between the Danube and Save, and that very day began to throw bombs into the town; and as the Turks are extremely prodigal of the lives of their ſoldiers, they aſſaulted the town the night following, before any breach was made; which ſucceeded, as might well be expected, in a repulſe of the aſſailants with very great ſlaughter.

During the ſiege Count WALLIS received advice, that thirty thouſand of the enemy were encamped at Punſova. Whereupon reſolving to engage them, he marched on the 27th at night to Jabuka, on the other ſide the Femes, and on the 30th he ſaw the Turks drawn up in order of battle, who crying out three times, Allah, Allah, MAHOMET, as uſual, attacked the Imperial army with great fury; but were repulſed and obliged to retire to Viplanka. This inconſiderable victory, though very few were killed on either ſide, raiſed the ſpirits of the Imperialiſts, and might have been of great conſequence, if there had been any troops to reinforce them; but they were ſo much outnumbered by the Infidels that there was no hopes of attacking the beſiegers in their works before Belgrade with any probability of ſucceſs. On the contrary, the Turks, being joined by freſh forces, and rendered much ſuperior to the Imperialiſts, Count Wallis thought fit to retire ſtill further from Belgrade, and encamp between the Theſſe and Femes, ſix leagues above that city: but to return to the ſiege, the Turks continued to batter the place, from the 26th of July to the 31ſt of Auguſt, with very little ſucceſs, having made but one inconſiderable breach in all that time; and had they made an aſſault, it would have been of little ſervice to them, becauſe the beſieged had made a coupure in the baſtion, with mines ready to be blown up between that and the breach, which ſerved only for a ſnare to draw on the aſſailants to their certain deſtruction. Notwithſtanding which, the Grand Vizir, compelled by the clamours of the Janizaries, was preparing ſcaling ladders and every thing ready for a general aſſault, and would have made the experiment, if he had not been prevented by the truce, which was concluded at this inſtant between the Generals of both armies, by the mediation of the Marquis of Villeneuf, the French embaſſador; the preliminaries were agreed on the 31ſt of Auguſt, the principal articles whereof were, that the city of Belgrade ſhould be reſtored to the Ottoman empire, but the fortifications of the town and caſtle demoliſhed; that the province of Servia ſhould be alſo ceded to the Turks, and the rivers Save and Danube be the boundaries between the two empires; the Emperor alſo ceded to the Porte the Auſtrian Walachia, as alſo the fortreſs of Orſova.

A truce concluded.

The Emperor's apology for making a truce.

Theſe preliminaries were ratified by the two powers concerned; but as it was not very honourable for the Emperor, he publiſhed an apology of the following tenor: viz.

The Imperial court will ſoon make known to the world what has happened relating to the preliminary articles of peace concluded with the Ottoman Porte. In the mean time, his Imperial and Catholick Majeſty has already written to the Empreſs of Ruſſia, and has not only declared to the Ruſſian Envoy at this court, in a particular audience given him for that purpoſe, his diſpleaſure at what has been done without his knowledge and contrary to his intention, but has likewiſe ordered all his Miniſters at foreign courts to declare that Count Neuperg went to the Turkiſh camp without his knowledge, much leſs by his order; that as well in what relates to Belgrade, as in all and every one of the other articles, and particularly in the yielding to the ſtrange precipitate execution of them, the ſaid Count has not only very much exceeded the limitations of the full powers entruſted to him, but even acted directly contrary to the orders therein contained; ſo that neither his Imperial and Catholick Majeſty nor his Miniſtry are in any fault, having had no part therein; for they had not the leaſt information of what was tranſacted in the Turkiſh camp, till after the thing was done, and after the precipitate execution; and conſequently, it being become impoſſible to apply any remedy, his Imperial and Catholick Majeſty does on the one hand highly diſapprove the preliminary articles ſo concluded, and will not fail, at a proper time, to do what juſtice requires. And on the other hand, purſuant to the ratifications which have already paſſed, he will ſacredly fulfil and firmly obſerve and keep what is agreed upon with the Ottoman Porte.

His letter to the Czarina.

He alſo wrote a letter to the Czarina, wherein he declared, that he was much leſs touched with the ſiege of Belgrade, than with the advice he had received concerning the ſhameful preliminary articles concluded by Count Neuperg. That he was upon the point of preventing the fatal and too haſty execution of thoſe preliminaries, when he heard they were already partly executed, even before the deſign had been communicated to him; but adds, We muſt keep faith however inviolably with Infidels, while they obſerve it on their part; and I do not doubt but the peace between your Majeſty and the ſublime Porte will be concluded at the ſame time with mine. It is what I have moſt at heart at preſent, as alſo to perpetuate the ties which ſo fortunately attach me to your Majeſty, notwithſtanding all the machinations of thoſe who wiſh to ſee them diſſolved. I am the firſt to own that the Counts Wallis and Neuperg (*the Imperial Generals who agreed to the preliminaries*) are highly guilty; but your Majeſty will diſcover more and more the ſincerity of my ſentiments for you, in which I have never been deficient, or ever will, in the leaſt, who am, &c.

The Emperor alſo publiſhed a manifeſto, which was ſent to his Miniſters in all the courts in Europe, wherein he charges his Generals, the Counts Wallis and Neuperg, with having exceeded their inſtructions, in agreeing to deliver up Belgrade, and the forts about it, to the Turks. But it appears, even from that manifeſto, that thoſe Generals had a diſcretionary power to conclude a peace, if they found the Emperor's affairs deſperate, and the loſs of Belgrade inevitable; but then the Emperor inſiſts, that Belgrade could have held out a conſiderable time, according to the advice he received from General Suckow, the Governor; and that his affairs were not yet ſo deſperate, as to juſtify the Generals Wallis and Neuperg in making the conceſſions they had done, by the preliminary treaty abovementioned; but what ſeems to be a kind of approbation of the conduct of Count Neuperg, is, that he was employed afterwards by the Court of Vienna, as firſt Plenipotentiary, for negotiating the definitive treaty of peace, which was concluded and ſigned on the 18th of September 1739; whereby the preliminary articles were confirmed. And it was further agreed, that the Ottoman troops ſhould not take poſſeſſion of the citadel, till the fortifications were entirely demoliſhed; and that the priſoners on both ſides ſhould be ſet at liberty, without ranſom: that the Ottoman troops ſhould entirely evacuate the Bannat of Temeſwaer: that one of the banks of the rivers Danube and Save ſhould belong to the Emperor, and the other to the Porte; and that the navigation and fiſheries in thoſe rivers ſhould be enjoyed by the ſubjects of both Empires in common, provided that neither of their fiſhermen ſhould advance beyond the middle of each river.

The definitive treaty.

That all the boyars and other ſubjects of Walachia and Moldavia, who had adhered to the Emperor during the war ſhould be at liberty to return home and enjoy their lands and goods; and that the ſubjects of Servia and the Bannat, who had withdrawn themſelves from the obedience of their reſpective Sovereigns ſhould likewiſe be at liberty to return home, and have their lands and goods reſtored them.

That the capitulations and edicts which former Ottoman Emperors had granted in favour of the Chriſtian religion and of the Roman Catholick church, ſhould be confirmed.

That both parties ſhould take care their ſlaves were treated with humanity, until they ſhould be ranſomed.

That the merchants trading between the Emperor's dominions and Perſia ſhould not be moleſted, paying the uſual tolls and cuſtoms in paſſing through Turkey.

That commiſſaries ſhould be appointed to aſcertain the limits of the two Empires, in purſuance of that treaty.

That all hoſtilities, ravages, and carrying of perſons into ſlavery, ſhould be reſtrained and ſeverely puniſhed, and what ſhould happen to be taken, ſhould be reſtored to the proper owners.

In caſe of a rupture, the ſubjects of either ſide which ſhould be in the dominions of the other, ſhould be permitted to retire on paying their debts.

No rebels or criminals of the one Empire ſhould be harboured in the dominions of the other; and

That this truce ſhould ſubſiſt twenty ſeven years.

Done at the congreſs near Belgrade in Servia, on the 18th of September 1739.

To this treaty was annexed a declaration of the Emperor's, that he did not intend it ſhould affect the alliance between him and Ruſſia; and though a peace was upon the point of being concluded between the Czarina and the Porte, the Emperor ſtill reſerved to himſelf the liberty of furniſhing Ruſſia with 30,000 men, in caſe the war ſhould be continued between her and the Porte.

The Generals confined for their ill conduct. Their apology.

Neither the German ſoldiery or the people of Vienna were at all ſatisfied with this peace, and the French ambaſſador, to whoſe influence it was aſcribed, was inſulted by the populace; the Emperor alſo, to ſhew his diſlike of it, confined the two Generals who negotiated it, promiſing to bring them to juſtice for not purſuing their orders, either in the conduct of the war, or at the treaty: in anſwer to which, the Generals publiſhed their apologies, aſcribing their ill ſucceſs the laſt campaign to their want of neceſſary ſupplies, and the ſuperiority of the enemy; and ſuggeſting that they had not exceeded their inſtructions in the treaty, they had concluded; that the conceſſions they had made were abſolutely neceſſary in the ſituation they were in, ſince nothing leſs could have prevented the Turks penetrating into Hungary that campaign.

The Duke of Lorrain &c. viſits Tuſcany.

The Lorrainers follow their Duke to Tuſcany.

During theſe tranſactions, the Duke of Lorrain and his conſort the Archducheſs, with Prince Charles of Lorrain their brother, viſited Tuſcany, arriving at the capital city of Florence on the 20th of January, 1738-9, where they were complimented by the Regency and Magiſtrates; the city was illuminated, fire works played off, and other demonſtrations of joy on their arrival for ſeveral days ſucceſſively. Here the Duke eſtabliſhed three councils or boards (viz.) the council of regency, another for military affairs, and the third for ſuperintending his revenues. He alſo made ſeveral regulations in relation to trade, prohibited the importation of woollen manufactures, and took off the duties on wool, and the materials uſed in that manufacture. About the ſame time there arrived upwards of fifty families from Lorrain, who were ſent to cultivate lands in the province of Sienna, part whereof was at that time uninhabited; each family was allowed a certain number of acres, and a flock of cattle with utenſils for their huſbandry, and great numbers of Lorrainers were preparing to follow theſe, and tranſport themſelves into his Italian dominions; when the French prevailed on the Swiſs, through whoſe country theſe poor people were obliged to paſs, to put a ſtop to theſe peregrinations, and ſend the Lorrainers back to their former dwellings, which the Swiſs complied with, and they were obliged to remain under the tyranny of France. A war commencing at this time between Great Britain and Spain, the Grand Duke declared he would ſtand neuter; and being informed that ſome merchants of Leghorn were fitting out privateers to cruiſe on the Britiſh ſhips in the Mediterranean, he iſſued out an edict, prohibiting their committing any acts of hoſtility of this kind, on pain of baniſhment and confiſcation of the offenders goods.

The Grand Duke having made ſuch regulations as he ſaw fit in Tuſcany, returned with the Grand Ducheſs and Prince Charles to Vienna on the 20th of May, having embarked on the river Inn at Inſpruck, and ſailed down that river and the Danube: the journey was performed moſt part of the way by water.

The plague in Hungary.

Great part of the laſt year the plague raged violently in Hungary, and the Imperial army was not free from it, which was one reaſon the Imperial Generals were in ſuch haſte to put an end to the war; but though upwards of fourſcore thouſand people dyed of the plague that year in Hungary, it never reached the adjoining province of Auſtria.

The Principality of Dillenbourg falls to the Prince of Orange.

The Prince of Naſſau Dillenbourg dying on the 28th of Auguſt, the Prince of Orange ſucceeded to that Principality, as he will to that of Naſſau Catzenelebogen, if Prince William of Hyacinth dies without iſſue; and then the Prince of Orange will make a conſiderable figure among the German Princes.

Duke of Holſtein Gottorp dies.

On the 17th of June died the Duke of Holſtein Gottorp, in the fortieth year of his age, being the only ſon of Frederick Duke of Holſtein by the Princeſs Hedwig Sophia his wife, who was the eldeſt ſiſter of Charles XII, King of Sweden, and conſequently ought to have ſucceeded to the crown of Sweden on the death of Charles XII.

The preſent Duke of Holſtein Gottorp ſucceſſor to Ruſſia. Holſtein Eutin ſucceſſor to Sweden.

The laſt Duke married Anna Petrowna, eldeſt daughter of Peter the Great by his ſecond wife the Empreſs Katherine, by whom he had iſſue, Charles Peter Ulrick, ſucceſſor to the throne of Ruſſia, born in February 1728. The late Duke by his will, left the guardianſhip of his ſaid ſon, and the regency of his dominions to the Duke of Holſtein Eutin, Biſhop of Lubeck, now acknowledged ſucceſſor to the crown of Sweden.

Diſpute between Hanover and Denmark about Steinhorſt.

During the war between the Emperor and Turkey, a diſpute happened between the King of Great Britain, as Elector of Hanover, and the King of Denmark, about the little Principality of Steinhorſt, which the Hanoverians inſiſted belonged to the Duchy of Lawenburgh, lately devolved on this Elector, who had been engaged in a law ſuit with the late Duke of Holſtein about it; but the Duke at length ceded it to the Elector of Hanover. The King of Denmark however, under pretence that this territory had been ceded to him by a former proprietor (M. de Wedderkop)

KOP) ſent a detachment of dragoons to take poſſeſſion of Steinhorſt, whereupon the Regency of Hanover commanded a detachment of 500 men, and two field pieces to drive out the Danes. The colonel who commanded the Hanoverians being arrived ſent a lieutenant to the captain of the Danes, who had poſſeſſed himſelf of the caſtle, to acquaint him, that he had orders to take poſſeſſion of it, and if he refuſed to evacuate the place, to turn him out by force. The Daniſh captain anſwered, he was commanded to repel force by force, and high words ariſing, the captain and Lieutenant drew their ſwords and fought a duel, in which the Captain was killed outright, and the Lieutenant mortally wounded; whereupon the Hanoverian Colonel attacked the caſtle, and after ſeveral ſoldiers were killed on both ſides, made himſelf maſter of it: after which he proceeded to build redoubts about it, and fortify the avenues.

His Daniſh Majeſty receiving advice of this enterprize of the Hanoverians, ordered all his forces in Denmark and Holſtein to be in readineſs to march, and ten thouſand men to be brought from Norway. The Regency of Hanover on the other hand, ordered ſeveral regiments to march towards Steinhorſt, to ſupport the forces already there; and it was expected a war would ſoon commence between thoſe two powers: but the Emperor, the King of Pruſſia, and the States General interpoſing, it was agreed to refer the difference to arbitration or the deciſion of the law, and the troops on both ſides were withdrawn.

The year following (anno 1739) it was agreed that the King of Great Britain, as Elector of Hanover, ſhould pay his Daniſh Majeſty 70,000 crowns, in lieu of his pretenſions to Steinhorſt, and that the pas or preference of rank which the Duchy of Saxe Lawenburgh had aſſumed at the Diet of the Empire above that of Holſtein Gluttſtat, ſhould be yielded to his Daniſh Majeſty by the King of Great Britain, ſo that the deputy for Gluckſtat ſhould take place of the deputy of Lawenburgh for the future, in the Diet of the Empire, and thereupon the Regency of Hanover was confirmed in the poſſeſſion of the Lordſhip of Steinhorſt.

1740. The acceſſion of the King of Pruſſia.

On the 31ſt of May 1740, O. S. died FREDERICK WILLIAM King of Pruſſia, in the fifty-ſecond year of his age, and was ſucceeded by FREDERICK CHARLES his eldeſt ſon, when it was expected he would have endeavoured to procure a divorce from his Queen ELIZABETH CHRISTIANA of Brunſwick Bevern, for whom he had ſhewn great indifference, or rather an averſion, from the time he had been obliged to marry her; but the Queen coming with the Queen Dowager to wait on the King at Charlottenburgh, the Court were ſurpriſed to hear him addreſs himſelf to the young Queen in this manner, viz.

You are ſenſible, Madam, that your becoming Princeſs Royal was contrary to my inclination, but having obſerved the amiableneſs of your character, and the regard you have manifeſted for my perſon; I find myſelf under a kind of neceſſity to make you equal returns of friendſhip; and now therefore, as I am King, I acknowledge you for my Queen conſort, and my lawful wife; and in the evening went into her apartment, and lay in the ſame bed with her (but has never lain with her ſince.)

His Majeſty gave great encouragement to learning and learned men in the beginning of his reign, inviting ſeveral learned foreigners to Berlin, and among the reſt Monſieur MAUPERTUIS, that celebrated mathematician of Paris, who accepted of his invitation, and had an apartment aſſigned him in the palace, and a penſion ſettled upon him; but whether the King had not other motives for entertaining gentlemen of the French court and nation may very well be queſtioned, if we obſerve that intimacy which was contracted between the Courts of France and Pruſſia, and that ſtrict alliance which ſucceeded. His viſiting the frontiers of France alſo ſoon after his acceſſion, and the honours paid him by the Governors of the great towns upon the Rhine, created a further ſuſpicion of his adherence to France; and whether that numerous body of troops, kept in pay for many years by the court of Berlin were not maintained by France, to ſupport her views in diſtreſſing the houſe of Auſtria when a favourable opportunity ſhould offer itſelf, ſcarce remains a doubt at this day.

The King of Pruſſia's difference with the biſhop of Liege.

The firſt inſtance he gave of his enterprizing genius, was an attempt he made on the territories of the Prince and Biſhop of Liege, for viſiting his Duchy of Cleves in the month of Auguſt 1740. He ſent a commiſſary to Herſtat to receive the homage of the inhabitants, and they refuſing to admit the commiſſary, or take the oath of fidelity to the King of Pruſſia, as was demanded, juſtifying that they lived under the juriſdiction of the Biſhop of Liege: He ſent to that Prince demanding a categorical anſwer in two days, whether he was reſolved to perſiſt in his claim of ſovereignty over Herſtat, and would protect the inhabitants in their diſobedience? to which the Biſhop anſwered, That he and his predeceſſors had been in poſſeſſion of that ſovereignty for upwards of an hundred years, having been yielded to them by the Emperor CHARLES V. however he was ready to refer the difference to arbitration; but his Majeſty immediately ordered his troops to invade the Biſhoprick of Liege, and live there at diſcretion, till their Prince ſhould conſent to yield to his demands, or do him juſtice, as he expreſſed himſelf; and accordingly they took poſſeſſion of the town of Maſeyh in that Biſhoprick, on the 14th of September.

The Biſhop hereupon ſent his complaints to the courts of Vienna and Paris, but to very little purpoſe; for the King of Pruſſia returned to Berlin, whither the Biſhop was obliged to ſend deputies after him, and pay his Majeſty 200,000 crowns for his pretenſions on Herſtat; whereupon the Pruſſian troops evacuated Maſeyh.

The Emperor Charles VI. dies. 1740.

The next great event in the hiſtory of Germany, is the death of the Emperor CHARLES VI. which happened on the 28th of October 1740. N. S. at two in the morning; and about ſix the ſame morning, the Archducheſs MARIA THERESA his eldeſt daughter, conſort to the Great Duke of Tuſcany, was proclaimed Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, Archducheſs of Auſtria, and ſovereign Princeſs of all the provinces and hereditary countries of the late Emperor, according to the limitations of the Pragmatic Sanction. Some few days after her Majeſty declared the Grand Duke, her huſband, partner with her in the regency.

The Queen of Hungary proclaimed.

The Queen proceeded to notify the death of the Emperor, and her acceſſion to the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia, to the ſeveral Princes and States in Europe, and her title was acknowledged by moſt of them, particularly by France and

Pruſſia, who declared they would inviolably obſerve their engagements with regard to the Pragmatic Sanction; the King of Pruſſia alſo offered her Majeſty a body of troops, in caſe ſhe ſhould be attacked by any pretenders to the territories of the houſe of Auſtria.

France and Pruſſia acknowledge her title.

Bavaria diſputes it.

The Elector of Bavaria, on the other hand, declared, that he was determined to diſpute the ſucceſſion with that Queen, and that he would not acknowledge her or receive any letters from her as Queen of Hungary or Bohemia; and the miniſter of Bavaria withdrawing from Vienna, left a proteſt of the following tenor.

His proteſt.

That indeed the Electreſs of Bavaria had, upon her marriage, renounced the rights derived to her as Archducheſs of Auſtria, which renunciation was confirmed by himſelf (the Elector) but this could not affect the rights which the houſe of Bavaria had before acquired, of which there was no mention made at that Princeſs's marriage: he does therefore in the moſt ſolemn manner proteſt againſt the Archducheſs MARIA THERESA taking poſſeſſion of the kingdoms and dominions mentioned in the Pragmatic Sanction.

He further ſhews, that the Emperor FERDINAND, marrying his daughter the Archducheſs ANNE to Duke ALBERT of Bavaria, a clauſe was inſerted in the marriage contract, and confirmed by his will, that if the male deſcendants of the houſe of Auſtria ſhould fail, the ſaid Archducheſs ANNE and her heirs, ſhould inherit as well the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, as the principalities and dominions of the houſe of Auſtria.

In anſwer to this, the Queen of Hungary publiſhed a manifeſto, wherein ſhe inſiſts, that as long as there were any deſcendants of the Emperor FERDINAND's three ſons (of which there were many now alive) the houſe of Bavaria could have no title to the hereditary dominions of the houſe of Auſtria, according to the tenor of the Emperor FERDINAND's will, which only ſays, that the heirs of the Princeſs ANNE ſhall ſucceed, when there are no lawful deſcendants living of her three brothers; and if the words in the copy of the will produced by the Elector of Bavaria directed, that his family ſhould ſucceed on the failure of male heirs, they were forged.

To this the Elector replied, that it could not be imagined he was capable of eſtabliſhing his right on a forged copy of the will acquired by bribery, as had been inſinuated; and that ſuch a copy as was exhibited by the agents of the Archducheſs, did never exiſt, nor was ever preſented to his court, and that all that had been publiſhed concerning it was a mere invention, as malicious as it was groundleſs.

The King of Pruſſia invades Sileſia.

But while the Queen of Hungary and the Elector of Bavaria were diſputing their right to the Auſtrian dominions by memorials and manifeſto's, the houſe of Brandenburgh ſet up a claim to the duchy of Sileſia, which had lain many years dormant, and as the Auſtrians gave out, had been relinquiſhed for a valuable conſideration: this the King of Pruſſia denied, and aſſembling an army of thirty thouſand men, attended by a train of artillery, the latter end of November, he ordered them to march towards Sileſia, and on the 16th of December publiſhed a declaration, importing that by cauſing his forces to enter Sileſia, he had no ill deſign againſt the court of Vienna, or to diſturb the peace of the Empire; but to vindicate the inconteſtible rights of his family to this duchy, founded upon ancient conventions between the Electors of Brandenburgh and the Princes of Sileſia, and that the preſent circumſtances of affairs, and the juſt apprehenſion he had of being defeated by thoſe who formed pretenſions to the late Emperor's ſucceſſion, required his making diſpatch in the undertaking and vigour in the execution of it; and though theſe reaſons did not permit his Majeſty to expoſtulate the matter previouſly with the Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, yet they ſhould never divert him from ſtrenuouſly eſpouſing the intereſts of the houſe of Auſtria at all times, and from being the firmeſt prop and ſupport of it upon all occaſions; and a declaration of the like tenor he cauſed to be made by his miniſters in every foreign court, and at Vienna his miniſters declared,

1. That he was ready with all his forces to guaranty all the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria in Germany againſt all invaders.

2. He would enter into a ſtrict alliance with the courts of Vienna, Ruſſia, and the maritime powers for that end.

3. He would uſe all his intereſt to procure the Imperial dignity for the Duke of Lorrain, and to ſupport his election againſt all oppoſers, and he believed he ſhould ſucceed.

4. He would immediately furniſh the court of Vienna with two millions of florins to put their territories in a ſtate of defence; but to indemnify and reward him for all theſe ſervices, he inſiſted on the entire and abſolute ceſſion of all Sileſia.

He ordered his miniſter at Vienna alſo to aſſure the Grand Duke, that he propoſed nothing more than his welfare and ſecurity; and that he might depend on the utmoſt aſſiſtance he could give, if the Queen would ſatiſfy his juſt pretenſions on Sileſia; and though he had demanded the entire ceſſion of that duchy, he might content himſelf with part of that country, provided the Queen would enter into ſuch an alliance with him as was conſiſtent with their mutual intereſts: that he would embrace every opportunity of aſſiſting the Queen of Hungary to maintain the grandeur of her family, and make her amends for the loſs ſhe might ſuſtain upon this occaſion.

The Queen in anſwer to theſe repreſentations, which were made by the Pruſſian miniſters by word of mouth, ſays, ſhe obſerves that his Pruſſian Majeſty ſeems to juſtify his invaſion of Sileſia by the neceſſity of his defending the houſe of Auſtria againſt the deſigns of other powers that were ready to ſwallow her up, and upon the expediency of ſacrificing part of her dominions to ſave the reſt. But it was evident, the Queen's dominions enjoyed a perfect tranquility when his Pruſſian Majeſty entered them in a hoſtile manner; and if this was the way to preſerve the peace of the Empire and Europe, as was pretended, it was hard to diſcover what could deſtroy it.

That ſhe was far from ſlighting the friendſhip of the King of Pruſſia, of which ſhe knew the value, but could not help remarking, 1. That all the members of the Empire, by the Golden Bull, were obliged to aſſiſt any one attacked in his dominions, and that the Pragmatic Sanction alſo obliged the whole Empire to unite in her defence; and if ſuch obligations were not binding, what ſecurity could the houſe of Auſtria expect?

That the alliances with Ruſſia and the maritime powers were in being before the invaſion of Sileſia, and that the principal view of thoſe alliances was, to preſerve the Auſtrian dominions entire.

That ſhe gratefully acknowledged the King's intentions, in regard to the election of an Emperor, but nothing could thwart it more than theſe diſturbances in the heart of the empire.

That his Pruſſian Majeſty had already taken from Sileſia, under pretence of ſubſiſting his troops, and by the ruin of the country, more than the two millions he offered.

That ſhe could not conſent to the diſmembering her dominions, but thought herſelf bound in honour and conſcience to maintain the Pragmatic Sanction, and ſhould be glad to renew her friendſhip with his Pruſſian Majeſty, if it might be done without the infraction of it, and his troops would immediately evacuate Sileſia; that this was the only ſtep that could conduce to the true glory of the King of Pruſſia; and ſhe conjures him to take this method, by all the conſiderations that could poſſibly make an impreſſion on the heart of a great Prince.

The King of Pruſſia in the mean time directed his Miniſters in foreign Courts to apologiſe for his conduct in invading Sileſia, and wrote a letter to each of them. In that to the Dutch he tells them, that the rights of his family to that Duchy are founded upon ancient pacts between his predeceſſors and the Dukes of Sileſia, Lignits, Brieg, and Wohlau, and other uncontrovertible titles, which could never be taken from them by conventions that might have been extorted from them: and it could not be expected he ſhould ſubmit his pretenſions to a doubtful negotiation, when he had it in his power to do himſelf juſtice; and he hoped to convince the world, and the Archducal family in particular, that he had at heart the true intereſt of the empire, and that alone.

Their High Mightineſſes anſwered, that for want of better information they knew not what judgment to paſs, either upon his Majeſty's proceedings, or pretenſions; but feared the conſequences would not anſwer his Majeſty's views, viz. a perfect underſtanding with the Queen of Hungary, and the preſervation of the peace of the empire, and were glad to hear his Majeſty intended to explain himſelf, and would take care to prevent what might excite troubles, conſidering the engagements he knew certain powers were entered into.

No Prince aſſiſts the Queen of Hungary.

But notwithſtanding the remonſtrances made by the Queen of Hungary to all the guarantees of the Pragmatic Sanction, and the Princes and States of the empire on the Pruſſian invaſion, not one of them would arm in her defence, but that Prince advanced with his army, meeting with very little oppoſition; and there is no doubt but the Proteſtants of that duchy, who had long been inſulted and perſecuted by their Popiſh Governors and Magiſtrates, very much contributed to his ſucceſs; and to ingratiate himſelf with them, he releaſed the inhabitants from the rents and ſervices they uſed to pay to the Popiſh clergy; he alſo plundered the monaſteries of their proviſions and ſtores, which he converted to the maintenance of his army, and furniſhed the Proteſtants with preachers from Brandenburg.

Jablunca and Glogau taken.

The town and fortreſs of Jablunca, eſteemed the key of Sileſia, ſurrendered to the King of Pruſſia; the latter end of February and the beginning of the next Month the city of Glogau was taken by ſurpriſe in the night time, the Pruſſians paſſing the ditch by the favour of a very hard froſt, and ſcaling the walls before they were perceived by the garriſon. The Pruſſians made a thouſand priſoners, and amongſt them General Wallis, with the loſs only of forty men, or thereabouts; there were found in this city 50 braſs cannon, a vaſt quantity of gun-powder, and the military cheſt, in which were 32,000 florins.

In the mean time a conſpiracy was diſcovered, or pretended to be diſcovered, in Sileſia, to carry off his Pruſſian Majeſty; the contrivance whereof was aſcribed to the Duke of Lorrain by that Prince.

Battle of Molwitz.

This charge againſt the Duke of Lorrain was reſented by the Court of Vienna to that degree, that their Generals were ordered to attack the Pruſſians at all hazards: accordingly Count Neupero marched towards the enemy, and gave them battle at Molwitz, near Nieſs, on the 10th of April in the morning. The fight was very obſtinate, and continued till evening, when the Auſtrians retired, having loſt four or five thouſand men; nor was the loſs of the Pruſſians much leſs; but it is evident they were victorious, by the progreſs of their arms immediately after, for the City of Neiſs ſurrendered to them on the 23d inſtant.

The Queen of Hungary brought to bed of a ſon.

In the beginning of this year, viz. on the 2d of March, the Queen of Hungary was brought to bed of a young Prince, baptiſed the ſame day by the Name of Joseph Benedict Augustus, &c. And on the firſt of July the Queen was crowned at Preſbourg in Hungary, notwithſtanding the proteſt of the Duke of Bavaria, againſt her advancement to that throne.

French hypocriſy.

The French, in the mean time, were aſſembling numerous armies to march into the empire; at which the Court of Vienna, and other powers, being alarmed, Cardinal Fleury, the Prime Miniſter, aſſured them, that the King his Maſter perſiſted in a firm reſolution to live in amity with the Queen of Hungary, and that the Preparations he was making for war need not give her the leaſt umbrage.

His Britiſh Majeſty and the States General, foreſeeing, however, that the forces of France were intended to ſupport the King of Pruſſia, the Elector of Bavaria, and other enemies of the houſe of Auſtria, endeavoured to draw off his Pruſſian Majeſty from his engagements with France, repreſenting that they ſhould be obliged to aſſiſt the Queen of Hungary, if he perſiſted in diſtreſſing that Princeſs; to which the King gave an evaſive anſwer, from whence it was evident he was not to be diverted from the views he had formed of reducing the whole duchy of Sileſia under his dominion, by the aſſiſtance of France. In conſideration whereof he engaged to promote the Elector of Bavaria to the Imperial throne. And now the French and Bavarians, having aſſembled their forces, in the beginning of Auguſt, began to explain their intentions.

The Bavarians ſurpriſe Paſſau.

The Bavarians ſurpriſed the important city of Paſſau upon the Danube, while the French drew together a body of forty thouſand men upon the Rhine, and demanded a paſſage for another body of Forces through Suabia, to join the Bavarian army; the French King at the ſame time conſtituting the Elector Generaliſſimo of his forces in Germany.

The French invade the empire.

The Queen of Hungary, finding herſelf ſurrounded by ſuch powerful enemies, aſſembled the States of that kingdom, and repreſented the deſperate circumſtances ſhe was reduced to, in a ſpeech of the following tenor (viz.)

The Queen of Hungary's ſpeech to her ſubjects.

“ The perplexed ſituation which, by the permiſſion of the Divine Providence, I find myſelf reduced to, is attended with ſuch dangerous “circumſtances, that I cannot hope to extricate my ſelf, without ſpeedy and powerful ſuccours: *abandoned by my friends, perſecuted by my enemies, attacked by my neareſt relations*; I have no other reſource left, but to ſtay in this Kingdom, and commit my perſon, my children, my ſcepter and crown, to the care of my faithful ſubjects. I do not heſitate to truſt them with all: their loyalty and bravery leave me no room to doubt of their exerting all their ſtrength to defend me and themſelves ſpeedily and reſolutely in this melancholy conjuncture.”

Auſtria invaded.

The whole aſſembly anſwered, they would ſupport the Queen, and devote their lives and fortunes to her ſervice, and proceeded to paſs an act of State, whereby they excluded the houſe of Bavaria from the crown of Hungary for ever. The Elector notwithſtanding advanced with his army, and invading upper Auſtria, made himſelf maſter of Lints, the capital, which ſurrendered to him on the 9th of September; from whence he continued his march towards Vienna, having publiſhed a declaration of war, wherein he ſays, that he did not take up arms with a view of making conqueſts, but to recover his rights; that by the ample ſuccours he had received from France, and the aſſiſtance he expected from the empire, he did not doubt of ſucceeding, and ſummoned the kingdoms and provinces ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria to ſubmit to him as their lawful Sovereign, promiſing to maintain their rights and privileges, of which the Court of Vienna would deprive them.

Apology of the French for their invaſion.

The French alſo publiſhed a kind of manifeſto, to apologiſe for their conduct, which wanted it pretty much, having on the death of the late Emperor acknowledged the Queen of Hungary's title to the hereditary dominions of the houſe of Auſtria, giving the following reaſons for the alteration of their meaſures, viz. the treaties ſubſiſting between the Court of France and the houſe of Bavaria, and the Electors applying to them for their aſſiſtance, and the obligation they were under of preſerving a free election of an Emperor.

The Electors compelled by the French to vote for Bavaria.

The French having now three armies in the empire, had ſuch an influence on the ſeveral Electors, that they were compelled to promiſe their votes for Bavaria. Even Hanover, who was in a manner engaged to vote for the Duke of Lorrain, finding himſelf unable to reſiſt the French army on his frontiers, promiſed to give a vote for Bavaria, on condition the French would enter into a treaty of neutrality. And it is ſaid by ſome ſeparate articles of the treaty between France and Bavaria, the King of France obliged himſelf to *compel* the other Electors to give their votes for the Elector of Bavaria; on the other hand, the Elector of Bavaria engaged not to attempt the recovering the Provinces and Towns of the empire, which France had conquered, after he ſhould be elected Emperor. He alſo renounced the Barrier treaty, and conſented the French might endeavour to reduce thoſe towns which conſtituted the barrier.

The ſiege of Vienna threatned.

Bohemia invaded by the Saxons, Bavarians, &c.

Prague taken.

As the French and Bavarians advanced nearer Vienna, and ſeemed to threaten that capital with a ſiege, the Queen of Hungary retired to Buda, having cauſed the fortifications of Vienna to be augmented, and a numerous gariſon left in the place. In the mean time, the French and Bavarians, inſtead of inveſting Vienna, as was conjectured, having concerted meaſures with the Pruſſians and Saxons, invaded the kingdom of Bohemia, and marched directly towards Prague; which city not being provided for a ſiege, the Duke of Lorrain marched at the head of ſixty thouſand men, to prevent the Allies taking poſſeſſion of it; but the French and Saxons were before-hand with him, ſurpriſed the town, and took it with very little reſiſtance on the 26th of November N. S. and the Elector of Bavaria made his publick entry into that city on the 9th of December, and was that evening proclaimed King of Bohemia.

King of Poland's reaſons for invading Bohemia.

The King of Poland in the mean time publiſhed a manifeſto with his reaſons for joining the enemies of the Queen of Hungary; wherein he admits that he acknowledged the Queen of Hungary's title to the hereditary dominions of the houſe of Auſtria on the late Emperor's death, as he had obliged himſelf to do by the Pragmatic Sanction; but when he ſaw ſo many Princes making pretences to the territories of the houſe of Auſtria, and that the Pragmatic Sanction was held to be of no force by them, he could not be ſo much wanting to himſelf, as to neglect aſſerting his own title to the whole inheritance; he would indeed have waved his right in order to have preſerved the peace of the empire; but ſince there was now no hopes of effecting that, he thought proper to revive his claim, and join the Allies.

1742. Bavaria choſen Emperor.

And now the Electors proceeded to the choice of an Emperor at the city of Francfort, and unanimouſly gave their ſuffrages for the Elector of Bavaria on the 21ſt of January 1742.

Kevenhuller invades Bavaria and recovers Auſtria.

In the mean time the Allies having left but an inconſiderabe Force in the Upper Auſtria, Count Kevenhuller recovered the City of Lints and the reſt of the places the Allies had poſſeſſed themſelves of, and advancing into Bavaria, the Auſtrian Generals defeated the Elector's forces in ſeveral engagements, laying his whole country under contribution, and reducing the capital city of Munich. Her Hungarian Majeſty alſo declared the election of the Duke of Bavaria void, as moſt of the Electors were manifeſtly under a force, and the vote of Bohemia diſallowed.

Marſhal Broglio defeated by Prince Charles.

The King of Pruſſia reduces Moravia.

While the Elector of Bavaria was rejoicing at Franckfort, for his elevation to the empire, Marſhal Broglio, who commanded the French and Bavarian forces in Bohemia, attacked the Auſtrians commanded by Prince Charles of Lorrain in their intrenchments at Budeis; and after three repulſes, the Marſhal was defeated, having loſt three or four thouſand men in the ſeveral attacks; but the King of Pruſſia was more ſucceſsful, for he made himſelf maſter of Olmutz, the capital of Moravia, and of that whole province almoſt, which was obliged to pay him heavy contributions.

The King of Pruſſia yields up Bergues and Juliers.

His Pruſſian Majeſty, at the inſtance of the French, was pleaſed about this time to yield up his right to the ſucceſſion of the duchies of Juliers and Bergues to the Prince of Sultſbach, for ſome equivalent offered him by France, which is ſuppoſed to be the guarantee of the duchy of Sileſia, by France and the reſt of the Allies.

The French take Egra.

The battle of Craſlaw.

Marſhal Broglio having inveſted Egra, that City ſurrendred on the 8th of April, and the King of Pruſſia took Glatz in Bohemia the month following, but was obliged to quit Olmutz and the Province of Moravia on the approach of Prince Charles of Lorrain, who followed him into Bohemia, and attacked his Pruſſian Majeſty at Craſlaw. The Auſtrians bid fair for the victory at the beginning of the action, having broke the Pruſſian Horſe; but falling upon the plunder, they loſt the advantage they had obtained, and in the end were repulſed with great ſlaughter. Prince Charles however made his retreat in good order, the Pruſſians not being in a condition to purſue them, there having been five or ſix thouſand men killed on each ſide.

A peace between the Queen of Hungary and the King of Pruſſia.

There were ſeveral other conſiderable actions between the Auſtrians and the Allies this campaign, but a treaty being ſet on foot between her Hungarian Majeſty and the King of Pruſſia, by the mediation of Great Britain, the Queen agreed to yield to his Pruſſian Majeſty all Sileſia (except the Principality of Teſchin and Tropau) together with the territory of Glatz in Bohemia, in conſideration whereof, his Pruſſian Majeſty engaged to obſerve an exact neutrality, and to withdraw his troops out of Bohemia; which treaty was concluded on the firſt of June 1742, whereby his Majeſty alſo agreed to pay the ſum due to the Engliſh merchants, on a mortgage of the Sileſian ſilver mines, and his Britannick Majeſty guaranteed this treaty, both as King of Great Britain and Elector of Hanover.

Saxony agrees to a neutrality.

The King of Poland alſo agreed to a neutrality for Saxony, on condition ('tis ſaid) that his family ſhould ſucceed to the Auſtrian dominions, on failure of the iſſue of the late Emperor Charles VI. and that ſome places in the north of Bohemia ſhould be ceded to him.

Both his Poliſh and Pruſſian Majeſty, it is ſaid, were induced to come into this neutrality by ſome expreſſes which fell into their hands, whereby it appeared that the French had evidently a deſign to deſtroy the German Princes, by dividing them, and then to uſurp the dominion of their country, or at leaſt the direction of their affairs. The French being thus deſerted by the Pruſſians and Saxons, and ſurrounded on every ſide by Prince Charles of Lorrain, and the reſt of the Auſtrian Generals, offered to evacuate Prague and all Bohemia, if the Auſtrians would permit them to retire into the territories of France; but this the Auſtrians refuſed, inſiſting that the French in Prague ſhould ſurrender priſoners of war; which the French refuſing, were reduced to very great diſtreſs, inſomuch that they lived chiefly upon horſe fleſh. The French having ſuch a numerous body of troops in Prague, commanded by the Marſhals Belliſle and Broglio, made ſeveral briſk ſallies, and ſometimes nailed up the cannon of the Auſtrians, and in general behaved with great bravery and conduct; particularly on the 11th of September, they made a ſally with ten thouſand men, obliged the Auſtrians to abandon their works, and retire half a mile from the town; and two days after the Auſtrians received orders to raiſe the blockade, and join the grand army, under the command of the Duke of Lorrain: whereupon Marſhal Broglio marched out of Prague with 12,000 men, in order to join M. Mallebois, who was advanced to the frontiers of Bohemia, to facilitate their junction; and though Broglio was not able to effect it at this time, yet he furniſhed the gariſon of Prague with proviſions, and found means to eſcape into Saxony himſelf.

The Auſtrians beſiege the French in Prague.

But obliged to quit Bavaria.

M. Belliſle eſcapes with part of the gariſon of Prague.

In the mean time, the Bavarians being ſuperior to the Auſtrians in that Electorate, obliged them to quit Munich, and the reſt of the towns in that country, and retire to Paſſau; and on the ſeventh of December, Marſhal Belliſle marched out of Prague at the head of ten or twelve thouſand men, and was ſo fortunate as to reach Egra in twelve days. In theſe marches and counter-marches of the French and Auſtrians in the depth of winter, many thouſand men were loſt by fatigue, famine, or the rigor of the ſeaſon, but many more of the French than of the Germans, as the French were not enured to ſo cold a climate.

Soon after the arrival of Marſhal Belliſle at Egra, Prince Lobkowitz's ſummoned the remaining part of the gariſon of Prague to ſurrender, which they agreed to, on condition of being ſuffered to march away with their arms and baggage; and on the 17th of December, the French evacuated the town, and on the 20th the citadel, to the number of four thouſand, leaving two thouſand ſick in the place, who were to remain priſoners of war by the capitulation. Marſhal Belliſle having joined part of the forces of Marſhal Broglio near Egra, continued his march and paſſed the Rhine, after which his troops took up winter quarters in their own country; and thus ended this terrible winter's campaign, wherein many more had periſhed by the rigour of the ſeaſon and forced marches, than by the ſword.

The French ſurrender Prague.

Egra blockade.

During the remaining part of the winter, the Germans formed the blockade of Egra (eſteemed the key of Bohemia) from whence the French frequently iſſued, and plundered the adjacent country; and the Auſtrians having evacuated Bavaria, the Emperor removed from Frankfort, and took up his reſidence in his capital city of Munich, having iſſued Letters requiſitorial to the circle of the Upper Rhine, requiring them to furniſh proviſions for the French army under Marſhal Noailles who was expected in Germany about this time.

Bavaria recovered by the Auſtrians again.

On the 12th of May the Queen of Hungary was crowned Queen of Bohemia at the city of Prague, when ſhe received advice, that her troops were returned into Bavaria, and that Prince Charles having defeated a great body of the Imperialiſts, the Emperor was obliged to retire from Munich again, for the ſecurity of his perſon.

In the mean time, the King of Great Britain being determined to take the field, in defence of the Queen of Hungary, twenty thouſand men were embarked in Great Britain for Flanders, where there arrived ſoon after ſixteen thouſand Hanoverians in Britiſh pay, and ſix thouſand Heſſians, to which were added, twelve thouſand Auſtrians; but the Dutch refuſing to join them, and it being too late in the year to enter upon action, this powerful army was of no other ſervice to the Queen of Hungary in the year 1742, than to divert part of the French army that was intended for Germany, and encourage the Dutch to declare themſelves, as they did not long after in favour of the Queen of Hungary, promiſing to join the Britiſh forces with twenty thouſand of their own troops.

Early the next campaign (1743) the Britiſh forces, commanded by the Earl of Stair, took the field, and with the Auſtrians, Hanoverians, and Heſſians, began their march for Germany; and the Earl with the Engliſh and Auſtrians arrived at Frankfort upon the Maine the latter end of May. He proceeded to paſs that river, but the French advancing with their whole army on the 31ſt, the Earl thought fit to repaſs that river again, and retire to his former camp near Hanau. On the 7th the Earl of Stair marched towards Aſchaffenbourgh, where the King of Great Britain arrived about this time, and took up his quarters.

The King having received certain advice, that the Marſhal NOAILLES intended to prevent our junction with the body of Lunenburgh and Heſſian troops, commanded by Prince GEORGE of Heſſe, ſent orders to the ſaid Prince to halt at Hanau, and determined to join him with the whole army. Accordingly on Wedneſday the 26th, upon ſeveral motions which the French army made to the left, orders were given for the army to ſtrike their tents at the beating of the tatoe, to remain under arms till break of day, and then to march from the right, in two columns, the troops in this march taking the places aſſigned them in the line of battle. But as his Majeſty was perſuaded, that if the enemy attempted any thing, it would be on our rear-guard, he ordered the three battalions of Engliſh guards, and the four of Lunenburgh, that covered the quarters, as alſo the Hanoverian cavalry, with ſome artillery, to bring up the rear; and his Majeſty choſe to be there in perſon, as the place of action.

The army began to march at break of day, the Britiſh cavalry in the front, followed by the Auſtrian; then the Britiſh foot, followed alſo by the Auſtrian. As ſoon as the French ſaw us in motion, they alſo began to march with great haſte towards our right, and ſeveral of us that went down to the river ſide, reviewed their troops as they paſſed, and many of their officers converſed with ours. The French left their camp ſtanding, which perſuaded us, that Marſhal De NOAILLES was to have executed his ſcheme that very morning.

His Majeſty had certain advice, the day before, of their making two bridges upon the Mayn, a little below Selingenſtadt, and Colonel MONTAGU, and Colonel GEE, who relieved him at Dettingen, had both ſent word, that many of their ſquadrons had been ſeen on this ſide of the Mayn; ſo that we were under ſome apprehenſions of their intending to cut off our communication with Hanau. We remained in the poſition we were in after the troops taking their poſts, halting upon the long march, and expecting the King's orders, till eight of the clock, the front of our horſe not more advanced than between Klein Oſtein and Dettingen. About this time a battery of cannon, which the French had placed at a little chapel on the right of Hoechſtadt, began to play upon the Hanover cavalry, and was ſoon anſwered by the Britiſh artillery left in the rear, which was well ſerved, and did great execution. This they meant to draw our attention to that ſide.

Whilſt this was paſſing in the rear, we began to perceive a line of the enemy's foot, and then a ſecond, extending between the villages of Dettingen and Welſheim towards the mountain, and two columns of horſe marching the ſame way; ſo that our front, upon the halt, being to the river, the enemy's army, at leſs than a mile's diſtance, was upon our right flank. The danger was viſible and preſſing, and his Majeſty, arriving at that inſtant, ordered the Generals of the day to make our front immediately to the enemy, by extending the right towards the mountain, and the left to the river, and the two lines of horſe were immediately formed. His Majeſty ordered the foot that was coming up to the right into the wood, and ſome battalions poſted to cover that flank; and as faſt as they arrived, placed the infantry, Britiſh and Auſtrian, as alſo four battalions of Hanoverians, who all marched through the intervals of the horſe, from the mountain to the Mayn in two lines, which were ſupported alſo by the cavalry of the right wing, alſo in two lines. In making this diſpoſition, which was a very fine one, and which, by reaſon of the ſlow motions of the foot, took up a good deal of time, the Earl of STAIR, the Duke d'AREMBERG, and the Marſhal NEIPPERG, aſſiſted with great capacity and activity.

The French had paſſed over a great body of troops during the night: their horſe, the houſhold at their head, paſſed at fords, or ſwam over: the foot which we ſaw marching without baggage along the river, paſſed over the bridges, and nothing could be better laid than this plan of Marſhal NOAILLES's, if he had left the moraſs that he paſſed, in order to attack us, in his front; for then the village of Dettingen and the Mayn ſecured his right, the moraſs his front, and the mountains his left; but probably his perſuaſion of our ſurprize, and that the King could not in ſo little a time make a diſpoſition to oppoſe him, made him come into ground where he was acceſſible by all his front.

During the whole diſpoſition, which laſted from eight to twelve, the French batteries, poſted on the riſing grounds on the other ſide of the Mayn, did us a great deal of harm, flanking us from left to right within 200 paces.

About twelve, every thing being ready, and the French advancing, his Majeſty ordered us to march to meet them: Lieutenant Generals CLAYTON and SOMERFELDT, and his Royal Highneſs the Duke of Cumberland, as Major General, were at the head of the firſt line of foot: the Earl of Dunmore, Lieutenant General, and the Earl of Rothes, Major General at the head of the ſecond. General HONYWOOD, Lieutenant General CAMPBELL, LIGONIER, and Baron De COURRIERE, and Lord Albemarle, as Major General, were at the head of the firſt line of horſe; Lieutenant Generals COPE and HAWLEY, at the head of the ſecond. Our lines halted half way to the enemy, to give the ſoldiers time to breathe; and, having given a general ſhout or huzza, marched on to the enemy with great alacrity. A large ſquadron of horſe, that happened to be at the head of the French line of foot, upon the left of their center, having kept that poſt while we were advancing, provoked part of our front line to fire upon them; this occaſioned all the line to fire too ſoon: however, this had no ill conſequence, they loaded again in an inſtant, and advanced to the enemy, who was alſo moving towards us; the fire in a moment was general upon all the front, our line ſtill advancing and gaining ground, Lieutenant General CLAYTON ſent to deſire ſome ſquadrons near the river, where he apprehended the enemy might flank him: the Lieutenant General of the day ſent him Brigadier BLAND's dragoons, who in that poſt ſuffered extremely. The fire from all the batteries of the enemy, and particularly from thoſe in our flanks, was prodigious, and our artillery anſwered very briſkly, though much inferior in quality and number. About this time the Black Muſqueteers detached themſelves from their line, paſſed between the two fires of the foot, and came full gallop to attack the firſt ſquadron on our right; they were received as ſuch a raſh action deſerved, were all cut to pieces, and their ſtandard taken.

In the mean time the Britiſh and Auſtrian cavalry, paſſing through the intervals of the foot, went and attacked the houſhold troops of France; they found them interlined with foot, and many of our regiments were repulſed. However, they ſoon rallied and returned to the charge, our lines of foot ſtill advancing; and a brigade or detachment of grenadiers, poſted in their front, behind a curtain, oppoſite to our right wing of horſe, having given way, all their front began to do the ſame, till they put the moraſs before them, and Dettingen ſtill on the right, and then their whole army retired, with great precipitation, towards the wood and village of Welſheim. Lord STAIR ordered the Lieutenant Generals CAMPBELL and LIGONIER to paſs the moraſs, as well as they could, and march with the horſe ſtraight to Dettingen; which having done, and ſent to reconnoitre the village, they found it abandoned; when they marched to Welſheim, where ſome ſquadrons ſtill appeared on the ſkirts of the wood, who, at their approach, flung themſelves into the woods, and behind the village; which, though barricaded all round, and loop-holes made through all the walls and tops of the houſes, we found likewiſe abandoned. Lord STAIR not thinking it prudent to venture the horſe into the wood, till the foot could come up, ordered the former to halt; but moſt of the enemy had, by this time, repaſſed the river, either over their bridges, or at fords, where, in their hurry, many were drowned.

Thus ended this day, wherein the bravery of our troops cannot be too much commended. Our infantry ſtill gained ground from the beginning, till they remained maſters of the field. Our cavalry ſupported, for eight or nine hours, the moſt ſevere cannonade that ever was known, and then attacked the houſhold troops, who, to do them juſtice, ſupported the ancient reputation of their corps with great bravery. In this action LIGONIER's regiment of horſe, and BLAND's dragoons, ſuffered moſt, and gained great reputation. It is reckoned the enemy loſt above 8000 men, and our loſs amounted to near 2500. The King continued the whole day at the head of the foot.

Liſt of French ſtandards taken at the battle near Dettingen, on the 16th of June, O. S. 1743.

1. A white ſtandard finely embroidered with gold and ſilver, a thunder-bolt in the middle, upon a blue and white ground. Motto, *Senſere Gigantes*. Both ſides the ſame.
2. A red ſtandard, two hands with a ſword, and with a laurel wreath and imperial crown at top. Motto, *Incorrupta Fides & avita Virtus*. On the other ſide the ſun. Motto, *Nec pluribus impar*.
3. A yellow ſtandard, embroidered with gold and ſilver, the ſun in the middle. No motto.
4. A green ditto, in the ſame way.
5. The maſt of another torn off, but appears to have been red.
6. A white ſtandard, embroidered with gold and ſilver; in the middle, a bunch of nine arrows tied with a wreath, all ſtained with blood, the lance broke; the Cornet killed without falling, being buckled behind to his horſe, and his ſtandard buckled to him. Motto, *Alterius Jovis, altera Tela*. This ſtandard belonged to the Muſquetaires Noirs, and was taken by a ſerjeant of Lieutenant General HAWLEY's of the right ſquadron of the whole line.

In a private letter concerning this battle, we were told, that Sir ROBERT RICH's regiment having loſt their ſtandard, a private man rode into a ſquadron of French horſe, ſword in hand, and retook it.

Thomas Brown, of Kirkleatham, Yorkſhire.

By the accounts from Paris, the French had the aſſurance to claim the victory, under pretence of their becoming maſters of the field of battle the next day, upon the allies purſuing their march for Hanau, (which they call a retreat) and leaving their ſick and wounded behind. Upon which, in an account printed at Francfort, and reprinted at the Hague, it is obſerved, as the allies continued their march, according to their original deſign, to Hanau, the French had an opportunity of regaining the next day not only the field of battle, but his Britannic Majeſty's head quarters at Aſchaffenbourg, on which ſome people fancy they will raiſe doubts about the victory; but as they have only taken one piece of cannon, a very few colours, and ſcarce any priſoners, ſuch a pretence would be ridiculous; neither does M. NOAILLES ſtand in need of any ſuch artifices to raiſe his reputation, ſince every body agrees, that he did, on this occaſion, all that could be expected from a brave man, or an experienced general.

The French, according to their uſual modeſty, alſo affect greatly to exaggerate the loſs of the allies, and diminiſh their own; pretending, in one of their accounts, that their loſs amounted to about 4000 men, and that of the allies to 6000. But it appears by a liſt taken of the killed and wounded, that on the ſide of the Auſtrians and their allies, there were 2351 killed and wounded, and no more. The French having left the Emperor and his dominions at the mercy of the Auſtrians, as has been intimated already, the Imperial General Count SECKENDORF was obliged thereby to agree to a ſuſpenſion of arms, though the war ſtill continued between the Auſtrians and the French, who had not yet totally evacuated either Bohemia or Bavaria, but kept poſſeſſion of ſome of the ſtrong towns.

His Britannick Majeſty remaining ſtill in his camp near Hanau, Prince CHARLES of Lorrain, Marſhal KHEVENHULLER, and ſeveral more of the Auſtrian Generals, paid him a viſit on the 15th of July, and continued there till the 18th, when it is ſuppoſed the future operations of the campaign were concerted; Prince CHARLES returning afterwards to his army on the Rhine, marched up that river as high as Briſac; whereupon the Duke of NOAILLES detached part of his army into the Upper Alſace, to join the French forces already there, and oppoſe Prince CHARLES, if he ſhould attempt to paſs the Rhine thereabouts: and at the ſame time the Duke retired with the remainder of the French army quite out of Germany into the Lower Alſace. Whereupon the French Miniſters every where declared that the King had commanded his armies to retire out of Germany, and commit no hoſtilities there, unleſs they were attacked; but that he ſhould regard, and even treat thoſe as *direct* enemies, who ſhould act in any manner againſt his armies, and not as allies to the Queen of Hungary; which was given out to deter the Engliſh and Dutch from approaching his frontiers: on the other hand, the Queen of Hungary publiſhed a manifeſto, declaring, that as ſhe had, by the bleſſing of God, and the aſſiſtance of her allies, delivered her dominions from her enemies that had invaded them, who had been obliged to repaſs the Rhine, ſhe was reſolved to improve the advantages ſhe had obtained, and therefore had commanded her Generals to penetrate into the dominions of France which formerly belonged to the Empire, and aſſured the inhabitants of Alſace, Burgundy, Franche County, Lorrain and Bar, and of that part of the Duchy of Luxemburg which had been diſmembered from it, that her armies were ſent to deliver them from a ſituation which often expoſed their countries to be the ſeat of war; and if they remained quiet in their dwellings, and did not take up arms againſt her, but punctually paid their contributions, and furniſhed the proviſions and forage that was demanded, they might rely on the Queen's clemency, who had no other view than to ſecure the tranquility of the Empire, by confining France within her ancient bounds.

Prince Charles attempts to paſs the Rhine.

The Auſtrian and French armies being now poſted on the banks of the Upper Rhine, cannonaded each other; and though Prince CHARLES could not find an opportunity of paſſing that river in the face of ſo numerous an army as the French Generals commanded, the Huſſars made frequent incurſions into Alſace, where they met with a rich booty, and laid the country under contribution. In the mean time the Britiſh forces and their allies paſſed the Lower Rhine a little below Mentz, and on the 27th, N. S. began to march along the weſtern bank of that river towards Alſace, in order to give the Duke of NOAILLES battle, or compel him to retire further from the Rhine, and facilitate Prince CHARLES's paſſing that river, which he attempted ſeveral times, but his troops were repulſed; and this was aſcribed to the inſignificant diverſion the Engliſh and their allies made in the Lower Alſace: they advanced indeed through the Palatinate, but when the French retired into their own country, the allies were extremely cautious of attacking them; and as to the Dutch they always kept a conſiderable diſtance, in the rear of the army, that they might not give any umbrage to the French: for nothing ſeems more manifeſt than that the allied army never intended to purſue the French into their own country, and begin an offenſive war with that nation: and as the French Generals very well underſtood this, they detached ſo many of their forces into the Upper Alſace to oppoſe the paſſage of Prince CHARLES, that he found it impracticable to attempt it any longer: and if there was any difference between his Britiſh Majeſty and that Prince at their interview near Hanau, as the French inſinuated, it probably proceeded from the King's averſion to invade the dominions of France, and make a diverſion in the Lower Alſace, while Prince CHARLES paſſed the Rhine in Upper Alſace.

The allies cautious of invading the French territories.

In the mean time the gariſon of Ingolſtadt agreed to ſurrender on condition of being permitted to march out with all the honours of war; and on the 18th of September the Bavarians took the oaths to the Queen of Hungary, with ſome alteration at their requeſt, wherein they promiſe fidelity and obedience to her Majeſty, ſo long *only* as ſhe ſhall be in poſſeſſion of the Bavarian dominions.

The Bavarians take the oaths to the Q. of Hungary.

Egra ſurrenders.

The gariſon of Egra alſo ſurrendered about the ſame time, and ſubmitted to remain priſoners of war; and the town was evacuated on the 31ſt of Auguſt; ſo that the Queen of Hungary had then no enemies left to the eaſtward of the Rhine.

His Britiſh Majeſty left the army at Hanau, and ſet out for Hanover on the 5th of October, and ſoon after the Engliſh and Hanoverians begun their march back to Flanders, and the Dutch to their own territories: Prince CHARLES alſo, finding the paſſing of the Rhine impracticable ſeparated his army, and ſent them into winter quarters; which he had no ſooner done but the French paſſed the Rhine at Hunninghen with 20000 men to the German ſide, where they fortified themſelves, and maintained their ground the following winter.

Prince Charles ſeparates his army.

The French enter Germany again.

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